

台灣英文系大學生英文寫作學習動機之個案研究

**A Case Study of Taiwanese English-Majored Students'
Academic English Writing Motivation**

by

陳捷文 Chieh-Wen Chen

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the

Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of

Tunghai University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ARTS in

Teaching English As A Foreign Language

TUNGHAI UNIVERSITY

June 2015

中華民國一百零四年六月

東海大學碩士學位論文考試審定書

外國語文學系 碩士班

研究生 陳捷文 Chieh-Wen Chen 所撰之論文：

台灣英文系大學生英文寫作學習動機之個案研究

A Case Study of Taiwanese English-Majored Students'

Academic English Writing Motivation

經本委員會審查，符合碩士學位論文標準。

學位考試委員會

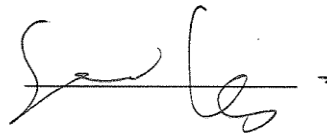
指導教授 郭宜蕙

考試委員 蘇緒惠

陳中強

郭宜蕙

系主任



中華民國 104 年 05 月 22 日

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I know it is a cliché to say the completion of this thesis would have been nearly impossible without the continual support of my thesis advisor, the oral defense committee, the research participants, my lovely friends, and my dearest parents, but it is true.

Firstly, I would like to give my utmost gratitude to my thesis advisor, Dr. Yi-Huey Guo, who has been constantly providing the most indispensable help, encouragement, and academic guidance throughout the thesis writing processes. She always provided me with her insightful, professional, and constructive perspectives and offered me concrete comments and knowledge to emerge myself to the pursuit of high quality work. Besides, she always prompts me with her warm words whenever I felt that I was deeply trapped in frustration and felt like giving up. Her advice has been a beacon of hope which has guided me through the endless revisions and reformulation of ideas. Thanks to her precious suggestions and valuable feedback on my drafts that I could finally reach the end of thesis compilation.

Secondly, I would like to give my sincere appreciation to Dr. Jung-Han Chen and Dr. Hsiu-Hui Su for their constructive feedback and practical suggestions on my proposal hearing, final oral defense and the overall organization of my thesis writing. Their valuable comments have further perfected this thesis. I am indeed grateful to

have invited them to be my thesis reviewers; especially when I knew that they both had squeezed time for my thesis when they were occupied heavily with other academic responsibilities.

Thirdly, though my gratitude has gone far beyond words, I have to put down my gratitude to my dearest parents who have been waiting patiently for the completion of this thesis and offering me much needed support and comfort during the composing processes. They have never doubted once whether I could finish the thesis or never persuaded me to give up. They have been the best parents who have taught me to trust myself and never surrender to my frustration and apprehension. However, I also have to say sorry to them for not being able to finish the thesis as soon as possible for I knew they had also suffered from worries and anxieties for me.

Finally, I would like to mention some of my friends who have always been there for me the whole graduate school years and were willing to spend their time with me whenever I felt alone or needed some company. Thanks to you all, my closest friends Shing-Chein Chang, Jheng Han, Tzu-Yang Chang, Syuan-Jia Ciou, Wei-Hsing Lin, Chia-Jun Lin, Hsin-Yi Wu, Chieh-I Chen.

I would always feel indebted to the people mentioned above, and I would always remember that it would be impossible for me to move on to the next page of my life without them.

台灣英文系大學生英文寫作學習動機之個案研究

研究生：陳捷文

指導教授：郭宜蕙 博士

摘要

雖然學習動機在語言學習的研究裡已被廣泛地視為學習的重要一環，但對於影響學習動機的環境顯要因素卻缺乏更深入的觀察研究探討，尤其對於大學生的外語寫作學習動機的研究更是相對少數。因此，此研究探討環境因素對於大學生第二外語寫作學習動機的影響，研究結果也期望能對於外語學習動機與環境的影響的學術研究付出些微的貢獻。

此個案研究主要採質性研究方法，觀察環境因素對於學習者動機的影響，研究對象為兩位台灣私立大學外國語文學系之大二學生，兩位學生於研究者收集資料期間位於同一個英文寫作班求學。研究的資料來源包含針對兩位學生進行的一對一訪談的錄音檔、課堂期間觀察、寫作課老師與學生的個別會談、學生寫作作業樣本。而此些資料將用於進一步的資料分析，達到理解環境對於學生學習動機影響的目的。訪談的主要目的在於了解學生對於學習環境的真實的想法與感受以及如何培養個人的學習動機以達成學習的成果，其他資料則提供驗證受訪者口頭回應的真實性與提供進一步的訪談方向與結果分析。

**A Case study of Taiwanese English-Majored Students'
Academic English Writing Motivation**

Chieh-Wen Chen, M.A.

Thesis Advisor: Dr. Yi-Huey Guo

ABSTRACT

Although the importance of motivation research in the field of language learning has been widely confirmed, not many looked into classroom contextual factors that may affect the salient increase/decrease of English as a foreign language (EFL) college students' motivation for learning L2 academic writing. To bring to researchers and language learners a better understanding of EFL college students' L2 academic writing motivation, this study investigates the contextual factors that affect the participants' learning motivation.

This case study investigated how the classroom environmental factors affected learners' motivation for learning L2 writing by applying multiple qualitative research instruments. Two EFL college students volunteered to be research participants: Both of them majored in English and were taking college English composition class during the course of study.

The data were collected using the following data collection techniques: semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, teacher-student writing conferences, and the participants' writing samples. The researcher of the study used

these data to analyze the following themes: first, the participants' personal orientation (a set of goals or interests which influence one's motivational intensity) towards the learning of L2 writing; second, the contextual factors that affect the participants' L2 writing motivation in the composition classes. These themes will help language teachers and researchers to better understand how learners construct their motivation and their attitudes towards the learning situation.

Key words: motivation, L2 writing, orientation, college level, EFL

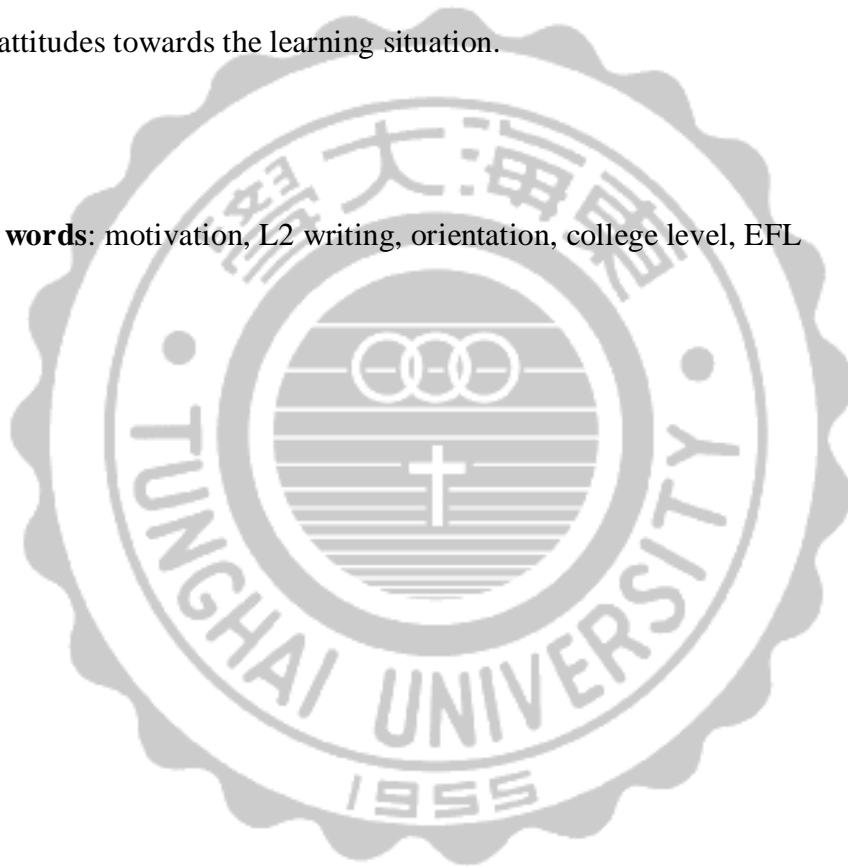


TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	i
ABSTRACT (Chinese)	iii
ABSTRACT (English)	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION	1
Significance of the Study	5
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions	7
CHAPTER TWO REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	8
The Centrality of LLM in SLA	8
Motivation Research Methods	12
Characteristics of Motivated Learners	14
Motivation in Multi-dimensional Perspectives	17
The Development of Motivation Theories	20
Second Language Acquisition Motivational Constructs.....	23
Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation.....	23
Integrative and Instrumental Motivation.....	27
Motivating L2 Learners in Language Classroom.....	34
Motivating and De-motivating Factors in L2 Classroom.....	38
Demotivation Factors in L2 Composition Classroom	42
CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY	47
Participants	47
Data Collection Procedure and Instruments	47
Classroom observations	48
Interviews	50
CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	53
The Case of Allen.....	53
Future Career as an Instrumental Orientation	53

Personal Interest as a Motivating Factor	54
Teacher’s Instruction as a Motivating Factor	54
Positive Writing Feedback as a Motivating Factor	57
Classroom Atmosphere as a Motivating Factor	61
The Case of Lily	63
Future Career as an Instrumental Orientation	63
Teacher’s Feedback as a Motivating Factor	64
Classroom Atmosphere as a Motivating Factor	65
Teacher’s Instrumental Attitude as a Demotivating Factor	67
Classmates’ Attitude as a Demotivating Factor.....	68
CHAPTER FIVE CONCLUSIONS	71
Summary of the Major Findings	71
Pedagogical Implications.....	75
Limitations of the Study	77
Recommendations for Future Research.....	78
REFERENCES	79
APPENDICES.....	95
Appendix A Interview Guide.....	95
Appendix B Consent Letter	96

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

In SLA research, motivation has been considered one of the most important learner components and a key factor which determines the success and persistence of successful language learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001a). Some researchers claimed that no successful learning can be carried out without a certain degree of learner motivation (Brown, 1987, 2007; Dörnyei, 1994a, 2001a; Ellis, 1994a, 2008; Oxford, 1996). Ellis (1994) pointed out that motivation affects learner's perseverance, learning behaviors, and success in learning. Ryan and Deci (2000) claimed that motivation affects one's amount of energy bestowed on learning, as well as one's persistence. Wlodowski (1985) also maintains that motivation provokes learning behaviors, helps learner generate purposes of learning, and aids to sustain these behaviors. Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) laid a claim that motivation is closely related to one's attitudes, desires, and efforts of learning.

In language classrooms, motivation plays an important role. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) viewed motivation an important factor as it helps language learners to generate drives and sustains the efforts to go through the processes of acquiring linguistic subjects. The relationship between L2 learning and motivation has been profoundly and repetitively researched, thus different theories of language learning motivation

were constantly proposed. For instance, Deci and Ryan (1985) based on their self-determination theory explains language learning motivation in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motives. Intrinsic motivation exhibits a pure pleasure or enjoyment of the learning processes. The satisfaction of learning forms the basis of intrinsic motives. While the extrinsic motives emphasized a need for external stimulus, such as goals to be achieved, or rewards derived from the results of learning (Atkinson, McClelland, Clark, & Lowell, 1953). On the other hand, Gardner and Lambert's (1972) social-psychological model have been playing a dominant role in SLA field (Brown, 1987; Dörnyei, 1994a, Ellis, 2008; Oxford, 1996). In Gardner and Lambert's theory, not only the motivation, but the personal learning orientations (which in Gardner's term refers to learning goals) was also highly emphasized. Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) claimed that the generation of motivation for L2 learning is critically related to one's orientations. Later Gardner (1985) classified and identified two clusters of orientations concerning second language acquisition: integrative and instrumental ones. Gardner stated the well-refined concepts of motivation and suggested that language learners' motivation is mainly integrative and instrumentally oriented, and this dominant viewpoint was soon confirmed and well-accepted in the field of foreign and second language learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991).

Though it seems that the proposition of motivation theories never stops;

nevertheless, Brown (1994) and Liu (2001) concluded that Deci and Ryan's (1985) and Gardner's (1985) second language motivation theories are basically compatible (cited in Gao, Zhao, Cheng, & Zhou, 2004). In most cases, integrative motivation is generally regarded intrinsically oriented and instrumental motivation extrinsically driven. Brown (2000), on the other hand, pointed out that integrative and instrumental motivation coexists among individual learner and learners do not depend necessarily upon any single orientation. Furthermore, Clement and Kruidenier (1983) earlier found that instrumental-oriented learners learn their second languages for various purposes, including the purposes of traveling, seeking new friends, or acquiring knowledge (cited in Ahmadi, 2011). This suggests that learners manifest a variety of goals in relation to their study of L2. This has caused some arguments that learner's motivation for L2 learning should be re-examined (Crookes & Schmidt; Dörnyei, 1994, 1991; Ely, 1986; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). For example, second language learners' orientations to L2 writing appear to be less clear since no motivation theory confirms L2 learners' acquisition of single language skill. In addition, as Gardner (1985) earlier stated that L2 motivation generally includes three major components: "desire to learn the language, attitudes toward learning the language, and motivational intensity" (p. 54). This suggests that learning a L2 successfully does not depend solely upon one's orientations. Researchers should avoid overlooking factors that influence

motivation, such as contextual factors. Also, a learner's orientations do not lead to his/her success of language learning; it is learners' motivated learning efforts that determine the learning outcome (Gardner, 2001). Motivation research should focus on learner and the context of learning by examining "who," "what" and "where" – who learns what language at where that matters (Dörnyei, 1994). Ur (2005) also adds that learners' motivation in language classroom is closely related to the learning situation and the given tasks. Moreover, in a language classroom, learner's motivation can be affected simultaneously by other situational and task-related factors (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b, 2005; Ur, 2005), which might cause motivation fluctuation (Ellis, 2008). De-motivation studies have supported the view that language learners' motivation is strongly affected by the learning situation and factors pertaining to the classroom such as the atmosphere of the class, the given tasks, or the teachers (Chambers, 1993; Hasegawa, 2004; Kikuchi, 2009; Oxford, 1998; Ushioda, 1998). Dörnyei (2005) proposed that a student's learning motivation should also include his/her attitudes towards the learning situation, meaning that the learners' feelings towards the teachers and the language course should also be included in studying one's motivation for language learning.

To sum up, these discussions indicate that a simple classification of learners' orientations does not yield enough understanding. Therefore, the researcher intended

to understand English major college students' learning of L2 writing in Taiwan by investigating relevant factors such as orientations form the students' learning goals and salient classroom factors affecting their learning attitudes toward L2 writing in a college composition class.

Significance of the Study

Firstly, though many studies have dissected the nature of motivation and its link to second language learning, not many focused on learners' motivation for the acquisition of L2 writing. Secondly, although motivation has been widely recognized as a significant affected factor of one's second language success, language learning researchers still have very limited knowledge about what potentially increase and decrease L2 learners' motivation for learning, especially in the domain of L2 writing. Understanding the elements which affect L2 learners' motivation in the language classroom is an issue that deserves to be thoroughly researched.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to probe in to the types of motivation generated by L2 writers and salient factors affecting their learning of L2 writing in college classroom settings. The researcher of the study followed qualitative inquiry to observe

naturalistically English-majored sophomores' L2 writing processes. This study holds that a use of qualitative inquiry allows the researcher to have an in-depth observation of the participants' learning contexts, their attitudes towards L2 writing as well as an identification of salient factors affecting their learning behaviors for writing.

Furthermore, the use of quantitative research method in prior studies has faced some validity problems (Dörnyei, 1990; Ellis, 2008). Although many relevant studies used quantitative instruments (e.g., questionnaire research) to investigate the causal relationships between language learning success and motivation, the use of a qualitative approach allowed this study to gain more access to learner's self-report, a way of knowing their psychological states or true feelings related to their generation of writing motivation (Ellis, 2008). Two English-majored sophomore students who volunteered to participate in this study were examined. The researcher of the study attempted to use interviews and classroom observations to explore their learning goals or orientations as well as their self-perceived classroom-related motivating and de-motivating factors. With the use of multiple qualitative instruments, the researcher had a closer observation about the relationship underlying Taiwanese college students' situated learning context, their learning orientations, attitudes and self-perceived factors affecting their L2 academic writing.

Research Questions

Since the issue of enhancing learners' motivation often falls under the research, and second language writing is an integral part of language learning, this study was conducted to address the following research questions: First, what individual goals or orientations held by the research participants dominate their learning motivation for L2 academic writing? Second, how do they develop these goals or orientations? Third, what factors are considered by the research participants to be saliently motivating or demotivating in their second language writing processes?

This study aims to better understand Taiwanese college students' L2 writing motivation. It is expected that the findings to the research questions can shed light on pedagogical implications for English language teaching in Taiwan.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter begins with a general discussion of learner motivation in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) , followed by a review of literature discussing affected factors of second language learning, particularly L2 writing. This chapter presents a panorama of learner motivation and its importance in SLA.

The Centrality of LLM in SLA

Every language learner constructs their learning in varied ways and every language teacher wants to know why some students are better language learners. In the last decade, many factors related to language learning success have been identified. Theorists and educators are eager to propose theories or approaches among them, among which language learning motivation (LLM) is one which has been paid more attention. The concept of motivation is defined by a number of prior researchers. When learners are motivated, they are “moved” to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 54). In Brown’s definition, motivation refers to “the intensity of one’s impetus to learn” (2007, p. 88). Brophy (1988) defined learner motivation as “a student tendency to find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile and to try to derive the intended academic benefit from them” (pp. 205-206, cited in Woolfolk, 2010). Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1979) described motivation as something that

“energizes behavior and give it direction” (p. 281, cited in Arnold & Brown, 1999).

In the early years of motivation research, some researchers questioned the importance of motivation and compared it to language aptitude. The discussion was aroused as to determine which individual factor accounts for a bigger proportion of leaning. Ellis (1994) later drew upon Gardner’s (1980; 1985) research and claimed that motivation and language aptitude both “account for a substantial amount of the variance in learners’ L2 proficiency” (p. 524) and he suggested that the importance of both factors should not be overlooked. Furthermore, though both factors are personal innate factors, but unlike language aptitude which seems to be a natural factor, learner motivation on the contrary belongs to an area where teachers are more capable of exerting the most influence (Ur, 2005). Another question which has bugged prior researchers for a period time is: which comes first, motivation or L2 success? Many researchers were interested in solving this question in the earlier days of motivation research (Burstall, Jamieson, Cohen, & Hargreaves 1974; Gardner, 1980). Gardner and Lambert (1972) primarily addressed that motivation is something that learners have highly developed before they enter the second language classroom; hence it influences success in L2. However, later research has partly overruled this viewpoint, it was found that the relationships between motivation and L2 success are resultant, causative, and interactive (Brown, 1987; Cooper & MaCaslin, 2006; Ellis, 1994; Ellis,

1985b; Ellis, 2008; Gardner, 1985; Rueda and Chen, 2005; Skehan, 1989; sikszenmihalyi & Nakamura, 1989). In other words, a high degree of motivation leads to one's success in learning. Ur (2005) noted that the question of "cause or result" of motivation and success does not necessarily cause any problems in language teaching, because it simply suggests that a priority of language teaching is to raise students' motivation through the use of strategies, a way of shortening the distance between language learning and success. Though language learning success and motivation are interactive, Dörnyei (2001b) suggested that there is still a need to research how motivation affects success in different language skills.

The importance of this factor has been repetitively emphasized, examined, discussed in various aspects of education (Ellis, 1994). Ellis (2008) pointed out that "no single individual difference factor in language learning has received as much attention as motivation" (p. 677). Past studies concluded that positive learner motivation makes teaching and learning "easier and more pleasant, as well as productive" (Ur, 2005, p. 274). Shearin (1996) stated that the importance of learner motivation "determines the extent of active, personal involvement in foreign or second language learning." (p. 121). Qin (2003) stated that motivation affects the students' autonomy of learning and strengthens their self-confidence in conquering learning difficulties. Oxford and Engin (2009) also reported that learning motivation

determines how language learners get linguistic information and expand their ability to comprehend, speak and write the second language. It affects “social interactions and academic achievement” in the language classroom (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 376).

In the classroom practice domain, Qin (2002) have pointed out that motivation greatly enhances learners’ use of learning strategies, willingness of learning, persistence and making of learning goals. Engin (2009) claimed that one’s learning outcome depends largely on his/her positive motivation. Dörnyei (1998) explained that those with the most extraordinary abilities may not even carry out long-term goals if they fail to demonstrate a certain degree of motivation. Other prior researchers such as Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Oxford and Shearin (1994), Dörnyei (2001a), Qin (2002), and Engin (2006) have supported the claim that motivation is a crucial factor affecting the success or failure of one’s second language learning. According to Dörnyei (1994), motivated learners are more autonomous in learning and more capable of handling pressures and learning tasks; these make the teacher-student relationship more pleasant.

From the language instructor’s perspective, a language teacher’s job is not only to provide learners’ with substantive channels for learning but also to help learners to discover their individual potential (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Ur, 2005). Therefore, helping the students “emotionally, behaviorally” engage in the “productive class

activities” is a crucial task for the language teachers (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 375). To enhance the students’ greater engagement in language learning, the teacher should seek ways to promote the students’ motivation (Dörnyei, 1998; 2001a; 2001b). Okada, Oxford, and Abo (1999) suggested that teachers include specially-designed activities in the teaching to foster the students’ learning motivation. Pae (2008) also confirmed that language teachers should play a more active role in the students’ enhancement of learning motivation. Engin (2009) pointed out that experienced teachers know how students are motivated and would design instrumental activities to assist students in acquiring second language competence. Brown (2007) further suggested that language teachers need to enhance their students’ motivation as motivated students are more likely to be self-determined, autonomous, and successful. Since language learners generally hope to gain progress in academic performance, teachers should develop teaching strategies that can enhance their students’ learning motivation (Girard, 1977; Ur, 2005; Wright & Helem, 1991). Overall, motivation research still has a great impact on second language research.

Motivation Research Methods

Evaluating the influence of motivation on one’s language learning is a hot topic in the SLA field, however; the measurement of it can be controversial. Various

measurements have been applied to assess language learners' motivation. A very common instrument used is the use of questionnaire. For instance, Gardner (1980, 1985), in an attempt to investigate the relationship between motivation and success in L2 learning, invented the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB); it is now commonly used in motivation research nowadays. The AMTB includes self-rating items for the participants to report self-perceptions. Other techniques such as recorded interviews or answering questions in written forms are also pervasively applied in qualitative studies (e.g. , Chamber 1993; Kikuchi, 2009; Oxford 1998; Ushioda, 2003). However, most motivation research is conducted with the use of quantitative approaches, qualitative approaches seems to be less used (Brown, 2007; Ellis, 2008). However, Cambell, and Fiske (1959) noted that a study which incorporates multiple approaches such as observation and interviews might yield a more profound result. For example, in the attribution study (a branch of motivation study which focuses on the reasons learner consider contributory to their success or failures of L2 learning), in order to investigate their attributes, the incorporation of qualitative perspective is necessary (Ellis, 2008). Motivation research inspired by a qualitative inquiry seems to allow the researchers to gain more insights to the field.

Characteristics of Motivated Learners

A high degree of motivation instigates a cluster of motivated learning behaviors, and these learning behaviors potentially lead to successful language learning.

According to Gardner (1980), Glikzman, Gardner, and Smythe (1982), Ur (2005) and

Brown (2007), motivation affects individual learner's efforts, persistence and other

learning-related attitudes. Woolfolk (2010) also stated that "students with similar

abilities and prior knowledge may perform differently, based on their motivation" (p.

376). One way to understand motivation is to observe the learner's motivated

behaviors. Learners who exhibit the motivated behaviors are considered the motivated

ones. They are actively involved in learning, and often manifest overt observable

expressive behaviors. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) defined a motivated learner as the

one that "productively engaged in learning tasks, and sustains that engagement,

without the need for continual encouragement or direction" (p. 480). Motivated

second language learners often exhibit a positive attitude towards their L2 learning

(Ur, 2005). On the opposite, unmotivated ones are "insufficiently involved and

therefore unable to develop their potential L2 skills" (Oxford & Shearin, 1996, p. 121).

In short, feeling motivated allows second language learners to acquire L2 more easily

and effectively (Naiman, Froehlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978).

Naiman et al. (p. 275, 1978, cited in Ur, 2005) concluded the characteristics of motivated learners. These characteristics include (1) positive attitudes, meaning that motivated learners are confident in tackling required tasks and unknown challenges; (2) self-image, meaning that they value highly their personal images; (3) sense of achievement, meaning that they try to overcome learning difficulties to achieve the sense of fulfillment; (4) aggressiveness, which refers to the situation that they are ambitious to achieve higher academic performance or goals; (5) goal-directedness, which means that they have clear learning goals and endeavor to follow the goals; (6) persistence, which refers to the situation that they make effort to maintain persistence even if they fail to make apparent progress; (7) ambiguity tolerance, which can be found on the occasion when they lack sufficient background knowledge leading to successful learning, they still tend to believe that learning will come afterwards. In contrast to motivated learners, unmotivated learners are involved less in the learning progresses and are unable to make much development in the second language acquisition. To sum up, in second language learning, the motivated behaviors show to others that their learning is taking place.

Some learner behaviors such as the learner's self-regulation were also considered the results of learning motivation. Self-regulation refers to learner's ability to ideally monitor his/her and decide upon learning strategies which s/he considers helpful

(Dörnyei, 2005). Dörnyei noted that learners who exhibit motivational self-regulation are prone to sustain their motivation and keep the involvement in the given tasks.

One's high state of self-regulation controls his/her attitudinal and motivational factors and hence fosters his/her self-examinational actions and learning beliefs. Alsamadani

(2010) considered motivation as the antecedent of self-regulatory ability and

hypothesized that self-regulation affects second language learning. In his study of

investigating the relationship underlying self-regulatory ability, L1 and L2 writing, 35

college level male native Arabic-speaking students learning English as a second

language received writing tests and self-report instruments. It was found that students'

writing competence is closely linked to their self-regulation. Those who were more

able to apply self-regulation successfully scored obviously higher than those who

were less capable of regulating their learning.

Another motivational-related behavior is the learner's attribution, which

emphasizes the learners' self-reflection via the examination of the learners'

self-perceived causes of their own successes and failures: knowing students'

self-attribution helps teachers to find/design teaching sources that motivate their

learning (Ellis, 2008). Through the examination, learners explain how they manage

their study and what lowers their motivation for learning. Li (2006) who studied

Chinese students in Britain's universities found that his research participants tended to

attribute their success to the classroom environment (e.g., native people are kind, the classroom environment suits their study needs) and their failure to the lack of personal efforts (e.g., they did not study hard enough).

Motivation in Multi-dimensional Perspectives

Brown (2007) mentioned that an affective factor exhibits “multi-dimensionality”, which means that learner motivation can be identified and explained at different levels. Because of the above situation, Gardner (1993), Arnold and Fonseca (2004) considered motivation to be complicated; Ellis (2008) described it “dynamic” and “temporal” since it exhibits the feature of constant variance. The multi-dimensional nature of motivation can be shown below. Prior studies stated that it can be affected by learners’ long-term accumulation of personal experience, the current learning situations such as classroom situational factors or the tasks learners have to tackle. That is, learner motivation in a classroom can be classified into three levels: global, situational and task-oriented (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001a; Ur, 2005).

In the global level of learner motivation, the learner shows a stable state resulting from his/her long-term attitude towards the value of learning (Dörnyei, 2001a). Global motivation is considered not an-easy-to-change one. The second way of looking at learner motivation is its situational variance; depending on the situation,

motivation can be elusive and flexible. In other words, motivation can be presented in varied ways in the classroom, workplace or other life situations. For instance, if a student is in a classroom situation where s/he is asked to answer the teacher's question loudly in front of the whole class, his/her motivation tends to fluctuate (Brown, 1987; 2007). Motivation in the task-oriented level refers to the individual's reaction to the tasks such as accepting a request to complete an assignment or performing the written exercises in the class. Brown (2007) noted that successful learning of second language requires the operation of these three levels of motivation.

The situational and task-oriented features of motivation were examined by Egbert (2003), who studied the "flow" of Spanish college students' performance on several given tasks. Egbert referred flow to "an experiential state characterized by intense focus and involvement that leads to improved performance on a task (p.689, cited in Ellis, 2008). He found several conditions prone to the students' flow development. When the learners felt balanced between the difficulty of the tasks and personal skills, they were more likely to have intensive concentration, to perceive success through the feedback, and to exhibit a weakened sense of consciousness. They may even feel that time flies fast during the class hour since they participate fully in the classroom activities.

Though many have suggested that motivation should be explained based on the learning context where individuals constantly face rewards, punishments and social pressure, some psychologists maintain that motivation is less contextually related. They hold that consider motivation concerns more about the individual traits such as the inner drive, the needs, the constant desire to achieve success, or the curiosity about new things. Nevertheless, Woolfolk (2010) noted that the majority of learner motivation is a mixture of personal traits and contextual state. In fact, the notion that motivation can be internally (i.e., personal traits) or externally (i.e., environmental causes) elicited is supported by early studies in psychology, cognition, and constructivism. Dörnyei (2001a) suggested that a broader social context which includes factors like the classroom interaction, the quality of the school settings, the teacher's/ parental influence, and the learners' perceptions and attitudes towards the nature of learning should also be researched as these elements are likely to promote the learners' motivation. Reudo and Chen (2005) also addressed that motivation was affected social-culturally, which means that learning a L2 is considered important in the society. In short, there is a need to reconsider a broader context of language learning in the motivation research (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005a).

The Development of Motivation Theories

Learner motivation plays an important role in language learning; therefore, how learners generate motivation and how they sustain the feeling of what Ryan and Deci (2000) described as “moved” to learning have also been studied a lot, among which an integrated application of motivation theories is beneficial to answering varied pedagogical questions raised by school teachers. According to Brown (2007), language learning is “inextricably woven in to the fabric of virtually every aspect of human behavior... that it cannot be separated from the larger whole” (p. 154) so as motivation. Liu (2007) stated that language learners initiate learning based on various accounts, such as social pressure or rewards, course advancement or credits, and the pursuit of goals. The development of these former motivation theories is closely linked to the multi-dimensional nature of learner motivation.

The aforementioned theories maintain that motivation can be internally (i.e., personal traits) or externally (i.e., environmental causes) elicited. Internal-motivating factors include the learner’s needs, interests, and curiosity; external-motivating factors include the learner’s rewards, punishment, social pressure, etc. This notion was supported by three earlier perspectives in psychologist, cognitivist, and constructivist. The internal traits of motivation were often explained by a cognitivist view while the external causes were often clarified by a behavioral psychologist view and a

cognitivist view.

A cognitivist view considers motivation to be elusive. It stresses an individual's inner satisfaction and refers to the force of self-rewarding in one's decision-making progress (Keller, 1983); that human beings enjoy self-rewarding and the feeling of self-controlling for the meeting of individual needs has been supported by prior researchers. Ausubel (1968) proposed that the learners' inner drives are the basis of their actions. These drives include exploration (which refers to one's need for discovering the unknown), manipulation (which refers to one's need for managing, controlling, or changing the external environment), activity (which refers to one's need for mental or physical activity), stimulation (which refers to one's need to be intrinsically or extrinsically stimulated, knowledge (which refers to one's effort to deal with or to internalize the results of individual need for the formation of an integral system of knowledge), and ego enhancement (which refers to one's need to form an identity that can be recognized or accepted by others). Maslow (1970), on the other hand, emphasizes the pyramid of human needs. In Maslow's hierarchy of human needs, the needs range from lower level such as the needs for food and rest to the higher ones such as needs for a sense of belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow stressed that only when the lower level human needs such as physical hunger are satisfied can the pursuit of higher level needs such as

self-esteem or the ultimate self-actualization be possible. This theory presents the gradual process of needs achievement. In other words, in the classroom context, when the learner's basic needs are satisfied, then learning also starts to operate.

The behavioral psychologists emphasize the rewards in human behavior; human behaviors are mainly triggered by external rewards. In the educational context, learners act upon external triggers, such as parents, peers, teachers, or simply a candy if they were young kids (Brown, 2007). Through these triggers, learner's learning behavior can be reinforced. Brown concluded that the behavioral view stresses and defines motivation as "the anticipation of reinforcement" (p. 85). This seems to imply that one's desired learning behavior can be carried out by certain attractive rewards even when the rewards are of intangible value, such as the laughter (Brown, 1987). On the other hand, the constructivists place the motivation in a wider range since they hold that individual's motivation should be understood within a social context. While the behavioral and the cognitive view emphasized the individual's reaction to external rewards or inner drives, the constructivist view of motivation puts more emphasis on the interaction between the individuals and the social environment. William and Burden (1997) stated that, in the constructivist view, the social and cultural context and one's decision-making are interrelated. This means that an individual's motivation is affected by social and cultural milieu. However, assertions are not completely

separated from each other; instead they are correlated, which helps researchers to better interpret various motivational constructs (Brown, 2007). Later, this external-internal discussion also led to the well-known dichotomy of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in L2 learning research, and whether one's action is intrinsically motivated or extrinsically motivated formed the "the locus of causality", the sources of tracing one's motivation (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 377). In general, that the notion of motivation is internally and externally instigated has been widely accepted (Atkinson, 1983; Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005).



Second Language Acquisition Motivational Constructs
Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

When it comes to the discussion of L2 motivation theories, most of the research focuses on the mainstream theories such as Gardner and Lamberts' (1972) integrative and instrumental motivation and the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Piric, 2011).

Though new models have been continuously proposed, Lucas, Pulido, Miraflores, Ignacia, Tacay and Lao (2010) argued that the new models exert complementary functions to previous theories.

Studies revolving around second language learner motivation concerns how the learner's motivation affects the results of his/her language learning. And most

contemporary theories of motivation assume that people involve themselves in activities for a belief that their engagement will lead to a desired goal or gain (Deci & Ryan, 2000). One of these constructs is the intrinsic and extrinsic dichotomy. The intrinsic and extrinsic dichotomy is mostly considered a “continuum” in explaining learners’ motivation (Brown, 1987, 2007; Ur, 2005). It refers to learners’ action belonging to the two sides of the continuum, ranging from one side of “fully self-determined” (completely intrinsically motivated) to the other side of “fully determined by others” (completely extrinsically motivated) (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 378).

The intrinsic and extrinsic motivation dichotomy in second language learning was incorporated by Deci and Ryan (1985) into their self-determination theory (SDT). Rooted in cognitive and behavioral psychology, SDT and focused on the learner’s innate tendency to learn and to assimilate; it also emphasized the influences of external orientation (i.e., goals).

One important element of SDT is the intrinsic motivation. The intrinsic refers one’s “natural human tendency” (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 377) toward the pursuit of interest or the overcoming of challenges. Learners who are motivated intrinsically experience the joy of learning; they do not need extra external incentives like rewards or punishments to support their learning because the learning activity itself is satisfactory enough. For example, in language classrooms, enjoying practicing

linguistic exercises without teacher's coercion is considered one intrinsically motivated learning behavior. Based on the self-determination theory, Noel et al. (2000) categorized the intrinsic motivated learning into different kinds such as IM-Knowledge (the feelings associated with exploring new ideas and developing), IM-Accomplishment (sensations related to the attempt to master a task or to achieve a goal, and IM-Stimulation (sensations stimulated by performing the task). Prior researchers claimed that learners engaged in intrinsically motivated activities are prone to produce high-quality and creativity works (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). Intrinsic motivated learners are more likely to continue their study even when the class session is ceased (Ramage, 1990).

On the other hand, learners whose learning acts are driven by the rewards, punishments, or external salient incentives such as receiving the course credits are considered extrinsically motivated. Unlike the intrinsically motivated ones, extrinsically motivated learners, according to Wu (2003) are less likely to sustain their learning when their externally incentives disappear.

Past research has shown various findings with the SDT theory and the intrinsic/extrinsic feature of language learning. For example, Dörnyei (1994) noted that learners will easily lose their intrinsic interests in learning if they are overloaded with external requirements. Brown (2007) stated that very often the sources of

extrinsic pressures in a language course are the requirements set by the institution such as the standardized test scores that should be achieved. Wang (2008) in a study with 469 non-English major freshmen at a comprehensive university in China found that some learners who were externally motivated tend to learn the language merely for the getting the teacher's praise, high exam scores, or for the graduation; those with internal fulfillment and enjoyment are more autonomous in learning and tend to internalize the value of English learning.

For language teachers, they can arouse students' intrinsic motivation by creating an environment which instigates learners' interests, needs and curiosity. They should provide extra incentives to heighten their students' willingness to learn (Brown, 2007; Woolfolk, 2010). Wang (2008) explored the relationships between the intrinsic, extrinsic motivation and the achievement of English learning. He concluded that the extrinsic motivation is compatible with intrinsic motivation. Learners can be both intrinsically and exoterically motivated (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), yet it is not easy to differentiate their causes for action if the cause has been internalized (Ellis, 1994; Ellis, 2008; Engin, 2009). They might transform their extrinsic motives into intrinsic feeling, such as feeling guilty or shameful (Noels et al., 2001, cited in Liu, 2007). Wu (2003) suggested that the classroom environment has a significant impact on language learners' intrinsic motivation. Noel et al (2000) stated that the antecedents of intrinsic

motivation include learners' self-perceived competence and self-perceived autonomy in their learning. And Wu's (2003) study shows that an environment which incorporates a predictable learning environment, moderate challenging tasks, a necessary instructional support, and an evaluation featuring self-improvement is prone to promote learners' development of L2 competence. When learners' are given a freedom in choosing the content of language learning, their perceived autonomy is enhanced, leading to a higher level of L2 intrinsic motivation.

Integrative and Instrumental Motivation

Another construct that has probed into language learning motivation was launched by Gardner and Lambert (1972). The idea of integrative and instrumental motivation construct was originally derived from Gardner and Lamberts' social-educational framework. Lin & Warschauer (2011) described the integrative and instrumental paradigm as the most influential theory in the domain of language learning motivation; Xu (2010) noted that most of the L2 motivation studies have adopted this view.

Gardner and Lambert's (1972) social-educational model includes the following components: social milieu, individual difference, second language acquisition contexts, and results. Language learning is seen as a causal interplay of these four elements (Ghanea, Pisheh, & Ghanea, 2011). The social milieu component views

second language learning as something that must be achieved within a large environment (more than just classroom). The social community affects learners' evaluation of the importance of the L2, and casts expectations upon individuals. And according to Gardner and Lambert, social milieu greatly affects learners' attainment of L2 competence. Individual difference refers to learners' inherent nature, such as innate intelligence, language learning aptitude, motivation and anxiety under different situations. Second language acquisition contexts refer to the contextual difference in both the formal and informal contexts. One's situated learning context significantly affects his/her attainment of learning goals. As for the results, Gardner divided it into two types: linguistic results (e.g., language competence) and non-linguistic results (e.g., attitudes which derived from the processes of learning).

Motivation in Gardner's (1985) eyes is a mixture of effort and desire to achieve a goal with agreeable attitudes (Xu, 2011). Based on the social-educational model, learning motivation basically contains learners' effort (motivational intensity, time spent on studying the language), want/will (desire to learn the language), and affect (emotional reactions to language learning, enjoyment and satisfaction from the tasks of learning, attitudes towards learning the target language) (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Gardner, 1982; Gardner, 1985; Lin & Warschauer, 2011). Robinson (1993) and Cook (2001) contend that affect (attitudes towards the target language) effectively fosters

the learners' language acquisition.

Later, from his and associates' identification of the two clusters of learners' desires and attitudes towards language learning attainments, and with an emphasis of the influence of learners' attitudes towards L2 communities on language learning motivation and attainment, Gardner soon claimed that language learners' motivation is mainly integratively and instrumentally driven.

According to Gardner learners' motivation is either integratively or instrumentally driven. The integrative motivation derives from learners' favorable attitudes toward the target language/culture or discourse community, which is a goal that incorporates a wish to adapt to the target cultural norms or to gain target language's linguistic proficiency. The integrative motive consists of three subcomponents: integrativeness (including an integrative orientation, interest in the target second language, favorable attitudes towards L2 community), attitudes towards the learning situation (including attitudes towards the language teacher and the L2 course) and motivation (intensity of behaviors, efforts) (Dörnyei, 2005, cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 678). The integrativeness and the attitudes towards learning situation are interrelated, for both account for learners' motivation to L2 learning (Xu, 2010). In short, learners' attitudes affect their motivation and L2 achievement (Gardner, 1979; Lamb, 2004, 2007).

The instrumental orientation refers to the utilitarian value of learning a second/foreign language such as passing examinations, an increase of salary, a gain of financial rewards, a future career, or a job promotion. Gardner and Lambert proposed that learner motivation is mainly influenced by social factors, such as cultural-oriented inclination (integrative orientation) or benefit-oriented (instrumental orientation). Learners with a high degree of integrative motivation can be more successful in L2 learning compared with the instrumental ones (Gardner & Lambert 1972; Gardner, 1985). They have stronger motivation and are thus easier to succeed (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is often linked to short-term goals and is less influential than the integrative inclination from a long run viewpoint (Calvin, 1991).

Many prior studies found that the integrative motivation is more effective than the instrumental motivation in terms of second language learning success. Integrative motivated learners exhibit greater motivation and higher scores (Lambert, 1961; Spolky, 1979). Conversely, some studies found that instrumental motivation plays a dominant role (Gardner & Santos, 1970). No matter which motivation, both are significant in language learners learning processes (Gardner, 1985). As Engin (2009) adds that if learners are aware of the importance of L2 learning, this awareness will drive learners to generate integrative and instrumental orientations.

Nevertheless, Gardner and Lamberts' viewpoint soon faced some criticism. Au (1988, cited in Ellis, 2008; Gardner, 2007) reviewed 14 studies conducted by Gardner and found no positive correlation between second language learning success and the integrative motivation. Dörnyei (1994) claimed that for second language learners who have relatively limited contact with the target language community, instrumental motivation may have a greater impact on their language learning success than the integrative motivation. Dörnyei's (1990) study on Hungarian adult intermediate EFL learners' English learning found that the instrumental goals played a prominent role. The occurrence of this is related to the racial structure of Hungary. Hungary in 1990 is a place where 97.8% of the population was ethnic Hungarians, "thus, person-to-person contact with native Anglophones was minimal" (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994, p. 419) and English was considered by most students as an ordinary school subject. Their lack of opportunities to use L2 led to their lack of integrative orientation (Warden & Lin, 2000). Similarly, Cheng, Warde, and Chang (2005) in their study of Chinese ESL learners in Taiwan also found no evidence of integrative motivation. Liu (2007) and Pae (2008) found that learners of minimal contact with native English speakers in China and Korea showed no inclination of integrative orientation. Kormos and Csizer (2008) explained that English has become a world language so that it is not easy for L2 learners to find a specific L2 group for language

identification. Moreover, that the world has formed a global English-speaking community also affects L2 learners' development of integrative and instrumental orientations. For example, some learn English to fit into the global English community. Kormos and Csizer said, "as a consequence of English becoming a world language, the pragmatic benefits deriving from being able to speak this language and the attitudes to the "World (*sic*) English" community have become intricately linked, which has rendered the separation of integrativeness and instrumentality problematic." (p. 331). However, Dörnyei (2003) argued that one can be integratively motivated even without close contact with L2 members or an identification with the L2 communities. "The identification can be generalized to cultural and intellectual values associated with the language" (p. 6) in the society. The emergence of both integrative and instrumental motivation is also confirmed by some studies (Chihara & Oller, 1978; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

Nonetheless, some studies particularly emphasized the significance of identifying the instrumental motivation. For instance, Li (2006) investigated motivational factors and found that Chinese students learning English informally in Britain possess strong instrumental orientation and are greatly affected by external factors, such as learning goals. Kim (2009) studied the relationships between learner anxiety and motivation in second language acquisition with 59 Korean female

students in one college where English was taught as a mandatory subject and found that learners possessed a high degree of instrumental orientation. Gao, Zhao, Cheng, and Zhous' (2003a, 2003b, 2004) study which involved 2, 278 undergraduates learning English as a second language from 30 Chinese universities in 29 provinces found that these students exhibit orientations, some of which fall into the instrumental category, including (1) immediate achievement, (2) going abroad, and (3) individual development. Immediate achievement refers to learners' motivation for pursuing higher academic success or reaching the requirements for graduation. Going abroad includes learners' wishes to study abroad or seek opportunities for immigration or jobs. Individual development refers the learner's motives of acquiring language competence for a better job or a higher social status. Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) even found seven factors affecting language learning achievement: integrativeness, instrumentality, attitudes toward L2 speakers, cultural interest, vitality of L2 community, milieu, and linguistic self-confidence, which again confirm the existence of both types of motivation.

Brown (1994) and Liu (2001) both addressed that Gardner and Lamberts' integrative/instrumental motivation construct is basically compatible with Deci and Ryan's (1985) intrinsic/extrinsic construct. Chamber (1999) also argued that intrinsic and integrative motivation constructs manifest a similar individuals' internal

disposition (though the inner desires might be slightly different), while the extrinsic and instrumental motivation exhibit features of external incentives. These two motivation constructs affect each other interchangeably. Some scholars even argued that learners' motivation is neither integrative/ instrumental or intrinsic/ extrinsic; it should be considered a continuum, where the learner moves from one level to the other (Finocchiaro, 1984, cited in Calvin, 1991). However, Brown (1994) states that most learners are equipped with a combination of both types of motivation (integrative, instrumental). Both types of motivation are important in the researchers' eyes.

Motivating L2 Learners in Language Classroom

Though there are a number of theories discussing the components of motivation, the consensus is still not yet reached (Keblawi, 2009). Motivation is one affected factor of learning (Krashen, 1981), which can be used to explain the causes of some human behaviors (Dörnyei, Csizer, & Nemeth, 2006). No matter how many types of motivation are identified or theories are proposed, students initiate their acts of learning and increase their involvement in situated learning activities for knowledge development (Peri, 2011). Lin and Warschauer (2011) stated that motivation is needed that for learners who intend to advance their language skill and achieve higher

language proficiency. Motivated learners are more likely to achieve success of learning success, and unmotivated ones easily become weary, bored, distracted, uninvolved or frustrated (Peri, 2011).

It is necessary to gain insights about learners' motivation and their attitudes toward the learning of second language (Calvin, 1991). Just by knowing what motivation is and the types of it is not enough, instructors need to understand how to motivate their students (Peri, 2011). Okada, Oxfod, and Abo (1999) maintain that language teachers should have careful observations and provide classroom activities that can foster their students' engagement and motivation. Past research has confirmed that the students' learning motivation is highly related to their situated classroom environment and activities (Ur, 2005; Ellis, 2008). For example, one's prior classroom learning experiences, and the teacher's behaviors including the ways of teaching and his/her favorable/negative attitudes toward students all affect the student's generation of learning motivation (Chastain, 1988). Celce-Murcia (1985) maintains that an appropriate language classroom should raise learners' motivation and interest as such compelling power is indispensable to those who are willing to indulge him/her in the acquisition of L2. A classroom with a motivating classroom atmosphere caters students' need and meets their expectation.

Other motivating strategies include creating a friendly atmosphere, bestowing learners a sense of achievement and confidence, encouraging their participation, linking their interests and needs to their study, and bringing authentic real-life learning situations to the class (Dörnyei, 2001a; 2006). Schmidt et al. (1996) pointed out that students will be drawn by the activities that they consider contributory to their personal goals. Take Yamada and Moeller's (2001) study for example, activities such as pen pal project can facilitate the learner's integrative motivation, leading to language improvement. A pen pal program allows the learners' to raise their interest in the target language community and culture which enhance their integrative motivation. Calvin (1991) suggests that teachers can invite guest speakers of the target culture, create scenarios that require students' use of real-life skills, and bring target culture objects to the class to increase students' interest and positive attitudes towards the target community; these strategies are helpful in heightening the students' integrative motivation.

Some have specifically pinpointed the role of teachers in promoting the students' learning motivation. For example, Dörnyei (2001a) mentioned that a teacher's duties should include observing, identifying what accounts for his/her students' language learning motivation, and then applying varied teaching strategies to enhance students' motivation. Peri (2011) mentioned that teacher's job is to characterize their classes

with some qualities such as the expertise (knowledge and preparation), empathy, enthusiasm, and the clarity which fosters learners' motivation. Latham, Winters, and Locke (1994) suggested that language teachers could help students to set appropriate goals. They held that a clear learning goal allows the students to know how to act, behave and be responsible for their academic learning. A clear learning goal is the projection of the students' mental desire which affects his/her generation of motivation. Ghanea, Pisheh, and Ghanea (2011) also pointed out that in order to better understand why language learners are motivated, it is necessary to know their ultimate goals as well as their purposes of language learning. Oxford and Shearin (1994) also noted that setting a clear learning goal exerts great influence on one's development of L2 learning motivation. The correlation between setting a clear learning goal and the enhancement of one's learning motivation has been elucidated by Dörnyei (2001a). A clear learning goal, according to him, exhibits the characteristics of drawing learners' attention to activities contributory to their achievement of the goals. Some also suggested that involving students in the decision-making process prompts their learning motivation; when learners are bestowed with more autonomy, their motivation raises. Ushioda (1996) concluded that autonomous learners are more motivated ones. Dickinson (1995) also added that students' learning motivation can be effectively enhanced through giving their autonomy some encouragement;

autonomous learners tend to have better control over their endeavor and are overall more responsible for their study.

In line with the above statements, it is also important for language teachers to motivate their students engaged in learning L2 writing. Some scholars find that writers constantly face problems in their learning of L2 writing. These problems somehow cause a decrease of their learning motivation. For example, amateur writers often encounter the problem of lacking clarity in writing, and hence feeling demotivated in the lengthy process of revising. Schunk (2003) suggested that teachers could improve the problem of writers being de-motivated by posing models or strategies to help writers to gain clarity in the revising stage. Teachers can ask students to state the purpose of writing, and to self-evaluate whether their writing fits the purpose; they can also be encouraged to read aloud their writing to see if it is comprehensible to peers.

Motivating and De-motivating factors in L2 Classrooms

A number of studies have investigated the problem of de-motivation. Dörnyei and Lambert (1972) stated that the understanding of de-motivation reminds language teachers the problem of latent factors which deteriorate learning. Dörnyei defined L2 de-motivating factors as “specific external forces that reduce or diminish the

motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action” (2001c, p. 143).

Ushioda (2003) described de-motivation as it emerges when learners’ classroom motivation is “controlled, suppressed or distorted by external forces”, and the instigated negative feelings such as boredom, reluctance or dissatisfaction start to take control over the positive learning atmosphere (pp. 93-94). Many researchers claimed that examining de-motivating factors within the L2 classroom is just as important as raising learners’ motivation (Chamber, 1993; Oxford, 1998), and Dörnyei (2001a) stated the phenomenon of demotivation is quite pervasive in language classrooms.

The motivated learners in L2 classrooms sufficiently involve themselves in the processes of learning yet the less-motivated or the de-motivated ones exhibit a low degree of involvement and willingness in their pursuit of academic achievements (Kikuchi, 2009; Ushioda, 1998; Ushioda, 2003). Dörnyei (2001a, 2001b) mentioned that L2 learners easily become de-motivated and due to a variety of reasons. For example, Nikolov in her study found that the reason that her students considered themselves unsuccessful and de-motivated was caused by their negative learning experiences in the language classroom (pp. 90). Although factors that decrease the learners’ motivation that vary across the individuals and their situated learning environment situations, some factors can be found quite universally. For example, Gorham and Christophel (1992) and Christophel and Gorham (1995), about

two-thirds of the students' de-motivating factors are positively related to their teachers' messy instructional styles or negative attitudes such as criticizing students in class.

Chamber (1993) and Oxford (1998), for example, found that learners tended to develop negative feelings towards teacher's unfriendly attitudes (e.g., some teachers' vicious criticism on the students) or teachers' failure to satisfy the students' academic learning needs (e.g., some teachers' ineffective instruction; some teachers' indifferent attitudes toward students in class). Kikuchi (2009) studied the demotivation factors among Japanese high school students in classroom and found that the students were de-motivated by factors such as the teachers' behaviors in the classroom, their teaching methods, their assessment criteria, their negative attitudes towards their students' language learning, and their use of ineffective teaching materials. Dörnyei (1998, cited in Kichuchi, 2009, pp.455-456) conducted interviews on 50 secondary school students studying English or German as a foreign language in Budapest. Nine salient demotivating factors were found in the study, including (1) the teachers' personalities, attitudes, ability, and teaching methods; (2) the inadequacy of school facilities; (3) the fear of failure; (4) negative attitude toward the target language; (5) the reluctance of taking mandatory courses; (6) the influence of other languages; (7) negative attitude toward the situated target language community; (8) The peer's

influence; (9) textbook-related issues.

In order to know how language learners' de-motivating factors are developed, Song (2006) conducted interviews on 16 language instructors and 22 ESL learners who failed to pass an ESL writing exam. The results showed that teachers and learners held different attitudes toward the students' learning failures. The teachers tended to attribute the students' failure to their insufficient competence of L2; nonetheless, the students tended to attribute their failures to their social backgrounds, family-related factors such as the family's financial situation, not giving enough time for the complement of school assignments, negative feeling towards the teachers, the negative value on finishing the course assignments, and their use of wrong learning strategies. Nonetheless, most of the students agreed that they could be motivated if their teachers could increase the frequency of holding teacher-student conferences and could be more sensitive to their psychological well-beings.

Although some argued that being de-motivated does not mean that one has lost his/her other positive motives (Dörnyei, 2006), negative and positive motives do exert influences upon individuals simultaneously. As long as one's positive motives stay operational, his/her learning won't cease. Researchers studying L2 learners' motivation tend to emphasize the problem of demotivation as well as the teacher's job and responsibilities and to relate these to the students' L2 learning (Aria, 2004;

Dörnyei, 2001a; Hasegawa, 2004; Kikuchi, 2009).

Demotivation Factors in L2 Composition Classrooms

In academic second language acquisition domain, writing is usually the last language skill to be taught in language classroom; and this may due to the difficulties and complexities of L2 writing (Hamp & Heasley, 2006, cited in Tuan, 2010). And as past researchers have observed, L2 writers often face constant difficulties and thus become demotivated in the composing processes. The difficulty and the complexity of second language writing was elucidated by Hedge (2000), who emphasized that the completion of a piece of writing involves a set of individual's complex cognitive manipulation; the composing process usually requires activities such as planning (selecting a topic which writers feel comfortable to deal with, considering the purpose of writing, genre, target readers, and goals); revising (reformulation of the drafts: correction of grammar mistakes, replacement of phrases and arguments), and producing a "reader-based" (considering readers' stances) piece (Flower & Hayes, cited in Hedge, 2000, p. 307). Becoming a skilled L2 writer requires the writer to get immersed in complex processes of memorizing, planning, text generation and revision, which is a demonstration of the writer's problem-solving ability (Flower et al., 1999). Writers of lower L2 proficiency often struggle with these steps; many of them stop

trying if they are not able to handle the overwhelming pressure of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987).

According to Hedge (1991), L2 learners' writing processes and the academic requirements they are faced with in the classes make them fail to get motivated in regular writing practice. Langan (2005) explained that the writing processes of this group are complicated due to a lack of fulfillment. Shaughnessy (1977) even described this group as "messy" writers (p.222). In the class, learners are asked to transfer their knowledge and ideas into words to meet the academic requirements. However, some may feel this composing process torturing and far from a sense of enjoyment. Nunan (1999) stated that one difficult task faced by many language learners is their failure to compose reader-based prose that show clarity and coherence. Educational researchers who analyzed this problem concluded that second language writing is a heavy load for L2 writers for it requires their constant modification to convert their thoughts into written pieces clearly and effectively. For those who lack L2 writing competence, they may be demotivated (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Beare, 2000). This may answer why Harmer (1992, p. 53) concluded that writing is a relatively "challenging" task for most second language learners.

Writing is an indispensable and “fundamental language skill” necessary for the second language learner (Tuan, 2010, p. 81). In a L2 classroom, language teachers are obligated to instruct language learners to be proficient L2 writers (Wilson & Trainin, 2007). Being competent in L2 writing is one essential skill that college students especially English major ones should acquire. Because of the important role that writing plays in L2 learners, prior researchers tend to emphasize L2 writers’ improvement of writing competence (Glazier, 1994, cited in Tuan 2010, pp.81).

Though writing seems to be a challenging task to many L2 learners, learner motivation plays an important part. Prior studies have confirmed that a high degree of learner motivation contributes to one’s performance of L2 writing (Alsamadani, 2010; Yuehchiu, 2010). Some researchers found that learners with higher motivation have better L2 writing performance (Atay & Kurt, 2007; Cheng, 2001; Leki, 1999). Miller, Adkins, and Hooper (1993) and Perry (1998) have mentioned that low-achieving learners need a high degree of intrinsic motivation in order to complete writing tasks successfully. Even though second language learners’ maintenance of a high degree of motivation seems to be a solution to the problem of writing difficulty, they don’t generate writing motivation easily. Many de-motivating factors hinder their composing process. They easily become demotivated in the composing process and lose ideas and incentives for writing for a variety of reason (Bryne, 1991). Tho (2000)

explained that non-native writers may not be able to generate sufficient ideas for writing; due to their lack of competence, they may even have nothing to write. Raimes (1985), in order to know factors that deteriorated L2 writers' motivation for writing, observed unskilled second language writers and found that L2 writers' low writing proficiency and their teachers' indifferent attitudes caused their de-motivation in writing. When the teachers showed indifferent attitudes toward the students, the students' motivation for writing dropped saliently. Tuan (2010) observed 85 second year college students and found that the academic requirements and time pressure they received accounted for their demotivation for writing. If the writing task was time-consuming and the students were not given much time to work on it, they tended to feel pressured and were less willing to complete it. Additionally, Alqurashi (2001) found that whether the writing topic met the students' interest also affected their writing motivation. If the writing topics were unrelated to the students' personal life, the students felt less interested in completing the task. Alqurashi also found that they also showed less motivation if their instructors did not give insightful feedback on their written pieces.

Many L2 writers don't feel comfortable about receiving many error corrections or constructive comments from their writing instructors. They may feel negative when receiving critical feedback from their writing instructors about their writing pieces

(Hamp & Heasley, 2006, p. 2, cited in Tuan, 2010). The above statements indicate the need to increase our understanding of L2 writers' demotivation and how these demotivation factors affect their attitudes toward second language learning (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b).



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents information about the research participants, their situated research context, the researcher's ways of data collection, types of data sources, and procedures of data analysis.

Participants

The researcher, due to no access to available research participants, approached one of his professors (Professor Carrie, a pseudonym) for help. Professor Carrie introduced two sophomore students who showed interest in participating in the study voluntarily. To abide by research ethics, the researcher adopts the following measures. First, all the data will be kept in a safe place and will be used only for this study. Second, the research participants' names will also be kept confidential; pseudonyms will be assigned for each participant. According to the participants' program policy, they are required to take English composition class two hours a week. This study will thus focus on their sophomore English composition course.

Data Collection Procedure and Instruments

The present study highlights college English-majored students' motivation for L2 academic writing by following the purposeful sampling: the researcher approached two sophomores in one English composition class in one private

university in central Taiwan with one professor's help. Details of the two research participants are provided afterwards.

To investigate (1) college students' learning orientations toward L2 academic writing and (2) salient motivating and de-motivating factors which affect their attitudes towards their taking of composition class and their L2 composing processes three research questions were raised to guide the study: (1) What individual goals or orientations held by the research participants dominate their learning motivation for L2 academic writing? (2) How do they develop these goals or orientations? (3) What factors are considered by the research participants to be saliently motivating or de-motivating in their L2 writing processes?

The present study collected data from the following sources: (1) classroom observation; (2) multiple semi-structured interviews with the participants; (3) teacher-student writing conferences; (4) the participants' writing samples. A consent letter (shown in Appendix B) was signed before the researcher started to collect the abovementioned data.

Classroom Observations

The researcher plans to observe the research participants' learning behaviors and attitudes in their composition class. The interview questions will feature their

emergence of writing motivation, such as how they generate ideas for the assignments and how they initiate interaction with peers or the instructor in the classroom. Since one's motivated behaviors reflect his/her motivation for language learning, classroom observations may provide evidences that confirm the participants' vibrant motivation. Given that a learner can not be considered a motivated one if he/she shows a favorable attitude or goal towards L2 learning but does not engage him/herself in the classroom activities (MacIntyre, 2002), the researcher holds that the participants will be gradually familiar with their teacher's instructional patterns leading to classroom interaction. The classroom observation data will allow us to better understand how the participants respond to the course content as well as the instructor's lecture/questions. In order not to bring discomfort to the research participants' classroom learning, the observations will be not videotaped nor be audio-taped. Instead, the researcher will write down the observed phenomena in the observation fieldnotes. In addition to the above data sources, the data of teacher-student writing conferences will also be collected. For this part of data, audio-taped is used. Observing the teacher-student writing conferences will provide clues pertaining to the participants' self-perceived de-/motivating factors.

Interviews

To maximize the findings, semi-structured interviews will be conducted. The research will develop interview guides. The interview guides are developed to understand (1) the orientations held by the participants towards their learning of second language composition and (2) specific classroom-related factors affecting their writing motivation in the composing processes.

The participants will be interviewed respectively and each interview will be recorded. Depending on their personal preference, they can use English or Chinese to answer the interview questions. The semi-structured interview guides are listed in Appendix 1. The interview data will be used to identify the participants' orientations, including integrative/instrumental orientations and attitudinal factors.

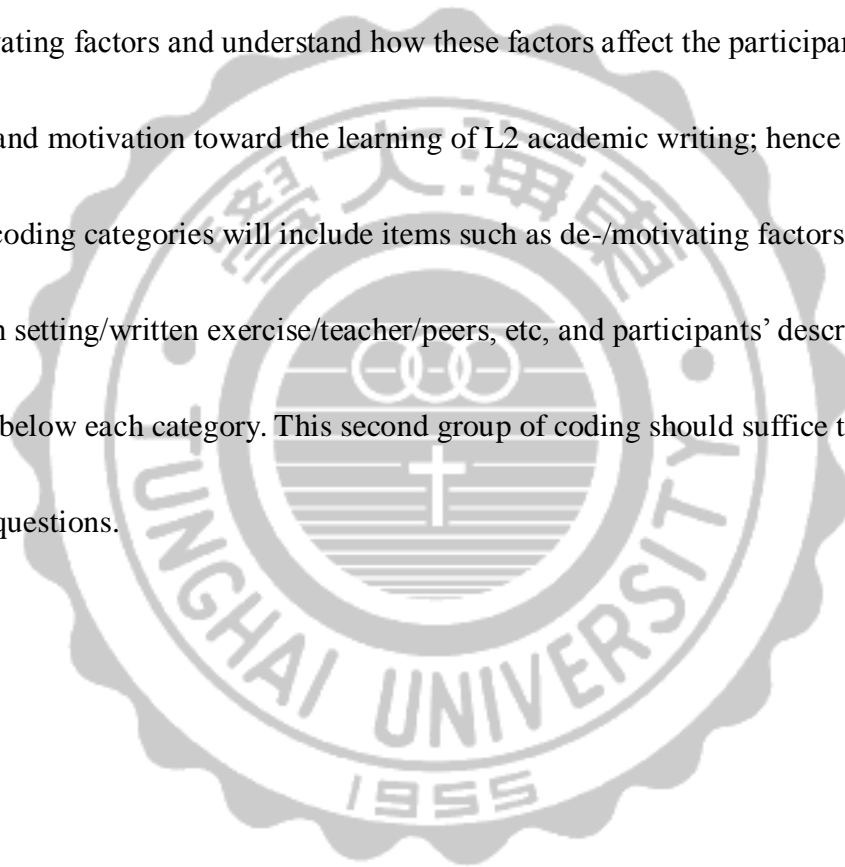
The interview questions will be divided into the types belows by following Lynch's (1996) model.

First, the casual questions. This type of questions aims to ease the tension of the interview. The researcher plans to break the ice by casually asking the interviewee's school life, through which the purpose of the interview will be explained. Other questions of this type also include their concern or questions about this study. The researcher hopes that the interviewees can feel free to express their thoughts and concern through the use of casual questions. Second, general questions. This type of

questions feature the interviewees' general opinions about their classes. An example of such type of question is how they feel about their composition class and their composition teacher. Third, specific questions. This type of questions allows the researcher to go over the questions in hand on the list for the interview. They will be asked whether they have very strong motives or orientations towards the learning of L2 writing. How do they develop their orientations? If they possess instrumental orientations, the researcher will continue to ask them to specify the sources of orientations and their ways or experiences of developing these. If they mention any discomfort towards the L2 writing class or any salient factors which positively or negatively affect their attitudes toward the learning of L2 writing, the researcher will also ask them to specify. Fourth, closing questions. This type of questions is to have the interviewees express their suggestions or future plans about the class they are taking. This is also the phase where the researcher can wrap up the interviews and give thanks to the participants for their time and reflection.

The analysis of the interview data will follow the procedures recommended by Bogdan and Biklen (2003). The researcher will generate coding categories and place relevant pieces of words or phrases into each category. Since the study intends to investigate writers' orientations towards L2 academic writing and have referred to some motivational constructs such as intrinsic/ extrinsic motives and integrative/

instrumental orientations, the coding of the first group of research questions will be based on these (e.g., writing with an instrumental/ integrative orientation). If the orientations the participants provide don't fall into any of these categories, a new category will be created. This first group of coding should suffice the first and second research questions. Also, the study will investigate the situational and task-oriented de-/motivating factors and understand how these factors affect the participants' attitudes and motivation toward the learning of L2 academic writing; hence the possible coding categories will include items such as de-/motivating factors in the classroom setting/written exercise/teacher/peers, etc, and participants' description will be added below each category. This second group of coding should suffice the third research questions.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter is divided into the case of Allen and Lily for further discussion; the results answer the research questions. In terms of Allen, his future career interest, personal experiences, the teacher's instructional styles and feedback types, and the classroom atmosphere played significant roles in the development of his L2 writing motivation.

The Case of Allen

Future Career as an Instrumental Orientation

Allen mentioned that the reason that he wanted to work harder on L2 writing was related to his planning of future career. As he recalled, he first realized that English writing is an important skill when he was helping out his friends who were troubled by English writing. He said as follows,

My friends often asked me to help their English writing assignments since they were not English majors and did not receive much English writing training before. Because of that, they did not have a clue about developing an essay. Throughout helping them, I thought that English writing can be an important strength in my future career development (12.19).

Allen considered English writing an important skill for his career development as “it will be helpful for my future job... maybe business proposal.” He explained why learning L2 writing is helpful in his life: “if I can be good at English writing, I won't have future challenges like others” (12.19).

Personal Interest as a Motivating Factor

According to Allen, writing topics related to his personal interests or prior personal experiences were favored by him:

I think some topics were interesting, and made me feel that...I was more involved, for example, once I had a topic of writing about Taiwanese songs, I think it was the genre of compare and contrast. I was so involved that I even finished the outline in the class and shared it with the whole class. When I was developing the outline for those interesting topics, I think I could work on them much faster and put more thoughts on them (12.11).

Allen stated that such kind of topic often aroused his desire to complete the writing of the essay soon. However, he also explained why some topics were less interesting to him:

Sometimes I feel less motivated to write about the topics that are not really related to my personal life. For example, once we were asked to develop a topic about school bullying. I really had no idea where to begin and had a hard time thinking about what supporting examples I could provide. I never experienced bullying so I had no interest in writing about school bully issue. For a topic like this, I had to spend a lot of time searching for statistics, which was not fun (12.11).

Teacher's Instruction as a Motivating Factor

Allen's motivation for writing was also influenced by the three composition teachers he had in his freshman and sophomore years. His writing teachers' instructional styles and classroom activities greatly influenced his attitudes and motivation towards L2 academic writing. More specifically, when the teacher's instruction was organized and systematic, he was more willing to learn academic writing skills; he also felt more motivated when the teacher provided clear instruction

about the take-home assignments. He commented as follows,

If the teacher does not provide clear instruction of how to proceed the writing topic, it will be really de-motivating even if I am interested about the topic. Particularly, if I don't know how to work on it, I have to do a lot of reading to solve the idea vagueness. Sometimes I would turn to teacher for help directly when I felt unclear about what to write. However, not all the teachers always had time to solve my doubts. Because of that, writing might become demotivating (12.14).

Allen considered his first composition teacher an organized and systematic one, for he clearly introduced the structure of L2 composition. He mentioned that the first composition teacher always taught them how to begin with each writing topic and did not give them much pressure. Allen described his first-year composition class below:

In my first-year study, I met my first composition teacher, who was great, fun, and has depths. He used to be a journalist, so he was always systematic and professional in teaching. He always used PowerPoint slides to show statistics, and he really gave us a lot of examples to develop our thoughts (12.14).

He appreciated this teacher's effort in shaping the students writing ideas and described his teaching "systematic, careful, and awesome." In his eyes, when this teacher taught topic sentences, he would clearly introduce different kinds of topic sentences, and explained why some topics sentences were problematic. He also kept reminding the students their writing problems. This gave them clear ideas how to avoid making mistakes. The following quote shows how Allen's first composition teacher demonstrated the writing examples:

This teacher always reminded us some details. For example, he once said that we could use statistics for our persuasive essay yet he also reminded us that, some statistics were too old to be convincing to readers. He wanted us to pay attention

to the effectiveness of our statistics data use. H recommended us to search for recent statistics data, particularly those within two years. He considered such statistics data more persuasive (12.14).

That Allen's writing motivation could be heightened may be attributed to the instruction of this composition teacher, who helped the students practice writing step by step. For example, he would asked the students to write only a paragraph in the class as a way to form the whole essay. He concluded that this teacher's development of writing ideas and his use of handouts as a reminder of the students' writing progress check made him "gradually accumulated and developed L2 writing competence."

Different from the first composition teacher, the second composition teacher's unstructured style of teaching demotivated Allen's L2 writing. The second composition teacher's instruction was not as well-organized as the first composition teacher. And this has caused Allen some confusion. A lack of systematic instruction affected Allen's motivation for L2 writing. He gave one example about this second teacher's composition instruction:

She often said things out of blue, and switched topics without noticing us. She also kept changing her teaching style, which confused us in the class. We could not follow and understand her instruction. She might talk about how to develop your body paragraph, but in the next second, she suddenly switched her talk to a recent car accident. How was that relevant to our writing assignment?

In Allen's eyes, his failure to develop L2 writing skills demotivated his learning of L2 writing. He felt like losing ideas about writing since this teacher refused to accept his writing no matter how hard he tried to revise. The teacher's refusal to him eventually made him passive and negative.

As for the third teacher, Allen described her a "patient, kind, helpful and positive instructor" (12.14):

She is pretty nice, who doesn't get angry easily. And the most important of all, she gave us a lot of feedback on our writing pieces, and she allows first, second and final drafts in the composing processes. (01.05).

In Allen's eyes, the third composition teacher tried to help the students shape their writing plans in the class. She asked them to finish the assignment outline or topic sentence writing in the class. He was impressed by peer review activity they did in the class. He thought that peer review offered him a chance to re-evaluate his writing problems when he failed to find them by himself. He considered such kind of classroom activity a helpful one for his development of L2 writing.

Positive Writing Feedback as a Motivating Factor

Another affected factor of Allen's L2 writing motivation is the teachers' feedback, including how and what a teacher expresses his/her feedback of the student's written pieces. According to Allen, his first teacher usually gave him a lot of constructive

feedback. He said, “his feedback allowed me to have a clear direction. He worked so hard on our writing pieces that motivated my L2 writing” (12.14).

As for the second teacher, Allen mentioned that she was the first teacher that held teacher-student writing conferences. However, the writing conferences conducted by this second composition teacher did not really help him much. Allen explained below:

She was not supportive. She never gave me concrete suggestions for my writing pieces during meetings. Her feedback on my writing pieces was mostly general, not specific. She always said that my writing lacks clarity, and when I asked her how I can improve the problem, she said that I should figure this out on your own, and then I was speechless. She always said that my writing is full of Chinglish, but when I asked her to point out the specific Chinglish parts, she refused, but she always called me a Chinglish writer. She seriously lowered my motivation for L2 writing; at least I never wanted to work harder in those six months (12.15).

Different from his unsatisfactory experiences in the second composition teacher’s writing conferences, Allen held a more positive attitude toward the third teacher’s writing conferences. His contrasting attitude toward teacher-student one-on-one writing conferences was mainly caused by the teacher’s attitude toward the student’s writing.

She (the third teacher) would also have conferences with us. Though she pointed out my Chinglish problem, she never showed any mean attitude. Instead, she said that most Taiwanese students had similar problems. She showed me my Chinglish and told me how I can improve them”. Allen mentioned that “I can clear my doubts of writing throughout attending this teacher’s writing conferences. There were times I could not understand her feedback, but I could ask her directly in the meetings (01.05).

Additionally, the third composition teacher provided him lots of constructive suggestions that allowed him to improve his writing quality, which eventually heightened his L2 writing motivation. He said, “sometimes I had problems working on my conclusions or summaries and she would give me suggestions.” In his eyes, this teacher was also the most patient one, who would keep asking students in the writing conferences whether they could understand her comments. This teacher also corrected his grammatical errors and inappropriate expressions such as wording or Chinglish. As long as he followed the teacher’s feedback for revision, he usually could receive high grades in the subsequent drafts. Because of that, the lengthy revising process was no longer a frustrating task to him.

Allen’s positive experiences of writing conferences made him value the use of such instructional strategy as a facilitator heightening the student’s L2 writing motivation. Allen concluded the positive effects of one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences: “When I could not understand the teacher’s written feedback, teacher-student writing conferences offered me chances to gain clarity.” An effective teacher-student conference talk offered him chances to ask questions for clarity, leading to his revision.

The following is an example of the teacher-student conference talk between Allen and his third composition teacher. As seen in the following dialogue, the teacher

explained her comments and grading criteria clearly, and tried to act supportive in clearing Allen's thoughts.

T: Good, Allen, this is your assignment, feel free to take a look at my feedback.

Allen: (laugh) So many mistakes.

T: But the good thing is these are minor mistakes.

Allen: What do you mean by the minor mistakes?

T: Minor mistakes, which means, about your wording, yes, I will tell you and show you. (The teacher point to some part to show Allen her so-called minor comments).

Allen: I always have some problem about this.

T: Because I feel in terms of your ideas, that's very good.

I think you a lot of thoughts, and you know what you're going to talk about, so those arguments, are pretty strong, and pretty convincing to me as a reader.

But my only concern is about, so you know, I wanted to give you 80, but then I minus it to 78, because you know, I think, if these wordings, like, can be improved, that will make this.

You know, when readers reading your article, easier, you know, to comprehend, yeah. so that's why I will show you .

Like, for example, "I will suggest that they should wear the uniform."

You can just make it more concise, by saying "I suggest they wear uniform" something like that.

And then, for example, like this "Finally, the students must wear the uniforms to help strengthen the security of the school."

So for example, you said that, "the security of the school," we can just make it like, how can I say, school security, actually, I changed it into, "campus safety" for you.

So which means, instead of saying "the security of the school", so many words, right, we just make it, easier, and shorter, like, "campus safety" or "school security," something like that.

And even like this, "the students must wear the uniforms," we can just say "wearing uniforms allows the school to maintain campus safety."

I changed it shorter.

I'm not saying that long sentence is wrong.

I'm also not saying the short sentence is better.

I'm just saying, like, how to make our style, our voice, our sentences more concise.

Sometimes, concise can make readers easier to understand, because the thing is we're using English as our second language. right?

So sometimes, we already have grammatical problems in writing our second

language. If we even have such kind of wordy problem, then our readers will have more difficulties to understand.

That's why I just suggest you know, you can just try to train yourself.

Allen: Ok.

Classroom Atmosphere as a Motivating Factor

Allen, compared with his other classmates, participated quite actively in the classroom discussion. He would volunteer to share his argumentative essay ideas when the teacher asked the class whether anyone of them wanted to share his/her essay ideas. Allen thought that most of his classmates were passive, silent, and reluctant to speak in public. However, he held a different attitude toward classroom participation: he was willing to speak in public for he thought that his composition teacher provided an inviting classroom atmosphere that valued the student's voice. This motivated him to participate the classroom talk actively. He said as follows.

Compared with my classmates, I was more willing to share my thoughts or to speak out my voice in the class. I was not afraid of criticisms. In my opinion, if I can receive comments from others, it is actually quite helpful for my improvement of writing. You won't need so much time for revision. Moreover, this composition teacher was nice. She wouldn't give any mean comments. I think overall I pretty enjoyed the composition class and felt motivated to write in class (01.10).

The following excerpt is from the classroom observation fieldnotes, in which Allen spoke voluntarily while other students showed no much enthusiasm in participating in the classroom discussion.

The composition teacher asked everyone to work on an outline for their argumentative essay assignments and to brainstorm ideas by approaching classmates sitting around them for discussion. The topic was "Public school

students should/should not be required to wear uniforms.” Allen followed what his teacher asked them to do by initiating the talk with a classmate sitting next to him. He asked him for the viewpoints of his essay outline and expressed to his classmates some doubts he had related to the given topic. He then wrote down some points in his outline.

About 10 minutes later, the teacher asked the class whether they still needed more time. It seemed that most students hadn't finished drafting their outlines yet so the teacher decided to give the students more time for outline drafting. Then Allen talked to one classmate sitting next to him about other concern he had related to his outline. He asked, “I cannot find a proper example for my arguable point. Do I need some questionnaire data to support my idea? But it is impossible. Can we have a poll in the class? Is that possible?” He then tried to add some details to his arguments, he then read aloud his supporting sentences to his classmate: “uniforms belong to the young generation, it's not only a symbol of unity, and ...you look young in uniform!”. After his classmate told Allen that his first arguable point was well-rounded and embellished, he seemed to be satisfied. He then moved to work on other arguable points.

30 minutes after the start of the outline drafting activity, the teacher asked the students to stop writing and tried the classroom discussion. She asked several students to share their arguments with the whole class by writing down the arguments on the blackboard and asked other students to respond to these arguments. She asked them whether these arguments are persuasive or logical to them and wanted them to think critically.... After the classroom discussion was over, the teacher asked whether anyone wanted to volunteer to write their outlines on the blackboard. Allen raised his hand. He walked to the blackboard to write his outline. After finishing writing it, the teacher asked Allen what kind of argumentative essay pattern he used. Allen replied that he used the pattern C, which was one argumentative essay pattern listed in the textbook. Then the teacher asked the class whether anyone wanted to comment on Allen's outline. At this time, Allen returned to his seat. As soon as he returned his seat, one classmate asked him if she could borrow Allen's outline for reading, and Allen said yes.

The Case of Lily

Future Career as an Instrumental Orientation

In terms of Lily's case, it is found that her academic writing performance and L2 writing motivation were affected by her future career consideration, personal perspectives, the teacher's feedback, and the instruction (including the classroom atmosphere). Lily reported a strong instrumental orientation dominating her motivation for the learning of L2 academic; she considered English writing an important instrument in her future workplace. In fact, one motive of Lily's mastering of L2 writing skill was her plan to study abroad in the future. The following interview data explains why Lily developed a strong instrumental orientation towards the learning of L2 writing:

“English writing is a helpful and powerful instrument, if you are a good L2 writer, you have bigger chance to win a career opportunity. In order to get a good job in the future, I need to master L2 writing skill and have a thorough understanding of the essence” (01.01).

The emergence of such a strong instrumental orientation was partly an influence of her father's advice to her that English writing is a useful tool for one's future career.

The following interview data showed this.

“My father influenced my opinion about L2 writing a lot. He told me that being competent in English writing is a powerful instrument for survival. Though my father speaks lousy English and I can't understand his accent, he said that if I can write a decent, convincing, and persuasive English proposal to your future boss, I am likely to be very successful in the future, just like him” (01.01).

Teacher's Feedback as a Motivating Factor

According to Lily, a sense of audience is an important motivating factor for her writing and learning. She thought that it mattered when her pieces could be evaluated by a reader other and felt highly motivated for organizing her writing ideas when her piece could be read and commented, including the teacher or the peer.

Teacher's feedback was particularly beneficial since she could know how to improve.

It matters when my writing can be read by others, if I have no readers, I have no motives to write anything, and readers' perspective means a lot to me... I value highly my readers' comments or feedback. That is why I am always eager to read teacher's feedback. Actually, I care less about the grades; teacher's constructive comments are my priority. Even if I get a high grade, I still want to know why I deserve it (01.01).

Lily considered a teacher's feedback an important motivating factor for her L2 writing; she always expected the teacher to share his/her thoughts about her writing. In the class observed, one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences were also conducted. Lily thought that such an instruction was a great opportunity for her to find out her teacher's further viewpoints.

I expect the teacher to share how she thinks about my written works. Every time we have teacher-student conferences, I try to grasp every second to ask further questions about my writing. I think the teachers' viewpoints really matter, and teacher's feedback has been really helpful to me in terms of making improvements in the composition class. Teacher's feedback really pushes me to move forward (01.02).

The excerpted dialogue below is the writing conference between Lily's composition teacher and her; the talk was about her argumentative essay writing. As seen, Lily tried to clear her doubts and gained more feedback from the teacher, and

the teacher, on the other hand, tried to cater her needs with constructive comments.

Excerpt 1

Lily: So if I want to know the worst part of, huh, my words part of writing, what would you suggest?

Teacher: If you, [paused for 3 seconds], if you what?

Lily: I want to know the worst part of my writing! Maybe just in argumentative essay.

Teacher: If I really have to say, maybe, I guess, I would say concise, be concise about your explanation, because how can I say, there are sentences I already know what you are going to talk about. Of course you tried to make your explanation more, I mean fuller explanation. Then you think that will allow readers to understand, but sometimes I feel if your sentences are already complete, and the ideas are also conveyed clearly, then you don't really need more. Something, basically [then, interrupted by Lily].

Lily: So that's the most important part I should change?

Teacher: Right, other than that, I don't really see the problems.

Lily: That's too much praise for me.

Teacher: Something like that. Okay, for example [The teacher pointed somewhere in Lily's writing], I deleted this opposing sentence. I feel that you don't need so much explanation. Anyway, by means of reading, I will know what mean. because that's why this, well, some people [The teacher pinpointed the sentence to Lily] may argue that, anyway, bla bla bla. So from this, I already know, okay, this "however" used by you has shown that you do not agree, which means your opposing side, so you don't need to explain or say again later.

Lily: Is it like too Chinese style?

Teacher: Yes, right, so I said to some of your classmates, and when we say redundant, for example, students like to say, in my opinion, I think, yes, but again, that is considered redundant, because in Chinese we can say like that, 在我看來, 我覺得, but (in English) that already means the same thing, so that is why it is redundant and so wordy!

Teacher: Right. Any other questions?

Lily: No, thank you so much. (12.28).

Classroom Atmosphere as a Motivating Factor

Lily participated actively in the classroom discussion: she grasped chances to talk about her thoughts in the classroom discussion and the group discussion. In her

eyes, her peers in the composition class were somewhat passive, negative, and unwilling to share their thoughts in front of others. Different from them, she held that being active in the classroom discussion is necessary to her writing development. When the teacher held the classroom discussion, she tried to participate actively. The following interview data showed how Lily valued active participation in the classroom discussion.

I am quite used to group discussion. My group discussion experiences could be traced back to my senior high school days. I like to express my ideas in public. I think discussing is quite helpful to generate thoughts and to eliminate ambiguity. Sometimes when I feel that I am too subjective, I turn to hear others' voices. Since we have to finish our essay after the classroom discussion, I think I may develop ideas more easily if others comment on my writing plans or ideas. Unfortunately, in my composition class, most classmates are passive. They seldom respond to the teacher's questions, so I try to volunteer to take the lead (01.10).

The following example retrieved from the observation fieldnote data showed how Lily volunteered to take the lead in the classroom discussion:

The composition teacher asked everyone to work on his/her essay outline by following the guidelines on the textbook. Lily initiated conversation with her classmates to discuss her arguments and tried to add more explanation in support of her arguments. She asked her classmate sitting next to her, "I think this viewpoint is not convincing enough. Should I change it? What about the other one?" In the next fifteen minutes, she continued to fix her arguments and exchanged her ideas with others till she found herself quite satisfied with her outline.

The composition teacher started to walk around the class to find some students willing to share their outlines and arguments with the class. Some classmates were asked by the teacher to write their arguments on the blackboard. Lily scrutinized them and then she started to discuss with her classmates her thought. After that, Lily started to compare the arguments she wrote in her outline with

those written by others on the blackboard. The teacher asked the class, “Look at these arguments. Any comments? You can discuss with others and also think about what patterns of argumentation they are.” Lily seemed to figure out the answer, so she raised hand and said, “I think the first argument is wonderful. I like the last argument in particular since it is reasonable and neat.

The demotivating factors of Lily’s L2 writing can be found on the teacher’s attitudes towards the students, the classroom atmosphere, and the classmates’ learning attitude. The following provides a clearer analysis.

Teachers’ Instructional Attitude as a Demotivating Factor

The composition teacher’s attitude is another reason causing Lily’s demotivation. This demotivating factor did not exist in her sophomore composition class but her freshmen composition class. In Lily’s eyes, she considered her freshmen composition teacher’s instructional attitude “a waste of time” (01.06). Unfortunately, this past experience somehow affected her motivation for learning L2 writing. She said as follows.

My freshmen composition teacher never asked us to work on anything, not even a single piece of essay, which is unlike the present teacher who would usually assign us with necessary written tasks; the previous teacher never gave us homework. I went to her class, but couldn’t learn anything; I literally spent one year working on nothing (01.06).

Lily added that the teacher’s grading criterion in her freshmen composition class was not clear enough and was also not based on the quality of their writing. As she recalled, the students were not given clear grading criteria:

I have no idea how she graded our overall performance because we never did anything more than listening to her reading of the textbooks. She hated us to skip

the class. If you never skipped her class, you could receive a high grade. But the problem was that we still did not have many things to write. I started to learn how to write essays in my sophomore composition class (01.06).

The worst of all, what Lily remembered was that her previous teacher never taught them any L2 composition skills.

We never needed to write an essay, and we didn't have any homework; sometimes she asked us to finish the written exercises on the textbook in class, but she just went on reading another paragraph in the textbook and never asked us to share our works or explain anything about the exercises, we almost found it meaningless to perform those written exercises (01.06).

Lily continued to mention how her freshmen composition limited the students' chances of performing L2 writing, which had caused her a demotivating attitude towards L2 writing. She expressed her disappointment and demotivation as follows,

In the freshmen composition class, I only worked on the writing of short paragraph in the midterm and the final exams and that was it. The worst part was, in the midterm and final exams, I didn't receive any written or oral feedback, but a grade only, which means that I never had any chances to make improvements or get any constructive suggestion (01.06).

In Lily's recall, the only activity related to L2 composition she had in her freshmen composition class was the peer review, yet peer review in that class was rough and vague:

We seldom had a chance to do peer-review, and I remembered that we only peer-reviewed a few paragraphs in the class. However, since those paragraphs were short, we found the review sheet impractical. At that time we checked all the items very soon, put several yes on it, and it became our peer-review grades. However, our composition teacher wouldn't explain or comment anything about our peer review (01.06).

Classmates' Attitude as a Demotivating Factor

In Lily's eyes, most of her classmates did not seem to care much about

developing their L2 writing competence; her current composition teacher also did not seem to push students to work hard. Her peers' passive attitude toward L2 writing, according to Lily, "somehow affects my attitude towards the learning of composition." Lily said that her classmates considered high fluency in speaking to be more important than that of writing, so they only valued the learning of English oral communication skills.

If you are good at speaking fluent English, your classmates and even the teachers would value you highly as a competent second language learner. For example, if you can answer teacher's questions fluently in front of the whole class, you will be a highlight in the class. And professors also favor those who can speak proper English in the class. However, if you are only good at writing, no one would even notice your existence. Because of that, even though I think writing is important, it is less motivating for me to work harder on it (01.04).

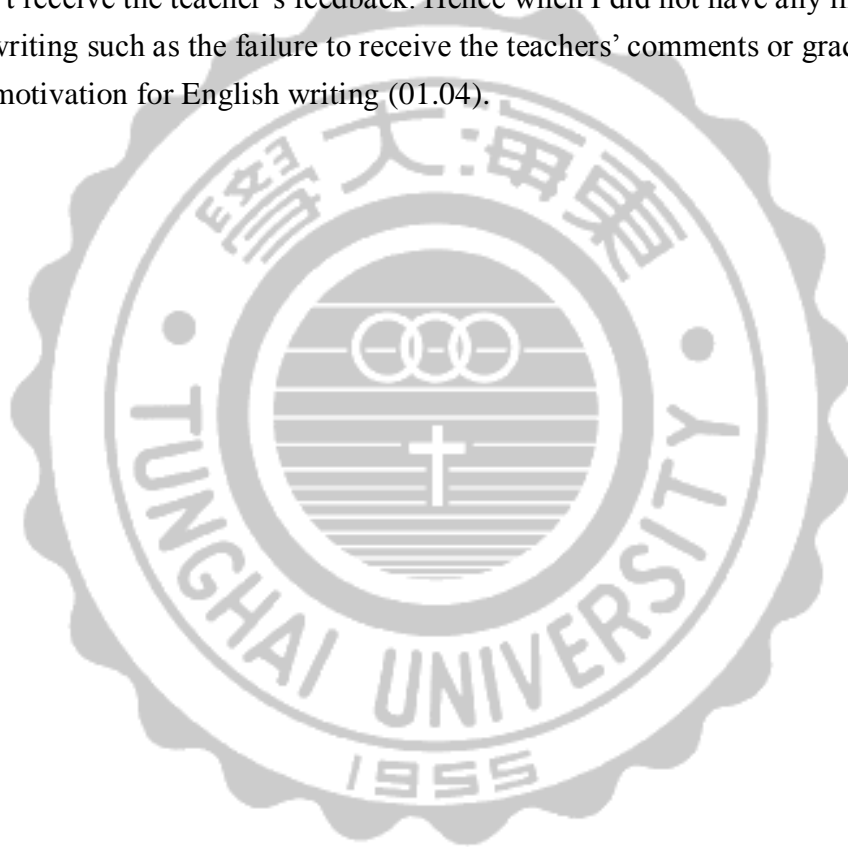
Lily commented that her classmates' demotivation for L2 writing might stem partly from the students' negative attitudes towards receiving writing assignments and yet partly from the teacher giving in too easily. These demotivated Lily as she was not happy to see herself surrounded by passively-learning peers and not-so-strict teacher.

"Sometimes some of my classmates would complain directly in front of the teacher that they feel tedious and weary of receiving extra writing assignments in the class, and the teachers seemed to compromise very soon by not giving us extra assignments. Sometimes I asked my classmates whether it is okay not to have so many assignments since I worried about this, however, they never seem to be bothered. What was worse, they tended to develop a very negative attitude toward the teacher if they received written exercises, homework, or assignments. I felt like a victim situated in such kind of learning environment, but there was very little that I could do. I was also afraid that my teacher might have a bad impression on me and I also do not want to sabotage my relationship with my classmates. To be honest, I do not have the courage to give my teacher any

suggestions in person or intend to change the situation. I just followed the class” (01.04).

Lily described that there was a vicious cycle caused by her classmates’ laziness and the teacher’s easy-to-compromise attitude.

The thing is, the teacher eventually try not to give us many written assignments after the rest of my classmates expressed such an expectation from the class. Even if I wish to have more writing practices, I eventually did not receive many assignments to work on. However, I really do not want to do extra practices that I won’t receive the teacher’s feedback. Hence when I did not have any incentives for writing such as the failure to receive the teachers’ comments or grades, I lost my motivation for English writing (01.04).



CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS

Summary of the Major Findings

Dörnyei (1972) explained that learner motivation contains the following components: learner orientation (which refers to the reasons behind one's action and goal); learner's attitude towards the target language and the learning situation; the actual effort. The present study found that the two participants had strong instrumental orientation affecting their motivation towards the learning of L2 writing: The major salient factors affecting their attitudes toward and the amount of time/effort spent on L2 writing include their personal experiences, their teacher's instructional styles, their teachers' feedback, and the classroom atmosphere.

In terms of learners' orientation, findings of this study showed that the participants had relatively strong instrumental orientations, implying that their purpose of learning was utilitarian. In spite of utilitarian-driven purpose of learning, all kinds of motivational orientation have positive effects on learners' motivation for language learning (Chen & Warden, 2003), which echoes prior researchers' (Teweles, 1995; Lukmani, 1972) claim that instrumental causes affecting language learners' L2 writing is potent to their language learning.

Findings of this study accord with prior studies that Taiwanese students learning English language are prone to instrumental orientations. Similar to Tsai and Chang's (2013) findings that Taiwanese college students tended to be affected by instrumental orientations rather than integrative motivations in learning English, the current study also found the same thing on the participants. Warden and Lin (2000) claimed that integrative motivation did not seem to exist in Taiwan's foreign learning context, implying the greater impact of instrumentality on Taiwanese students' language learning. They also claimed that Taiwanese students were more easily provoked by instrumental gains instead of integrative ones due to the fact that English tended to be treated as a classroom mandatory subject. Taiwanese students thus had less chance to experience integrative gains and to construct identity in their situated communities (Lai, 2013). In light of this, this study holds that a teacher's understanding of his/her students' orientation of language learning is necessary: the teacher's increased understanding of the students' possible learning orientations will allow his/her amendment of course syllabi, curriculum and instruction to meet his/her students' needs more.

Regarding the salient factors affecting the participants' L2 writing motivation, this study also found salient motivating and demotivating factors, which include the participants' prior learning experience, their teacher's instruction, their teacher's

feedback on their writing, and the classroom atmosphere. As described in previous chapter that the assigned writing topics affected greatly the first case's writing interest, a topic allowing the student writer's employment of personal experiences heightens one's motivation. Given Dörnyei's (2001a, 2001b) and Ur's (2005) suggestion that interesting teaching materials and classroom activates arouse the students' learning motivation, this study suggests that college writing instructors may place more emphasis on selecting topics that not only interest the students but also allow them to employ personal experiences in writing.

As for the category of teacher factor, findings of this study showed that writing instructors played a great role in affecting their students' writing motivation. Though the research participants have encountered varied types of composition teachers and received different composition instruction and styles before this study was conducted, they addressed the same concern towards the teacher factors affecting their writing motivation: they both held that if the teachers' course content could be presented clearly and organized systematically, their sense of engagement also got increased. On the contrary, if the teacher failed to meets their satisfaction at the aspect of developing their L2 writing competence, their motivation for L2 writing also dropped. In addition to the teacher's instruction, the teacher's feedback also played a dominant role in raising their motivation for L2 writing. When the teacher's feedback provided

information desired by them, their learning attitudes and behaviors also became positive. Prior studies have found that many students favored their teachers' use of written feedback and considered it a useful way to gain their writing competence if the teacher's feedback contained necessary linguistic guidance or correction (Fang, 2010; Richmond, 1999). In most students' revising of their L2 writing, they often revise based on the teacher's given feedback since the teacher's feedback provides a guideline allowing them to know what to add/delete/remove/change/rewrite. The students know that they have more chances to get a satisfactory score if they follow the teacher's feedback well. This indicates the important role that teacher's feedback plays in students' processes of writing (Ferris, 2003a; Hyland, 2003; MaGarrell & Verbeem, 2007).

Moreover, as shown earlier that the research participants favored one-on-one teacher-student writing conferences prior to revising their drafts, this also indicates that the students' motivation for learning L2 writing is heightened when the composition teacher appropriately informs the students of their progresses, strengths, and weaknesses of writing. In this study, both participants clearly stated that teacher-student conferencing was a good way to help them persist their motivation. Teacher-student one-on-one writing conference provides chances for the students to clear their doubts and to add clarity to what they read and write (MaGarrell &

Verbeem, 2007). Such form of writing instruction encouraged the students' continuous revision of drafts, leading to a reinforcement of their motivational intensity. To sum up, when a teacher provides constructive feedback and appropriate course content, the students' motivation of L2 writing increases; when a teacher fails to make these attempts, his/her students' learning motivation lessens tellingly.

As for the factor of classroom atmosphere, both the participants reported a high degree of peer passivity and insufficient engagement in the classroom activities. However, not many prior studies addressed the seriousness of this issue nor did prior studies extend the discussion of this issue to language learners' development of motivation. Young (1999) stated that a tense classroom atmosphere is a salient demotivating factor for students' learning motivation and performance. An instructor should be responsible for creating effective learning atmosphere to promote his/her students' learning motivation (Tsai & Chang, 2013). This study suggests future researchers explore peer passivity: whether or not peer passivity is a motivating or a demotivating factor in the students' learning and how such passivity affects an instructor's teaching and the students' learning motivation.

Pedagogical Implications

As for the pedagogical implication, it is been noticed by numerous experienced

language teachers and researchers that creating a language learning environment that meets the students' learning needs for the heightening of their motivation is a teacher's rudimentary job (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007); failure to do so may affect students' involvement in the course content and classroom activities (Noel, Pelletier, Clement & Vallerand, 2000). An effective learning environment provides students with motives leading to the increase of their intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Teachers should design materials and activities that conform to their students' orientations and needs (Chia, Johnson, Chia, & Olive, 1999).

The fact that Taiwanese students seem to lack L2 learning motivation may be caused by the evident teacher-centered instructional method and curriculum design (Chu, 2003, cited in Tsai & Chang, 2013). The present study found that the participants' motivation is affected by instrumental orientations; they relied on their teacher's dominance of teacher-student interaction and classroom talk. Such low motivation might impede their acquisition of L2 writing skills in that low motivation may result in their reluctance in performing in written exercises. A teacher's enthusiasm in presenting the instructional materials also has a potent impact on the students' motivation (Stipek, 2002). To promote their learning motivation, a teacher should have a thorough understanding of his/her students' learning needs so that he/she knows what can heighten the students' L2 learning motivation and can find

ways to enhance the quality of his/her curriculum and instruction: they need to know what tasks are appropriate for their students (William & Burden, 1997) as a lack of clarity and organization of their instruction may sabotage their students' motivation.

Limitations of the Study

Influenced by Gardner's (1972) and Dörnyei's (2001a) motivation theories that motivation is a key to one's successful language learning (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985; Noel, Clement, Pelletier & Vallerand, 2003), the current study observes two college students' L2 writing motivation, particularly their integrative/ instrumental orientations and motivational attitudes towards their situated classroom setting, including their composition teachers' instruction, course content, and their learning processes. It is hoped that this study paves the way for future research.

However, as a case study, this study has several limitations. First, there were only two research subjects participating in this study; they were sophomore students from a private university in central Taiwan. These have indicated that the findings are limited to participants who present similar learning profiles and cannot be generalized to students of different backgrounds or levels. Secondly, although this study collected data from multiple sources, this study failed to conducted interviews on the participants' composition teachers. Additionally, the researcher also failed to analyze

the participants' writing samples; there was no discussion of their writing performance even if the researcher collected their writing samples. These limit our understanding of how their writing motivation is reflected on their written texts.

Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher suggests future researchers to (1) recruit composition instructors as interviewees to provide further information to enrich the research finding; (2) include a larger population or have a cross-case comparison such as comparing high-achievers and low-achievers; (3) include a wider range of social context for a better understanding of how contextual influences are related to language learners' motivation (Chen & Warden, 2003).

To sum up, to maximize our understanding factors affecting L2 writers' learning motivation and demotivation, a fuller investigation of motivational research should continue to go on. Motivation is a significant, personal, learning-related factor that needs more local researchers' attention, particularly college students' L2 writing motivation in Taiwan. English teachers in Taiwan should be encouraged to find efficient ways to motivate their students.

REFERENCES

- Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). The effect of integrative and instrumental motivation on Iranian EFL learners' language learning. *ELT VOICES*, 7-15.
- Aida, Y., & Suito, N (2007). Students' collaborative projects involving computer technology and Japanese language learning, *CASTEL-J in Hawaii 2007 Proceedings*, 201-204, Digital Publication.
- Alqurashi, F. (2011). Teaching English for police purposes in Saudi Arabia: An exploratory study. *Journal of Language Teaching And Research*, 2(4), 844-849. doi:10.4304/jltr.2.4.844-849.
- Alsamadani, H. (2010). The Relationship between Saudi EFL students' writing competence, L1 writing proficiency, and self-regulation. *European Journal of Social Science*, 16(1), 53-63. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Au, S. (1988). 'A critical appraisal of Gardner's social-psychological theory of second language (L2) learning'. *Language Learning*, 38(1), 75-100.
- Ausubel, D. A. (1968). *Educational psychology: A cognitive view*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Arnold, J., & Brown, H. D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In J. Arnold (Ed.). *Affect in Language Learning*, pp. 1-24. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Arnold, J. y., & Fonseca Mora, M. C. (2004). Multiple Intelligence Theory and Foreign Language Learning: A Brain-based Perspective, *IJES, International Journal of English Studies*, 4(1), 119-136.
- Atkinson, J. W. (1957/1983). Motivational determinants of risk taking behavior. In J. Atkinson (Ed.), *Personality, motivation, and action: Selected papers*, 101-119. New York: Praeger.
- Atkinson, J., McClelland, D., Clark, R.A., & Lowell, E.L. (1953). *The achievement motive*. New York: Appleton.

- Baumeister, R., & Vohs, K. (2004). *Handbook of self-regulation: Research, theory and applications*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Beare, S. (2000). *Differences in content generating and planning processes of adult L1 and L2 proficient writers*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Ontario.
- Bereiter, C., & Scardamania, M. (1987). *The psychology of written composition*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2003). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Burstall, C., Jamieson, M., Cohen, S., & Hargreaves, M. (1974). *Primary French in the balance*, Windsor: National Foundation for Educational Research Publishing Company.
- Brown, H. D. (1987). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (2nd ed.), Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Brow, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (3rd ed), Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (4th ed.), White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Bruning, R., & Horn, C. (2000). Developing motivation to write. *Educational Psychologist*, 35(1), 25-37.
- Campbell, D., & Fiske, D. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56, 81-105.

- Chambers, G. (1993). Talking the 'de' out of demotivation. *Language Learning Journal*, 7, 13-16.
- Calvin, C. J. (1991). A reappraisal of motivation: The cornerstone of L2 learning. *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses*: 11-23.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1985). *Beyond basics: Issues in research in TESOL*. Massachusetts: Newbury House.
- Chamber, G. N. (1999). *Motivating language learners*, Caledon: Multilingual Matters.
- Chastain, K. (1988). *Developing second language skills: Theory and practice* (3rd ed.). New York: Harcour Brace and Javanovich.
- Chen, F. J., Warden, A. C., & Chang, H. T. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: The case of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 39(4), 609-33.
- Chen, J.F., & Warden, C.A. (2003). EFL students' motivations: The changers or the changed. *The Journal of Chaoyang University of Technology*, 8(2), 341-363.
- Cheng, H. F., & Dornyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 153-174.
- Cheng, Y. S. (2001). Learners' beliefs and second language anxiety. *Concentric: Studies in English Literature and Linguistics*, 27(2), 209-223.
- Chia, H. U., Johnson, R., Chia, H. L., & Olive, F. (1999). English for college students in Taiwan: A study of perceptions of English needs in a medical context. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(2), 107-119.
- Chihara, T. & J. Oller (1978). "Attitudes and attained proficiency in EFL: a sociolinguistic study of adult Japanese speakers." *Language Learning*, 28, 55-68.

- Christophel, D., & Gorham, J. (1995). A test-retest analysis of student motivation, teacher immediacy and perceived sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education*, 44, 292-306.
- Cisero, C. A. (2006). Does reflective journal writing improve course performance?. *College Teaching*, 54(2), 231-236. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Clément, R., & Kruidenier, B. G. (1983). Orientations in second language acquisition: The effects of ethnicity, milieu, and target language on their emergence. *Language Learning*, 33(3), 273-291.
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44, 417-448.
- Cohen, A. D., & Dörnyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learning: Motivation, styles, and strategies. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics*, pp. 170-190. London: Arnold.
- Cook, V. (2001). *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Arnold.
- Cooper, J. M., & McCaslin, M. (2006). *An educator's guide to student motivation*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Cumming, A. (1989). Writing expertise and second language proficiency. *Language learning*, 39(1), 81-141.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. (1991). Language learning motivation: reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, 41, 469-512.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Nakamura, J. (1989). 'The dynamics of intrinsic motivation'. In Mes, C. & Ames, R. (Eds), *Researcher on motivation in education*, Vol. III, pp. 152-164. London: Academic Press.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1996). *Creativity: Flow and the psychology of discovery and invention*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Csizer, K., & Z. Dörnyei. (2005a). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The*

Modern Language Journal, 89(1), 19-36.

Csizer, K., & Z. Dörnyei. (2005b) Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behaviour. *Language Learning*, 55(4), 613-659.

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology* 25(1): 54-67.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign-language learning. *Language Learning*, 40(1), 45-78.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 273-284.

Dörnyei, Z. (1996). Moving language learning motivation to a larger platform for theory and practice. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: The new century*, 71-80. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31(3), 117-135.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001a). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001b). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education .

Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: advances in theory, research, and applications. Oxford: Blackwell.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual differences in second language acquisition. *AILA Review*, 19, 42-68.
- Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes and globalisation: A Hungarian perspective*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (Eds.). (2009). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1985). Teacher-pupil interaction in second language development In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Elliot, A. J., & Harachiewicz, J. M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A meditational analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(3), 461-475
- Ely, C. M. (1986b). Language learning motivation: a descriptive and causal analysis. *The Modern Language Journal* 70(1), 28-35.
- Engin, A. O. (2006). The indirect speech method approach and the variables which affect learning success in developing foreign language speaking abilities. *Ekev Academy Journal*.
- Engin, A. O. (2009). Second language learning success and motivation. *Social Behaviour and Personality*, 37(8), 1035-1045
- Fang, Y. (2010). Perceptions of the computer-assisted writing program among EFL college learners. *Educational Technology & Society*, 13(3), 246-256.

- Ferris, D. R. (2003). *Response to student writing: Implications for second language students*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Finocchiaro, M. (1984). *Focus on the learner: Bologna conference 1983*. Oxford: Modern English Publications.
- Fitzgerald, J. (1987). Research on revision in writing. *Review of Educational Research*, 481-506.
- Flower, F., Stein, V., Ackerman, J., Kantz, M., McCormick, K., & Peck, W. (Eds.) (1990). *Reading-to –write: Exploring a cognitive and social process*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2003a). The relationship between Chinese college undergraduates' English learning motivational intensity and their self identity changes. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 170, 25–28.
- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2003b). The relationship between types of English learning motivation and motivational intensity—a quantitative study on Chinese college undergraduates. *Foreign Languages Research*, 77, 60–64.
- Gao, Y., Zhao, Y., Cheng, Y., & Zhou, Y. (2004). Motivation types of Chinese university undergraduates. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 14, 45-64.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gardner, R. (1980). On the validity of affective variables in second language acquisition: conceptual, contextual and statistical consideration, *Language Learning*, 30, 255-70.
- Gardner, R. C. (1979). Social-psychological aspects of second language acquisition. In H. Giles & R. St. Clair. (Eds.). *Language and social psychology* (pp. 193-220). Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

- Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, *13*, 266-272.
- Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R. C., & Santos, E. H. (1970). *Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A Philippine investigation*. Research Bulletin, Ontario: U of Western Ontario.
- Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P. E., & Masgoret, A. M. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: An empirical investigation. *Modern Language Journal*, *81*(3), 344-362.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study: Who says it isn't effective. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*, 57-72.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables. *Language Teaching*, *26*, 1-11.
- Gardner, R. C. (1980). On the validity of affective variables in second language acquisition: conceptual, contextual and statistical considerations, *Language Learning*, *30*(2), 255-270.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*, London: Edward Arnold.
- Ghanea, M., Pisheh, H. R., & Ghanea, H. (2011). The relationship between learners' motivation (integrative and instrumental) and English proficiency among Iranian EFL learners. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, *59*, 458-464.
- Girard, D. (1977). Motivation: the responsibility of the teacher. *ELT Journal*, *31*(2), 97-102.

- Gorham, J., & Christophel, D. (1992). Students' perception of teacher behaviors as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. *Communication Quarterly*, 40(3), 239-52.
- Hasegawa, A. (2004). Student demotivation in the foreign language classroom. *Takushoku Language Studies*, 107, 119-36.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hilgard, E. (1963). *Motivation in learning theory*. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A study of science* (Vol. 5) (pp. 267-304). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hyland, F. (2003). Focusing on form: student engagement with teacher feedback. *System*, 31(2): 217-30.
- Keblawi, F. (2009). A review of language learning motivation theories. *JAMEEA*, 12, 23-57.
- Keller, J. M. (1983). Motivational design of instruction. In C. M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional-design theories and models: An overview of their current status*, pp. 383-434. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kim, S. (2009). Questioning the stability of foreign language classroom anxiety and motivation across different classroom contexts. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 138-157. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2009.01012.x
- Kikuchi, K. (2009). Listening to our learners' voices: What demotivates Japanese high school students? *Language Teaching Research*, 13(4), 453-471.
- Kohn, A. (1990). Rewards hamper creativity. *San Francisco Chronicle* (June 21), B3-B4.
- Kormos, J., & Csizer, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 58(2), 327-355.

- Krashen, S. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Lai, H. Y. (2013). The motivation of learners of English as a foreign language revisited. *International Education Studies*, 6(10), 78-89.
- Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school of EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(4), 757-780.
- Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System*, 32(1), 3-19.
- Lambert, W. E. (1961). *A study of the roles of attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Montreal: McGill U.
- Langan, J. (2005). *College writing skills* (6th ed.). Atlantic Cape Community College, McGraw Hill.
- Latham, G. P., Winters, D. C., & Locke, E. A. (1994). Cognitive and motivational effects of participation: A mediator study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(1), 49-63.
- Leki, I. (1999). Techniques for reducing second language writing anxiety. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere*, 64-68. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Liao, X. (1996). Chinese learners' communicative incompetence: Causes and solutions. Unpublished document resume, 1-16. Fujian Institute of Education, Fujian, China.
- Li, D. (2006). Motivation in second language acquisition in Chinese research students in the UK. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 19(1), 38-58.
- Lin, C.H., & Warschauer, M. (2011). Integrative versus instrumental orientation among online language learners. *Linguagens e Diálogos*, 2(1), 58-86.
- Lin, G. H. C. (2009). *An exploration into foreign language writing anxiety from Taiwanese university students' perspectives*. 2009 NCUE fourth annual

conference on language teaching, literature, linguistics, translation, and Interpretation, pp. 307-318. National Changhua University of Education, Department of English, Taiwan, ROC.

Liu, M. (2007). Chinese students motivation to learn English at the tertiary level.

Asian EFL Journal, 9(1), 126-146.

Liu, S. (2001). Lun dongji zai yingyu xide guocheng zhong suo qi de zuoyong (the role of motivation in the process of English language acquisition). *Waiyu Luntan*, 1, 48-52.

Lu, X. (2007). *Motivational orientations in Chinese learning: Heritage and non-heritage college students in the United States*. Doctoral dissertation. Buffalo: State University of New York at Buffalo.

Lucas, R. I, Pulido, D. Miraflores, E., Ignacio, A., Tacay, M., & Lao, J. (2010). A study on the intrinsic motivation factors in second language learning among selected freshman students. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 4, 3-23.

Lukmani, Yasmeen M. (1972). Motivation to learn and learning proficiency.

Language Learning, 22(2), 261-273.

Lynch, B. K (1996). *Language program evaluation: Theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53(Suppl. 1), 167-210.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality* (2nd Ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

McGarrell, H., & Verbeem, J. (2007). Motivating revision of drafts through formative feedback. *ELT Journal*, 61, 228-236. Doi: 10.1093/elt/ccm030.

Merisuo-Storm, T. (2007). Pupils' attitudes towards foreign-language learning and the development of literacy skills in bilingual education. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 23, 226-235.

- Miller, S. Adkins, T., & Hooper, M. (1993). Why teachers select specific literacy assignments and students' reactions to them. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 25(1), 69-95.
- Naiman, N., Froelich, M., Stern, H. H., & Todesco, A. (1978). *The good language learner*. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Nunan, D. (2001). *Second language teaching and learning*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Noel, K.A., Pelletier, L.G., Clement, R., & Vallerand, R.J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientation and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 50(1), 57-85.
- Noel, K. A., Pelletier L. G., Clément, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 53(Suppl.1), 33-63.
- Okada, M., Oxford, R. L., & Abo, S. (1999). Not all alike: Motivation and learning strategies among students of Japanese and Spanish in an exploratory study. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.). *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (2nd ed.), pp. 105-120. University of Hawaii Press.
- Oller, J. (1981b). Research on the measurement of affective variables: Some remaining questions. In R. Andersen (Ed.), *New dimensions in second language acquisition research*, pp. 14-27. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Oxford, R. (1998). The unraveling tapestry: teacher and course characteristics associated with demotivation in the language classroom. Unpublished paper presented at the TESOL 98 Congress, Seattle, WA.
- Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 12-28.
- Oxford, RL & Shearin, J. (1996). Language learning motivation in a new key. In R. L. Oxford, (Ed.). *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century*, pp.121-144. Honolulu: University of Hawai Press.

- Pae, T.I. (2008). Second language orientation and self-determination theory: A structural analysis of the factors affecting second language achievement. *Journal of Language and Social Psychological*, 27(1), 5-27.
- Perry, N. E. (1998). Young children's self-regulated learning and contexts that support it. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90, 715-729.
- Piric, Alma. (2011). *Adult education: Using motivating strategies and techniques*. In: 1st International Conference on Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (FLTAL'11), 5-7 May 2011, Sarajevo.
- Qin, Xiaoqing. (2002). An investigation into the motivation theories and the implications for foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Research*, 4, 74-79.
- Qin, Xiaoqing. (2003). *Quantitative analysis in foreign language teaching and research*. Wuhan: Huazhong University of Science and Technology Press.
- Ur, Penny. (2005). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ushioda E. (1996). *Learner autonomy 5: The role of motivation*. Dublin: Authentik Language.
- Ushioda, E. (1998). The role of motivational thinking in autonomous language learning. In Soler, E. A. & Espurz, V. C. (Eds.) *Current issues in English language methodology* (pp. 77-89). Castello de la Plana: Universitat Jaume I.
- Ushioda, E. (2003). Motivation as a socially mediated process. In D. Little, J. Ridley, & E. Ushioda (Eds.) *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: Teacher, learner, curriculum and assessment*, pp. 90–102. Dublin: Authentik.
- Raimes, Ann. (1985). What unskilled ESL students do as they write: A classroom study of composing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (2), 229-258.
- Richmond, I. M. (1999). Is your CALL connected? Dedicated software vs. integrated CALL. In K. Cameron (Ed.), *Computer assisted language learning (CALL): Media, design & applications*, pp. 295-314. Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger.

- Robinson, G. L. (1993). Culture learning in the foreign language classroom: A model for second culture acquisition. In B. A. Lafford & M. Shockey (Eds.), *Culture and content: Perspectives on the acquisition of cultural competence in the foreign language classroom*. Tempe, AZ: Southwest Conference on Language Teaching.
- Roger, C. (1983). *Freedom to learn for the eighties*. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
- Rueda, R., & Chen, C. (2005). Assessing motivational factors in foreign language learning: Cultural variation in key constructs. *Educational Assessment, 10*(3), 209-229. doi:10.1207/s15326977ea1003_4
- Rueda, R., & Dembo, M. H. (1995). Motivational processes in learning: A comparative analysis of cognitive and sociocultural frameworks. *Advances in Motivation and Achievement, 9*, 255-289.
- Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In R. L. Oxford (Eds.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (2nd ed., pp. 9-70). University of Hawaii Press.
- Schunk, D. H. (2003). Self-efficacy for reading and writing: Influence of modeling, goal setting, and self-evaluation. *Reading and Writing Quarterly, 19*, 159-172.
- Shaughnessy, M. P. (1977). *Errors and expectations: A guide for the teacher of basic writing*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Skehan, P. (1989) *Individual differences in second-language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Stern, H. H. (1983) *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stipek, D. J. (2002). *Motivation to Learn: Integrating Theory and Practice* (4th ed). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Song, B. (2006). Failure in a college ESL course: Perspectives of instructors and students. *Community College Journal of Research & Practice*, 30, 417-431. doi:10.1080/10668920500441994
- Spolsky, B. (1979) Attitudinal aspects of second language learning. *Language Learning*, 19, 271-83.
- Svanes, B. (1987). Motivation and Cultural Distance in Second-Language Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 37, 341-359.
- Teweles, B. (1995). Motivation as a two-sided coin: Motivational differences between college-level Chinese and Japanese learners of EFL. *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*, 2, 15-34. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 416704)
- Tsai, C. C., & Chang, I. C. (2013). The study on motivation and anxiety of English learning of students at a Taiwan technical university. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(1), 24-41.
- Wang, F. (2008). Motivation and English achievement: An exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of a new measurement for Chinese students of English learning. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 10 (3), 633-646.
- Warden, C., & Lin, H. J. (2000). Existence of integrative motivation in an Asian EFL setting. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33 (5), 535-545
- Weiner, B. (1994). Integrating social and personal theories of achievement striving. *Review of Educational Research*, 64, 557-573.
- Wigfield, A., & Wentzel, K. (2007). Introduction to motivation at school: Interventions that work, pp. 191-196. In K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Motivational interventions that work*. Special Issue, *Educational Psychologist*.
- Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

- Wlodowski, R. J. (1985). *Enhancing adult motivation to learn*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Woolfolk, A. (2010). *Educational psychology (11th ed.)*. Columbus, OH: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Wu, X. (2003). Intrinsic motivation and young language learners: The impact of the classroom environment. *System*, 31, 501-517.
- Wright, A., & Haleem, S. (1991). *Visuals for the language classroom*, London; Longman.
- Xu, H. (2010). From EFL to ESL: The influence of context on learners' motivational profiles. *123 Arizona Working Papers in SLA & Teaching*, 123-142.
- Xu, X. (2011). The relationship between language learning motivation and the choice of language learning strategies among Chinese graduates. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, (2), 201-212.
- Yamada, Y., & Moeller, A. J. (2001). Weaving curricular standards into the language classroom: An action research study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34(1), 26-34.
- Young, D. J. (ed.) (1999). *Affect in foreign language and second language learning*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.
- Yuehchiu, F. (2010). Perceptions of the computer-assisted writing program among EFL college learners. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 13(3), 246-256. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Guides

Questions for each individual interview:

<p><i>Questions related to experiences in English writing</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ When was your first time to write English composition? How do you describe the experience? ➤ Does your prior learning experience in composition affect your learning attitudes? If so, in what ways? ➤ Have you feel being or not supported by the current composition instructor or the learning environment? How does that affect your motivation in writing? ➤ How do you prepare for required writing assignments? ➤ Do you enjoy the composing processes, at what aspects?
<p><i>Questions related to integrative/intrinsic orientations</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Do you write in English often? Please describe your writing experiences in and outside of class. What is the difference of your attitude between writing as an assignment and writing as a leisure activity? ➤ In general, which language do you write more often, Chinese or English? ➤ What does English writing mean to you? ➤ How do you feel about writing in English? ➤ Among the genres you have practiced, what genre intrigues you most?
<p><i>Questions related to instrumental/extrinsic orientations</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Do you think writing is important? At what aspects? ➤ Do you think it is necessary to learn English writing? ➤ DO you often see the benefits of being good in English writing, except for getting high marks in the composition class? How do these affect your performance in the writing class?

Appendix B: Consent Letter

Dear participant:

You are cordially invited to participate in a research project conducted by researcher Ryan Chen on Taiwanese college students' research paper writing. I am investigating this because this study can help language educators and researchers gain a better understanding about Taiwanese college students' English composing strategies, problems, processes, motivation and development in academic context.

Your participation is voluntary. Taking part in this project is entirely up to your free will, and no one will hold it against you. Basically, you will be asked to (1) provide all the writing pieces you had written in Tunghai English program class and (2) participate in several one to one interviews. The interviews, depending on your preference and convenience, can be conducted either in English or Chinese. The interviews will be conducted in face-to-face contexts. The interview data will be recorded/saved and transcribed.

To ensure the confidentiality of your personal information, your name will not be disclosed. A pseudonym will be created for you. The data will also be kept in a secure place and will only be used for this study. Should you have any concern or questions regarding this research project, please feel free to contact me at doublethrough@hotmail.com

Sincerely,

Ryan Chen

Foreign Languages and Literature Department

Tunghai University

B. Consent Statement(s)

_____ I agree to participate in this project.

Signature _____

Date _2015/_____