

An Exploration of Motivational Strategies, Beliefs, and Contextual Factors:
A Case of Chinese EFL Teachers



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การศึกษากลยุทธ์การสร้างแรงจูงใจ ความเชื่อ และปัจจัยบริบท:
กรณีครูชาวจีนที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ



วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาครุศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต
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ตามทฤษฎีการกำหนดด้วยตนเอง ครูสามารถสร้างเสริมแรงจูงใจภายในของผู้เรียนได้ โดยการใช้กลยุทธ์สร้างแรงจูงใจของครูอาจได้รับอิทธิพลจากความเชื่อของครูและปัจจัยบริบท การวิจัยกรณีศึกษาข้างต้นนี้จึงออกแบบขึ้นเพื่อสำรวจความสัมพันธ์เหล่านี้ในบริบทของห้องเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือของประเทศไทยซึ่งงานวิจัยที่ผ่านมาพบว่านักเรียนมีระดับแรงจูงใจในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษอยู่ในระดับต่ำกว่านักเรียนในเขตอื่น ครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ 6 คนจากโรงเรียนรัฐบาลระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอนปลายในเขตนี้ถูกสังเกตในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 4 เป็นเวลา 1 เดือน หลังจากการสังเกตในห้องเรียน ครูแต่ละคนถูกสัมภาษณ์เพื่อหาข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับความเชื่อในการใช้กลยุทธ์การสร้างแรงจูงใจและปัจจัยบริบท นอกจากนี้ มีการเก็บข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับปัจจัยบริบทโดยศึกษาเอกสารที่เกี่ยวข้อง ข้อมูลที่ได้ถูกนำมาวิเคราะห์เชิงคุณภาพโดยวิธีการใส่รหัส

ผลจากการสังเกตในชั้นเรียนแสดงให้เห็นรูปแบบที่ชัดเจนในการใช้กลยุทธ์สร้างแรงจูงใจของผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัย ครูทั้งหมดมีแนวโน้มที่จะใช้กลยุทธ์การควบคุมเพื่อกระตุ้นแรงจูงใจของนักเรียนในห้องเรียนที่เน้นครูเป็นศูนย์กลาง อย่างไรก็ตาม ครูทุกคนดูเหมือนจะตระหนักถึงกลยุทธ์สร้างแรงจูงใจแบบต่าง ๆ และจากการสังเกตพบว่าครูมีการใช้กลยุทธ์แบบส่งเสริมความสามารถในการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองด้วยครูที่เข้าร่วมวิจัยมีความเชื่อเกี่ยวกับกลยุทธ์สร้างแรงจูงใจที่หลากหลาย คือเชื่อในกลยุทธ์ทั้งแบบส่งเสริมความสามารถในการเรียนรู้ด้วยตนเองและแบบควบคุม ข้อมูลดังกล่าวแสดงให้เห็นว่า การใช้กลยุทธ์การสร้างแรงจูงใจของครูอาจไม่ได้รับอิทธิพลจากความเชื่อของครู แต่ได้รับอิทธิพลจากปัจจัยบริบทซึ่งก่อให้เกิดความกดดันจาก ‘เบื้องบน’ และ ‘เบื้องล่าง’ ความแตกต่างระหว่างความเชื่อและการปฏิบัติของครูที่พบในงานวิจัยนี้แสดงให้เห็นว่าครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศควรตระหนักถึงอิทธิพลของปัจจัยบริบทและควรรหาโอกาสที่จะพัฒนาทางวิชาชีพเพื่อให้สามารถสร้างเสริมแรงจูงใจภายในของนักเรียนได้อย่างเหมาะสม เนื่องจากในการวิจัยนี้ไม่พบแนวโน้มของการใช้กลยุทธ์บางกลยุทธ์อย่างชัดเจนและการวิเคราะห์ผลของกลยุทธ์การสร้างแรงจูงใจนั้นอ้างอิงจากรวบรวมข้อมูลที่เกี่ยวข้องเท่านั้นจึงเสนอให้มีการศึกษาวิจัยเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับการปรับเปลี่ยนกลยุทธ์การสร้างแรงจูงใจของครูในชั้นเรียนและศึกษาผลของกลยุทธ์การสร้างแรงจูงใจแต่ละกลยุทธ์ที่มีต่อนักเรียนอย่างแท้จริง

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KEYWORDS: SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY / MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES / INTRINSIC MOTIVATION / AUTONOMY SUPPORTIV STYLE / CONTROLLING STYLE / TEACHER BELIEFS / CONTEXTUAL FACTORS / EFL TEACHERS

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Based on the Self-determination theory, teachers can enhance learners' intrinsic motivation and their use of motivational strategies may be influenced by their beliefs and contextual factors. This case study was thus designed to explore these relationships in the contexts of EFL classrooms in Northwest of China, in which student's motivation levels in English learning were found in previous studies to be lower than that of the students in other regions. Six EFL teachers from a public upper secondary school in this region were observed in their tenth grade English classrooms over one month. After the observations, they were interviewed to elicit information about their beliefs and contextual factors. In addition, supplementary information about the contextual factors was also obtained from relevant documents. The data were analyzed qualitatively using the coding method.

The findings from the observations revealed a consistent pattern in the participants' use of motivational strategies. All the six teachers tended to employ controlling strategies to motivate their students in the teacher-centered classroom; nevertheless, they seemed to be aware of a variety of motivational strategies and were observed to use some autonomy supportive strategies. Their beliefs about motivational strategies were found to be varied, either in autonomy supportive style or controlling style. These data suggested that the teachers' motivational practices might not have been influenced by their beliefs, but rather by contextual factors, including the pressures from "above" and "below". The discrepancy between teacher beliefs and practices revealed in this study suggests that EFL teachers should be aware of the influence of the contextual factors and seek opportunities to have professional development to be able to properly nurture learners' intrinsic motivation. Because some strategies did not show a clear trend and the effects of motivational strategies were interpreted based on previous literature only, future investigations on how teachers' motivational strategies change over a long period of time and how each motivational strategy really affects students' intrinsic motivation are recommended.

Department: Curriculum and Instruction Student's Signature

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Intrinsic motivation, as Reeve (1996) indicated, “emerges spontaneously from the students’ needs, personal curiosities, and innate strivings for growth”. It has been redefined as the desire of individuals to behave for inherent interests, challenge, and enjoyment (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a) and for their own sake (Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2014). Intrinsic motivation has been found to enhance personal growth (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991), and benefit high-quality performance of learning, creativity (Ryan & Deci, 2000a), and lifelong learning (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). Previous studies have reported the positive influence of intrinsic motivation in many fields, such as sports (e.g. Richard, Christina, Deborah, Rubio, & Kennon, 1997), training in workplaces (e.g. Venkatesh, 1999), and in education as well (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1975). For example, intrinsic motivation has been found to boost students’ learning, understanding and engagement (Shin, Kim, Hwang, & Lee, 2018). Similar results have been found in second language learning (e.g. Komiyama & Mcmorris, 2017; Ng & Ng, 2015; Noels et al., 2000).

According to the Self-determination theory (SDT), students’ intrinsic motivation can be nurtured by supporting and promoting their psychological needs of autonomy,

competence and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2017). Previous studies have suggested that teachers should be autonomy supportive rather than controlling (Black & Deci, 2000; Cox & Williams, 2008; Eckes, Großmann, & Wilde, 2018; McEown, Noels, & Saumure, 2014; Reeve, 1998; Reeve, Bolt, & Cai, 1999; M. Zhou, Ma, & Deci, 2009). An autonomy supportive teacher motivates students by recognizing their interests and internalization to promote their intrinsic learning motivation. On the contrary, a controlling teacher motivates learners using incentives, rewards or external constraints, and consequences to make students follow the teachers' "way of thinking, feeling, or behaving" (Reeve et al., 1999). The more autonomy supportive the teacher is, the more intrinsic motivation or self-determination the learners have (Bieg, Backes, & Mittag, 2011; Deci & Ryan, 1987; Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, & Kauffman, 1982; Haerens, Aelterman, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, & Van Petegem, 2015; Loima & Vibulphol, 2014, 2016; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Sanli, Patterson, Bray, & Lee, 2012; Vibulphol, 2016; Williams & Deci, 1996). To create the learning environment to raise and maintain students' language learning motivation and involvement by using motivational strategies is indispensable (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Guilloteaux, 2008; Loima & Vibulphol, 2014; Vibulphol, 2016).

It was acknowledged that teachers' beliefs affected teachers' instructional practices, choices, and behaviors in the classroom (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017; Cephe

& Yalcin, 2015; Vibulphol, 2004; H. Zheng, 2009), including their motivational behaviors (Alshehri, 2014; Hornstra, Mansfield, van der Veen, Peetsma, & Volman, 2015; Vural, 2007). But few research has been found to investigate teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies in EFL classes in China (Feng, 2012; Luo, 2016). In addition, Reeve et al. (2014) reported that culture, i.e. Collectivism—individualism, could predict teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies in controlling motivational style, but it could not predict if the teachers believed in autonomy supportive motivational style or not. Therefore, EFL teachers in China-- a collectivism culture country (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2001) might tend to believe in controlling motivational style. However, whether the EFL teachers would believe that autonomy supportive strategies could motivate students or not was still in question.

On the other hand, some studies pointed out that teachers' beliefs and the actual use of motivational strategies might not be consistent with each other (e.g. Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017; Hornstra et al., 2015; X. Yang, 2015). The discrepancy between beliefs and practice was mainly attributed to contexts (Aparach & Vibulphol, 2015; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017; Dörnyei, 2001; Hornstra et al., 2015; Reeve et al., 2014). Pelletier, Séguin-Lévesque, and Legault (2002), Pelletier and Sharp (2009) and Hornstra et al. (2015) investigated the influential contextual factors from two aspects which were pressures to teachers from "above" (for example, teachers had to follow the

norm of a curriculum, colleagues, or performance standards), and from “below” (for example, teachers perceived their students to be non-self-determined). Then, what contextual factors and how they influenced Chinese EFL teachers’ motivational behaviors?

It was found that many previous studies investigated teachers’ motivational strategies mainly based on the motivational strategies structured by Dörnyei (2001), such as Guilloteaux (2013), X. Yang (2015), and Wang and Vibulphol (2015b). Only a few studies tried to identify teachers’ motivational styles on the base of SDT by identifying teachers’ motivational behaviors such as Reeve and Jang (2006), Reeve (2016b) and Chang, Fukuda, Durham, and Little (2017) through rating or theoretical analysis. Similarly in the context of China, Yu, Chen, Levesque-Bristol, and Vansteenkiste (2018) did a review of SDT research in Chinese education and there was no specific research that has been conducted to investigate teachers’ motivational strategies used in the classroom or teachers’ beliefs about the motivational strategies following the theory of self-determination, not to mention in the English language classroom. There were also few studies conducted to investigate the relationships among teachers’ motivational strategies, beliefs and contextual factors. Moreover, even some previous studies conducted in other context to investigate the relationships, like Hornstra et al. (2015), was implemented through interview only without classroom

observation to find out what really happened in the classroom. The self-reported data were the only sources to understand teachers' motivational strategies without revealing teachers' classroom practices. Thus, this present study was conducted by using multiple instruments to explore the trend of using motivational strategies among Chinese EFL teachers. Classroom observations were used to help deepen understanding the context (Hatch, 2002).

This present study was conducted in a case of one region in Northwest China whose English language teaching developed slowly (Jun, 2016) and student motivation level was lower than other regions in China (You & Dörnyei, 2014). This study was to help upgrade students' English learning motivation in Northwest China through understanding the EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the motivational strategies and how contextual factors influenced teachers' motivational strategies.

Research Questions

The present research attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What motivational strategies do EFL teachers in Northwest China utilize in their classrooms?
2. What beliefs do EFL teachers in Northwest China hold about what type of strategies can motivate students?

3. What are the contextual factors that EFL teachers in Northwest China experience?
4. How do teachers' beliefs and contextual factors influence the use of motivational strategies?

Research Objectives

The present research aimed to:

1. investigate the use of motivational strategies in EFL classrooms in Northwest China;
2. investigate the beliefs about what type of strategies can motivate students of EFL teachers in Northwest China;
3. investigate the contextual factors that EFL teachers in Northwest China experience;
4. analyze how teachers' beliefs and contextual factors influence their use of the motivational strategies.

Scope of the Study

This case study explored the use of motivational strategies, beliefs of Chinese EFL teachers in one region of the People's Republic of China about the motivational strategies and the influential contextual factors in that region. The participants were

EFL teachers in an upper secondary public school in Northwest China. Motivational strategies were observed in their English classrooms in Grade 10. In addition, the contextual factors that may affect teachers' motivational strategies including the national English curriculum standards, high-stakes test, educational policy, educational concept of school, school policy regarding teachers' performance, class size, students' ability and motivation levels and background characteristics were investigated. Due to the nature of a case study, the findings of this present research were intended to represent the phenomenon in one context, not to be generalized to other contexts with different characteristics.

Definition of Terms

The key terms were defined for the purpose of the present research as follows:

1. **Motivational strategies** refer to the instructional behaviors that teachers employed in the classroom to motivate the students. In the present research, motivational strategies were discussed in two styles: autonomy supportive strategies versus controlling strategies.

Autonomy supportive motivational strategies refer to the teachers' instructional behaviors that adopt students' perspectives, take into consideration of students' thoughts, sentiments, and behaviors, and promote students' development. On the

other hand, controlling strategies interfere students' thoughts, sentiments, and behaviors, and compel students to think and feel in the teachers' defined way. Classroom observations were used to find the motivational strategies that the teachers used in English classrooms. The observational field notes were taken as evidence that helped the investigation and aided in the understanding of the classes.

2. **Beliefs** refer to mediating representations that teachers have about motivation and motivational strategies. In the present study, teachers' beliefs are investigated in the aspect of the importance of motivation, level of students' motivation, and type of important and effective motivational strategies. Two sets of interview questions adapted from Hornstra et al. (2015) were used to elicit teachers' beliefs in this study.

3. **Contextual factors** refer to variables that bring pressures to teachers and influence their beliefs and use of motivational strategies. Two categories of contextual factors were investigated according to Pelletier et al. (2002). First, pressures from "above" refer to factors out of the classroom such as administrators, state standards, educational policies, curriculum constraints, colleagues, educational concepts of school and high-stakes testing. Second, pressures from "below" refer to students or factors inside the classroom such as student ability levels, background characteristics, motivation and behaviors. The contextual factors were assessed using documentary

review and interviews in this study. The data from interviews were supplementary information.

4. **EFL Teachers** refer to the Chinese teachers who teach English in upper secondary schools. In the present study, EFL teachers were from one public school in one region in Northwest China, who agreed to participate in this present study as one case.

Organization of the Chapters

This thesis consists of five chapters. The first chapter introduces the rationales of the study, research questions, research objectives, the scope of the study, and the definitions of terms. To set the conceptual framework of the study, a review of literature on the topics of motivation and learning, motivational strategies, influential factors on motivational strategies, and the context of China is reported in the second chapter. The third chapter presents the research methodology. Details about the research design, participants, research instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis are included in this chapter. The fourth chapter presents the findings for all four research questions which were revealed in the observation and interview data. And the last chapter includes discussions of the findings of this present study in light of previous studies, limitations of the study, pedagogical implications, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents the theoretical background of the study including four sections: motivation and learning, motivational strategies, factors influencing teachers' motivational strategies, and the context of Northwest China.

Motivation and learning

Motivation refers to the reason(s) of people's decision that they are going to do something, the persistence that they are going to show and the effort they are going to devote (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013, p. 4). Motivation was indicated by Ames (1990) and Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in explaining learners' learning activities, involvement, and second language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Additionally, Vibulphol (2016) defined motivation as 'kick starts' of the process, lubrication and fuel to keep "the engine" running, which emphasized the initiative nature of and the support to L2 learning motivation. Slightly different, Gardner (1985) defined L2 motivation as individual learner's own desire to work or strive to learn another language, which can bring satisfaction during the process of learning. He stressed learners' desire and satisfactory expectation. It is commonly recognized that long-term

learning cannot be achieved without sufficient motivation (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), even with the most remarkable abilities (Dörnyei & Guilleaux, 2008; Ng & Ng, 2015).

Motivation has been the hot topic in many fields around the world, also in L2 learning. The studies about learners' motivation have been done in many countries, such as Korea (e.g. Lee & Kim, 2014), Scottish (e.g. Maclellan, 2008), the United States (e.g. Proctor, Daley, Louick, Leider, & Gardner, 2014), Thailand (e.g. Loima & Vibulphol, 2014), and also China (e.g. Xu & Gao, 2014). These investigations were concerning to learners' development of intrinsic motivation/extrinsic motivation in learning English and mathematics (Lee & Kim, 2014; Loima & Vibulphol, 2014), the significance of motivation in student-centered learning among teacher-education undergraduates (Maclellan, 2008), prediction of reading-related motivations about comprehension outcomes, the relationship between university students' English learning motivation types and learners' identities change (Xu & Gao, 2014), or learners' English learning motivation levels at secondary and university levels and the role of vision and imagery in learners' motivation of English learning (You & Dörnyei, 2014; You, Dörnyei, & Csizér, 2016) etc..

Different types of motivation. Since motivation has been widely and deeply studied, many motivation theories have been applied into studies on L2 learning motivation. Expectancy-value theory, goal theory and self-determination theory have

been three well-known motivation theories. Among them, these motivation theories have a theoretical distinction in intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation based on Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Some studies pointed out that learners would lose their natural intrinsic motivation if they had done a task to meet some extrinsic requirements (Reeve, 1996). Deci and Ryan (2000), however, adopted a continuum representing different degrees of external control or self-determination, rather than a categorically different, negative relationship between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. It is a more elaborated construct following the principle of SDT.

Intrinsic motivation is an innate willingness to engage in an activity for own sake (Schunk et al., 2014), for experiencing pleasure, enjoyment, interests (Ryan & Deci, 2000a), and satisfactions (Noels et al., 2000). Extrinsic motivation is in contrast to intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation is the intention to receive extrinsic reward or avoiding punishment that is detachable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). However, it should be noticed that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are not two absolute contrast forms of motivation. SDT proposes that there are four types of extrinsic motivation that represent different level of active and agentic states (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, 2017; Sanli et al., 2012) (See Figure 2.1).

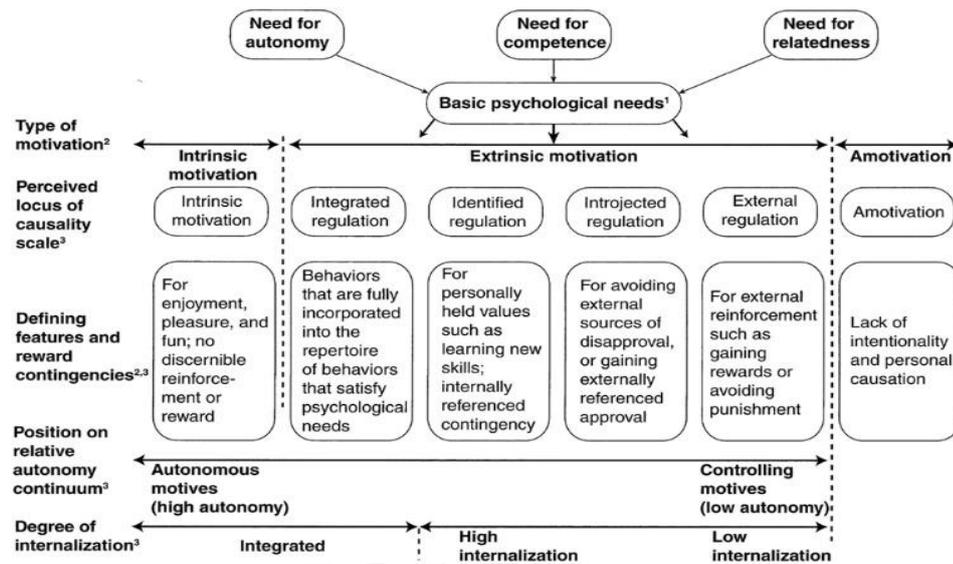


Figure 2. 1 Schematic Representation of Self-determination Theory (Sanli et al., 2012)

The far-right side of the Figure 2.1 represents actions that were amotivated or demotivated, which manifested as lack of intention or self-determined in their learning. The middle of the figure represented four types of extrinsic motivation—external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. They represented different levels of interests, autonomous and self-determination. Learners who have external regulation would show the avoidance of punishment, not self-determination, low interests and external control. The relevant regulatory processes of external regulation include seeking compliance, offering external rewards and administering punishment. Its perceived focus of reason is pure external resource. Introjected regulation is perceived to come from somewhat external resources involving self-control, ego-involvement, contingent self-esteem for avoiding

disapproval and gaining externally referenced approval. Identified regulation is highly internalization with acknowledgment of personal importance and conscious valuing for internally referenced contingent. Lastly, integrated regulation is distinguished from internal as to behave with full incorporation into the repertoire of behaviors that satisfy psychological needs. Its relevant regulatory process contains congruence, awareness, and synthesis of identifications. Integrated regulation has a relatively higher self-determination and autonomy level. Students can integrate internal and external sources of information and engage in behaviors for the importance of their sense of self, though it is still instrumental rather than innate. As shown in figure 2.1, intrinsic motivation, four types of extrinsic motivation and amotivation are in an autonomy continuum from high autonomy to low autonomy (i.e. highly controlling), to no autonomy. Intrinsic motivation is deemed as the representative of high autonomy or autonomous motives. Ryan and Deci (2000b, 2017) demonstrated a similar figure with this continuum turned over and defined the amotivation as non-self-determined behaviors, and intrinsic motivation as self-determined behaviors.

Benefits of intrinsic motivation. What, how, and when students learn could be affected by learning motivation during learners' learning processes. It was believed that students' learning and performance on applying learnt skills and strategies previously were affected by students' motivation. (Schunk et al., 2014, p. 5). The study

conducted by Gardner (1985) has pointed out that affective variables, such as anxiety, motivation, and attitude, have shown the importance for predicting second language achievement. Later, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) found that attitudes and motivation associated with language learning achievement, and the correlations between motivation and achievement was uniformly higher than those between attitudes and achievement.

According to SDT, as Reeve (1996) indicated, intrinsic motivation was found to be spontaneously generated from student's desires, personal curiosities, and inborn needs for growth (p. 6). It promotes learning and development through providing a natural force, and it therefore can motivate actions without assistance of extrinsic rewards or pressures. It is a path to achieve lifelong learning. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is an instrumental created force taken from external sources to display a behavior. Once external sources disappear, level of motivation would decrease or disappear. Students make decisions on initiating or continuing actions with reliance on external motivational resources. For example, they may prompt learning because of an upcoming test; they may work harder on papers because tomorrow is the deadline; they may study for high grades to satisfy their parents, and so on. Those examples showed that extrinsic motivation could engage students to learn in some

situations. However, those extrinsic rewards or constraints decrease intrinsic motivation (Reeve, 1996).

Furthermore, Deci et al. (1991) suggested that intrinsically motivated, regulatory and internalized valuing learners had high-quality learning and enhanced personal growth. Niemiec and Ryan (2009) also reported that both intrinsic motivation and autonomous motivation were beneficial to learners' engagement and learning. Previous study like Lee and Kim (2014) pointed out that intrinsic motivation and students' achievement, task enjoyment and task value were positive related. Many studies have still worked on the benefits of intrinsic motivation on various aspects in diverse levels of learners. For example, Richard et al. (1997) found that intrinsic motivation, i.e. the enjoyment, competence and social interaction were associated with sports exercises adherence. Venkatesh (1999) reported that integrating intrinsic motivation enhancements in training users to accept a system. Shin et al. (2018) suggested students' confidence could be positively predicted by intrinsic motivation, and feedback in purpose and providing college students with intrinsically motivated experiences with informative feedback supported their competence. The same happened in the language learning and teaching field.

A number of previous studies investigated intrinsic motivation in the field of second language learning. For example, Lee and Kim (2014) did a research to

investigate the change of students' intrinsic motivation in learning English and mathematics in Korean. Proctor et al. (2014) tested the relationship between intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and reading comprehension outcomes. Ng and Ng (2015) reviewed the roles of intrinsic motivation and L2 (English) learning. Komiyama and Mcmorris (2017) found that the international students had intrinsic and internalized motivation to read in English.

So, what should teacher do to enhance students' intrinsic motivation? What motivational strategies could be considered?

Motivational Strategies

Ames (1990) emphasized that teachers should have motivation knowledge about the classroom. They should have knowledge about their own functions in the classroom and how to make use of motivation knowledge to deal with issues and make instructional decisions. Teachers who promote students' long-term development would involve themselves in motivating students (Dörnyei, 2001). Teachers are on the top of factors that are assumed to contribute to learners' positive or negative evaluation of L2 learning (Chambers, 1999, p. 137). Students' motivation levels can be influenced by teachers' practice or behaviors (Urhahne, 2015), such as teachers' immediacy (Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1993), activities associated with teaching (Schunk et al., 2014, p. 274), and motivational practice (Dörnyei & Guilloteaux,

2008). Teachers' behaviors that influence students' motivation in the classroom become a powerful motivational tool.

Some studies found that teachers' immediacy behaviors modified students' motivation and influenced students' learning at various level (e.g. Christophel, 1990). While the results may vary because of the maintenance of motivation level. High motivation students involved themselves in learning regardless of how immediate their teachers were. Besides the obvious motivational actions by teachers, Schunk et al. (2014) believed that teaching activities also correlated with students' motivation, such as grouping students, and questioning strategies. Those activities that can be used in instructional practice, creating an effective learning environment, and teacher-student interactions all had an impact on students' motivation.

Teachers' motivational strategies. Motivational strategies in practice are mainly applied a) by the teachers to educate and cultivate students' motivation in instruction and b) by students purposively to manage their own motivation to achieve self-regulation (Dörnyei & Guilloteaux, 2008). Teachers' motivational behaviors (i.e. motivational strategies) are highly, significantly, and positively correlated with students' motivation which is linked to students' learning behaviors, performances, and motivational states. Dörnyei (2001) stated that "motivational strategies are techniques that promote the individual's goal-related behavior... Motivational strategies refer to

those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect.”(p. 28) Most studies that investigated teachers’ motivational strategies in practice based on the framework established by Dörnyei (2001). He set a progress-oriented model including four units, i.e. creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (p. 29). However, Dörnyei (2001) also indicated another four ways to cluster motivational strategies in respective “themes”, such as focusing on the internal structure of a language class and group strategies based on diverse structural steps, focusing on key motivational concepts (e.g., intrinsic motivation, student autonomy), designing a primarily troubleshooting guide, and centering the discussion on teachers’ dominant motivating behaviors. Similarly, Reeve et al. (1999) categorized motivational behaviors into two motivational styles: autonomy-supportive versus controlling – according to SDT, which focused on intrinsic motivation and student autonomy, and also clustered teacher behaviors into instructional units in terms of motivational styles (Reeve, 2016a).

Autonomy supportive versus controlling styles. As described above, to achieve the effective promotion of students’ intrinsic or internalized motivation, the three psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness should be nurtured (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). SDT suggests that any of the

psychological needs are discouraged or frustrated within a social context, there will be a strong detriment on well-being in that context. One of them-- learner autonomy-- has been greatly emphasized in L2 motivation research. Deci et al. (1991) argued and Chang et al. (2017) pointed out that though supports for sensed of competence and relatedness facilitated students' motivation, such action would facilitate intrinsic motivation when they coexisted with autonomy support without controlling. The evidence has shown that L2 motivation and learner autonomy go in tandem (e.g. Benson & Voller, 1997; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Sanli et al. (2012) concluded that autonomy referred to feelings of willingness and choice in related to activities, competences referred to feelings of having ability of mastery and interaction, and relatedness referred to feelings of interpersonal relationship between teachers and students. They illustrated SDT in framework with a new category of position on relative autonomy continuum stimulating high autonomy (autonomous motives) to low autonomy (controlling motives) (See Figure 2.1) based. It could be explained that learners who have intrinsic motivation must have high autonomy, while high controlling motives meant high extrinsic motivation. Ryan and Deci (2017) indicated that the satisfaction of all three psychological needs were deemed essential for a person. Moreover, these three basic needs are interdependent. "Each need facilitates the satisfaction of the others under most conditions."(Ryan &

Deci, 2017, p. 248) Hence, they suggested that teachers in the classroom should be more autonomy supportive rather than controlling.

Autonomy-supportive style fosters intrinsic motivation (Pelletier et al., 2002; Reeve, 1996). Less controlling teaching, and a classroom where learners were supported with autonomy would be a more successful form of instruction. Deci et al. (1982) and Deci and Ryan (1987) separately found that controlling teachers lowered students' intrinsic motivation, while autonomy supportive teachers promoted intrinsic motivation. The similar findings were reported by Williams and Deci (1996), Niemiec and Ryan (2009), Bieg et al. (2011), Loima and Vibulphol (2014), Haerens et al. (2015) and Vibulphol (2016).

Besides, Reeve (1998); Reeve et al. (1999) Reeve et al. (1999) reported many corollary advantages if students were autonomy supportively taught. Students reported greater perceived academic competence, better academic innateness, greater innovation, higher level of mastery motivation, a preference for optimal challenge, lower dropout rates, higher academic performance and achievement, as well as a greater likelihood of staying in school. Black and Deci (2000) revealed that students' feeling of anxiety decreased during the semester when they perceived that their teachers were autonomy supportive. Their autonomous self-regulation, perceived competence, and interests were increased. Cox and Williams (2008) investigated that

the role of perceived teacher support, mastery climate and relatedness were important in students' intrinsic motivation. McEown et al. (2014) also reported that students had greater self-determination when they perceived their teachers as supporting competence and relatedness. They emphasized that teachers could support students' sense of competence, relatedness and cultural understanding to foster their motivation in learning foreign language. Eckes et al. (2018) investigated the effect of supplementary structure on students' motivation and found that only when teachers acted autonomy supportive, could the supplementary structure play positive roles in students' motivation.

Though supporting students' autonomy has been proved to benefit students' learning and to nurture their inner motivational resource, many studies found that the controlling approach commonly dominates the classroom (Reeve, 1996; Vibulphol, 2016). Reeve roughly analyzed the reasons why teachers were so frequently controlling with students. First, a controlling approach was more effective for promoting learning motivation from some teachers' perspective. Second, controlling teachers were rated as more competent by students and parents. Lastly, teachers were pressured to meet preset performance standards by their employers.

Two styles of motivational strategies. According to SDT, autonomy supportive style motivational strategies referred to interpersonal feelings and behaviors

teachers give in their instruction to identify, be rich in, and explore students' inner motivational resources, while controlling style motivational strategies referred to teachers' interpersonal sentiment and instructional behaviors that compel students to think, feel, or behave in a defined way (Reeve, 2009). It was indicated by previous studies in different countries that language teachers preferred controlling students to supporting their autonomy (Hornstra et al., 2015). It was evidenced by Vibulphol (2016) that the controlling motivational strategies were commonly used by teachers in English classrooms and autonomy-supportive motivational strategies were applied in classrooms with high motivation levels in Thailand. Wu (2002) investigated on teachers' influence on primary school students through control and pursuing for students' obedience in China. The similar trend has been found in the middle school of China by Li (2005) that Chinese teachers tended to motivate students through controlling. Pelletier et al. (2002) also declared the same result which was tested in Quebec.

As to autonomy supportive motivational strategies, Reeve (1996, 2006, 2016a) listed five categories of teaching behaviors that support student autonomy including that teacher could 1) take the students' point of view to plan and prepare lessons; 2) encourage students' choices and initiatives to vitalize their inner motivational resources, like psychological needs, curiosity and intrinsic goals; 3) provide explanatory justification for limits or constraints imposed on students' actions; 4) acknowledge that

negative emotion is a reasonable response to teachers' control; and 5) teachers' communication style relied on informational, non-controlling, positive feedback (See Table 2.1).

Table 2. 1

Autonomy Supportive Instructional Behaviors (Reeve, 2016b)

Autonomy supportive instructional behaviors (with explanation or examples)

Takes the Students' Perspective

- Invites, Asks for, Welcome, and Incorporates Students Input
- Is "In Synch" with Students
- Is Aware of Students' Needs, Wants, Goals, Priorities, Preferences, and Emotions

Vitalizes Inner Motivational Resources

- Piques Curiosity; Provides Interesting Learning Activities
- Vitalizes and Supports Students' Autonomy, Competence, Relatedness
- Frames Learning Activities with Students' Intrinsic Goals

Provides Explanatory Rationales

for Requests, Rules, Procedures, and Uninteresting Activities

- Explains Why; Says, "Because,..." , "The reason is..."
 - Identifies the Value, Importance, Benefit, Use, Utility of a Request
-

Uses Non-Pressuring, Informational Language

- Flexible, Open-minded, Responsive Communication
- Provides Choices, Provides Options
- Says, “You may...”, “You might...”

Acknowledges and Accepts Negative Affect

- Listens Carefully, Non-Defensively, with Understanding
- Acknowledges Students’ Negative Affect (“Okay”; “Yes”)
- Accepts Complaints as Valid (“Okay”; “Yes”)

Displays Patience

- Allows Students to Work at their Own Pace, in their Own Way
- Calmly Waits for Students’ Signals of Initiative, Input, and Willingness

Reeve and Jang (2006) assessed instructional behaviors categorized into autonomy supportive and controlling that were favored by teachers and positively or negatively correlated to students’ autonomy. Among them, 11 behaviors (time of listening; asking students’ wants; time given to student to work in their own method; time given to students to talk; seating arrangement; giving justifications; praising feedback with information; encouraging; providing hints; giving response to students’ questions; and, communicating by taking students’ perspective) were tested the correlation with students’ autonomy. The results showed that eight among them were

significantly associated with autonomy supportive (See Table 2.2). For example, asking what students wants can be grouped into inner motivational resources, and communicating perspective-taking statements can be grouped into taking students' point of view. One of the findings of behaviors in Reeve, Jang, Hardre, and Omura (2002) was absent from Reeve and Jang (2006). Reeve et al. (2002) found that providing rationale was an autonomy supportive strategy. Some autonomy-supportive instructional practice above are overlapped in a book written by Blackburn (2015) who categorized basic strategies into ten macro strategies to build student' intrinsic motivation, like building a relationship, praise and positive feedback, engagement.

Table 2. 2

Eight Autonomy-Supportive Instructional Behaviors (Reeve & Jang, 2006)

8 autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors

Listening

Seconds the teacher carefully and fully attended to the student's speech, as evidenced by verbal or nonverbal signals of active, contingent, and responsive information processing.

Creating time for independent work

Seconds the teacher invited or allowed the student to work independently and to solve the puzzle in his or her own way.

Giving the students opportunities to talk

Seconds the student talked.

Praising signs of improvement and mastery

Statements to communicate positive effect feedback about the student's improvement or mastery, such as "Good job" and "That's great."

Encouraging the student's effort

Statements to boost or sustain the student's engagement, such as "Almost," "You're close," and "You can do it."

Offering process- enabling hints when the student seemed stuck

Suggestions about how to make progress when the student seemed to be stuck, such as "Holding the puzzle in your hands seems to work better than laying it on the table" and "It might be easier to work on the base first."

Being responsive to student's questions and comments

Contingent replies to a student-generated comment or question, such as "Yes, you have a good point" and "Yes, right, that was the second one."

Acknowledging the student's perspective and experience

Empathic statements to acknowledge the student's perspective or experience, such as "Yes, this one is difficult" and "I know it is a sort of difficult one."

Different from the motivational strategies applied in general, Nunan (2003) claimed that, to achieve autonomy supportive in language learning class, teachers can

follow nine overlapped or simultaneous steps which covered learning processes (including raising awareness of learning processes; helping learners identify their own preferred styles and strategies; encouraging learner choice; allowing learners to generate their own tasks; encouraging learners to become teachers; and, encouraging learners to become researchers) and content (including making instruction goals clear to learners; allowing learners to create their own goals; and, encouraging learners to use their second language outside the classroom). Besides above, teachers also can help students reflect on the process and content, get students involved, and use target language to achieve autonomy supportive (Little, 2007).

On the contrary, controlling motivational strategies clustered according to instructional units include: (a) take only the teachers' perspective, which means that teachers attend to and prioritize only their own plan and needs without synch with students', even unaware of students' needs and wants; (b) offer incentives, seek compliance and give commands and consequences for behaviors; (c) neglects to provide rationales, namely, directive and request without explanations; (d) use controlling and pressure language, like "have to", "should"; (e) opposes and tries to change negative affectation; (f) display impatience (Reeve, 2016a) (See Table 2.3).

Table 2. 3

Controlling Instructional Behaviors (Reeve, 2016b)

 Controlling instructional behaviors (with explanation or examples)

Takes Only the Teacher's Perspective

- Attends to and Prioritizes Only the Teacher's Plans, Needs
- Teachers Is Out of Synch with Students; Unresponsive to Students' Signals
- Is Unaware of Students' Needs, Wants, Goals, Priorities, Preferences, and Emotions

Introduces Extrinsic Motivators

- Offers Incentives; Seeks Compliance
- Gives Consequences for Desired & Undesired behaviors
- Utters Assignments, Directives, and Commands

Neglects to Provide Explanatory Rationales

for Requests, Rules, Procedures, and Uninteresting Activities

- Directives without Explanations
- Requests ("do this; do that") without Explanations

Uses Controlling, Pressuring Language

- Evaluative, Critical, Coercive, Inflexible; "No Nonsense"
 - Prescriptive ("You *should*, you *must*, you *have to*, you've got to ...")
 - Verbally and nonverbally pressuring (raise voice, points, pushes hard, "hurry")
-

Counters and Tries to Change Negative Affect

- Counters Argues Against Students' Negative Affect, Complaining , or “Bad Attitude”
- Tries to Change Negative Affect into Something Acceptable to the Teacher

Displays Impatience

- Rushes Student to Produce a Right Answer or a Desired Behavior
- Intrudes into Students' Workspace (Grabs away learning materials; Says, “Here, let me do that for you.”)
- Communicates What is Right & Pushes Students to Reproduce It Quickly

In the early time, Reeve and Jang (2006) tested controlling motivation strategies based on motivational behaviors, including teachers' talking, monopolizing learning materials, providing solutions, giving answers, uttering directives or commands, using prescriptive statements, asking controlling questions, informing deadline, contingent rewarding praise, and criticism. They had commons with the characteristics of teacher centered method as Erni (2014) defined. The findings showed six teachers' controlling behaviors that were associated with thwarting autonomy (See Table 2.4).

*Table 2. 4**Six Controlling Instructional Behaviors (Reeve & Jang, 2006)*

6 controlling instructional behaviors

Monopolizing learning materials

The teacher physically held or possessed the puzzle.

Physically exhibiting worked-out solutions and answers before the student had time to work on the problem independently

Puzzle solutions the teacher physically displayed or exhibited before the student had the opportunity to discover the solution for himself or herself.

Directly telling the student a right answer instead of allowing the student time and opportunity to discover it

Statements revealing a puzzle solution before the student had the opportunity to discover it for himself or herself, such as “The cube’s done this way;^alike this.”

Uttering directives and commands

Commands such as do, move, put, turn, or place, such as “Do it like this,” “Flip it over,” or “Put it on its side.”

Introjecting should/go to statements within the flow of instruction

Statements that the student should, must, has to, got to, or ought to do something, such as “You should keep doing that” and “You ought to...”

Using controlling questions as a way of directing the student's work

Directives posed as a question and voiced with the intonation of a question, such as “Can you move it like I showed you?” and “Why don't you go ahead and show me?”

Factors influencing teachers' motivational strategies

Teachers' motivational strategies applied to motivate students were influenced by many factors which have been investigated in previous studies, such as teachers' personal beliefs or perception (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Hornstra et al., 2015; Reeve et al., 2014; X. Yang, 2015), pressures from context (Hornstra et al., 2015; Pelletier et al., 2002; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009), culture (Reeve et al., 2014), teachers' own motivation (Bernaus et al., 2009; Pelletier et al., 2002), educational context (Guilloteaux, 2013; Wang & Vibulphol, 2015a; R. M. Wong, 2014), students' motivational level (Pelletier et al., 2002; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009) and so on. Because the direct relationship between cognition and practice, this study mainly examined teachers' beliefs. And it is unavoidable to assess contextual factors around teachers.

Teachers' beliefs. During the past decades, the research on teachers' education has greatly contributed to the investigation of teacher beliefs, and their understanding of the relationship between teacher beliefs and their practice both in pre-service and in-service teachers' education. The investigation on teachers' cognition are unavoidable in understanding teachers and their teaching. Teachers' cognition and

their thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs are correlated (Phipps & Borg, 2009). A conceptual framework of beliefs systems for research was developed by Nespor (1987) as theoretical ground in cognitive science (Fives & Gill, 2014). Fives and Gill (2014) introduced how Abelson (1979) distinguished belief systems from knowledge systems through seven features: 1) The elements that are distinguished and acquired from personal experience, such as concepts and rules, of a belief system are not consensual; 2) Belief systems are partially interestedly engaged in certain existence or nonexistence of conceptual entities, such as God; 3) The representations of “alternative worlds”, especially the world as it is and the world as it ought to be are included in a belief system; 4) Belief systems greatly depend on evaluative and affective constituents; 5) Belief systems are likely to include a considerable amount of occasional material from either private experience (for cultural belief systems) from folk lore or (for political doctrines) from propaganda; 6) Belief systems usually include undetermined content set; 7) Beliefs can be held with confidence at various levels.

Nespor (1987) defined beliefs systems in two ways—the structure characteristics of beliefs and the function or operation of belief systems. Structures and functions are interrelated. As part of teachers’ cognition, beliefs play roles in classroom practice. How teachers believe in teaching and learning, and what beliefs

teachers held about themselves and their students influence the ways teachers consider and undertake their work (Erkmen, 2012).

However, Fives and Gill (2014) clarified that there was no agreement reached about an explicit definition of “teachers’ beliefs”. Though studies on teachers’ beliefs only define beliefs implicitly in use, there is sufficient consensus about a core of the concept for further research. First, beliefs are a description of individual mental constructs, which are subjectively true for teachers (Turner, Christensen, & Meyer, 2009) and not necessarily consensual. Second, beliefs with cognitive or affective features are stronger than attitudes and emotions. Third, beliefs are “considered temporally and contextually stable reifications” (Fives & Gill, 2014), which probably change with involvement in relevant social practices. Fourth, beliefs are predicted to affect how teachers interpret and deal with the practical issues.

Fives and Gill (2014) also cited the definition of beliefs given by Cross as, in diverse social groups, a person integrated conscious and unconscious ideas and thoughts about him/herself, the world and the developed status of membership, and considered it to be true (2016, p. 326). It is similar to the definition given by Cephe and Yalcin (2015) who indicated that teachers’ beliefs were a set of psychological understandings, suppositions, or proposition about general knowledge of objects, people and events, which were felt to be true. H. Zheng (2009) concluded that belief

“is a subset of a group of constructs that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person’s action”. As mentioned above, teachers’ beliefs are ambiguous in concepts, which can be confusing and add difficulty to studies.

Teachers’ beliefs serve as a guide to thought and behavior and are generally considered a determinant of instructional activity and of student learning. It is important to have knowledge of teachers’ beliefs which facilitate to understand teachers’ thought, instructional practice and approaches. Borg (2003) pointed out that comprehending teachers’ beliefs and the principles behind would help to know teachers’ points of view of their work, the effects of teachers’ beliefs on their behaviors in the classroom, the actual situation in the classroom, the use of updated pedagogical and learning information in teaching practice, and the way to improve teaching practice and professional development. Since teachers might subconsciously hold beliefs related teaching and learning, and they might be unable to tell what they had in their minds or what went on in their minds, uncovering teacher beliefs could help direct teacher education and teachers’ own practice.

Previous research found teachers’ beliefs have a relationship with teachers’ practice. Studies of teachers showed that, during teaching practice, teachers’ beliefs influenced what they said and did in the classroom, and the modification of teachers’

beliefs resulted in changes in their teaching practice (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001; H. Zheng, 2009). For example, Edwards and Li (2011) found that if Chinese EFL teachers who deeply influence by Chinese Confucian culture took a program of teacher development might change their educational philosophy to student-centered. As part of instructional practice, teachers' reported strategies were also impacted by their beliefs.

Though teachers' beliefs affect teaching practice, and a wide range of studies have examined the consistency of classroom practice in relation to stated beliefs (e.g. Muñoz & Ramirez, 2015; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Stipek, Givvin, Salmon, & MacGyvers, 2001; Vibulphol, 2004; X. Yang, 2015), teaching practice were not always in accordance with teachers' beliefs. Phipps and Borg (2009) concluded that teachers' beliefs could exercise a long-term effect on teachers' instructional practice, and teachers' practice in the classroom did not always reflect their beliefs. Borg and Alshumaimeri (2017) indicated that teachers in Saudi Arabia believed that they had increasing students' autonomy as their goal and tried to achieve that, but most of them poorly promoted students' autonomy.

Hornstra et al. (2015) reported that teachers' beliefs about particular motivational strategies colored their preferences for using either autonomy supportive or controlling motivational strategies that were effective in motivating their students.

The same with Turner (2010) who explained that teachers' motivational strategies might be effective or ineffective and at odds with motivational theories. Some teachers believed that "hands-on" activities were more effective than "minds-on" activities in maintaining students' learning, and teachers commonly believed autonomy supportive strategies were less productive than controlling ones.

X. Yang (2015) and Wang and Vibulphol (2015a) found that ESP teachers' beliefs about learners' motivation and teachers' motivational practice in a university in China, and the important motivational strategies among Thai English teachers, separately, were not always in line with each other. Muñoz and Ramirez (2015) also reported that teacher motivating practice did not match their stated beliefs in Latin America. The same results was reported by Hornstra et al. (2015) that teachers who believed in autonomy support had their teaching practice well-agreed with their personal beliefs and preferences, and at the same time, some teachers teaching in controlling style reported a preference of more autonomy-supportive strategies in beliefs.

Investigations of teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies were mostly implemented under the framework established by Dörnyei (2001). Among them, Nolen and Nicholls (1994) assessed teachers' beliefs about the effects of motivational strategies. While Reeve et al. (2014) inspected teachers' beliefs that underlay autonomy-supportive and controlling teaching in a multinational investigation not only

on how effective versus ineffective, but how easy versus difficult, and how normative these instructional behaviors with autonomy supportive or controlling approaches were. The findings revealed that teachers' beliefs on effectiveness, ease and normalcy were consistent with individual predictors, without checking if they were consistent with their teaching practice.

Chinese researchers studied the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom instruction resulting in findings similar to research conducted in other countries. X. Zheng (2004) investigated the effects of teachers' beliefs, and found that their explicit beliefs directed their teaching method, course design and classroom practice without consistency with each other. Lou and Liao (2005) analyzed the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their teaching behaviors among English teachers with the same finding. Xie, Wang, and Ma (2006) and Qin (2007) employed case study to investigate college English teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. The results showed the inconsistency between them and direct influence, individually. It is discernible that teachers' instructional practice is not always consistent with their beliefs (Feng, 2012; Luo, 2016). In addition, the research about English teachers' beliefs in China were mostly among outstanding college or university teachers, little information can be found among senior high school teachers (Luo, 2016). Besides, that research concentrated on the relationships between teachers' beliefs and classroom

practices without explicitly pointing out the kind of practices. On the other hand, the influential factors discussed were mainly about how teachers' beliefs formed and scarcely discussed the factors that cause the inconsistency between beliefs and teaching practices.

Thus, this research mainly investigated EFL teachers' beliefs about students' motivation, discussed the effective motivational strategies and other characteristics in interviews under the specific context.

Contextual factors. Contextual factors refer to factors that exhibit a particular context with unique features to classroom teaching. Two types of contextual factors are normally included: the community where students stay, and the school or classroom environment ("How do I define contextual factors?"). By providing teaching with observing the contextual factors, teachers are able to have students to learn with the utmost potentialities.

Classroom is a context for students' learning and teachers' teaching. Many factors influence the classroom. They could be size of class, student discipline, students' different levels, insufficient English proficiency of students, examination pressure, different programs in a same school, school size, and so on (Apairach & Vibulphol, 2015; Loima & Vibulphol, 2016; X. Yang, 2015).

Contextual factors had a significant impact on the relationship between stated beliefs and practice, and teachers' should consider discrepancies between their beliefs and practice under influential contextual factors (X. Zheng & Borg, 2013). Both classroom interaction and broad institutional setting play determined roles for triggering teachers' beliefs at the instant (Fives & Gill, 2014). They also can constraint what teachers do in their classes. These factors may include heavy workloads, lack of motivation for learning, curriculum mandates, and a shortage of resources. Phipps and Borg (2009) also emphasized that the contextual factors should be counted as part of any analysis of the correlation between teachers' beliefs and classroom practice. They stated that required curriculum, time constraints, and high-stakes tests, as contextual factors negotiated what teachers could act aligned with their beliefs. Differently, X. Yang (2015) found that the tension between teachers' beliefs and practices was due to the contextual factors of class size, time constraint, students ability, evaluation for teachers and examinations.

Various contextual factors played diverse roles in different classrooms. Contextual factors in some classrooms mainly influenced a teacher, while in other classrooms influenced the teacher slightly. It was found to be a necessity to investigate the contextual factors when studying teaching and learning in a classroom.

Thus, researchers came to be more and more focused on contextual factors in regard to student motivation. Recent accounts of motivation and other related psychological constructs have increasingly abandoned the assumption of environmental generalization and regard contextual factors as independent variables in the research paradigms. Dörnyei (2001) especially pointed out that motivational strategies even the most useful ones, were not workable in any situations. It was just suggested that some strategies might be workable with some teacher among some students, or might be workable for now but not for tomorrow. The learners' diversities in terms of their culture, age, proficiency level and relationship to the target language may cause some strategies to be significant, meaningful and useful, while the other strategies to be of no use. "Not every strategy works in every context!" (Dörnyei, 2001)

Deci et al. (1991) indicated that social-contextual influences on motivation that supported learners' being competent, relatedness and autonomous promoted motivated action that support for autonomy in particular according to SDT. To support the learning climate of autonomy supportive or controlling, teachers were pressed to choose different motivational strategies, either autonomy-supportive or controlling. Pelletier et al. (2002) and Pelletier and Sharp (2009) categorized pressures from contextual factors into two groups: "above" and "below". Pelletier et al. (2002) defined pressures from "above" as authorities place limitations on curriculum, have

teachers take charge of their students' performance and push or award them to promote students' involvement, while defined pressure from "below" as students whose motivation, competence, performance and behaviors can affect teacher practice. At that time, teachers will become controlling in the class. As, Pelletier and Vallerand (1996) and Pelletier et al. (2002) advocated, teachers would tend to be controlling in the motivating students when they had to follow the curriculum, the norm among teachers, or the standards for teachers' performance, all of which were deemed as the pressure from "above", and as well as when teachers thought their students lack of self-determination which was the pressure from "below". Hornstra et al. (2015) found that factors from "above" such as national standards, high-stakes testing or the text methods perceivably pressured teachers sometimes without accounting the educational concept in. She also found that teachers who had negative beliefs or opinions about student competent, backgrounds or performance tended to be controlling (See Figure 2.2). Reeve (2009) set a coherent framework in which the distinction between "pressures from above" and "pressures from below" were offered in order to explain why teachers adopt controlling motivating strategies toward students.

Relationship among motivational strategies, beliefs, and contextual factors.

Previous studies research on the relationship among teachers' beliefs, contextual factors and motivational strategies were limited, especially in China.

Reeve et al. (2014) investigated teachers' beliefs underlying motivational styles of instructional behaviors, and cultural influence. Research was done among 815 experienced teachers who taught in public schools from eight nations in Asia, Europe and North America. Through a self-report questionnaire, they found that teachers' beliefs of effectiveness significantly predicted self-reported motivational style and collectivism-individualism could predict that a teacher's tendency to self-reported controlling motivational style. Teachers in collectivism nations believed that controlling was a culturally norm, while their beliefs about autonomy supportive style were unclear.

Vural (2007) investigated on both teachers and students. The research studied from both teacher and student perspective to understand their beliefs about the motivational behaviors EFL teachers displayed without deep investigation in contextual factors by using semi-structured interviews. His research built the conceptual framework based on the motivational strategies framed by Dörnyei (2001). Alshehri (2014) did a similar research in Saudi EFL classroom to examine English teacher and

student opinions on motivational strategies by interviews, and still discussed on the framework built by Dörnyei (2001)

Hornstra et al. (2015) assessed the relationships among teachers' beliefs, motivational strategies, and contextual factors in a different way. They recruited teachers through an innovation level questionnaire to cluster teachers into two groups of motivational styles. Self-reported interviews were conducted among 9 sixth grade teachers at schools where there were varied numbers of students. The results of the study showed that among teachers who believed in and preferred to autonomy supportive style, some used autonomy supportive strategies in the classroom practice, but others performed controlling in practice. The underlying reason of the inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and self-reported strategies were the pressures from contextual factors "above", such as national standards, and "below", such as students' competence or motivation. (See Figure 2.2)

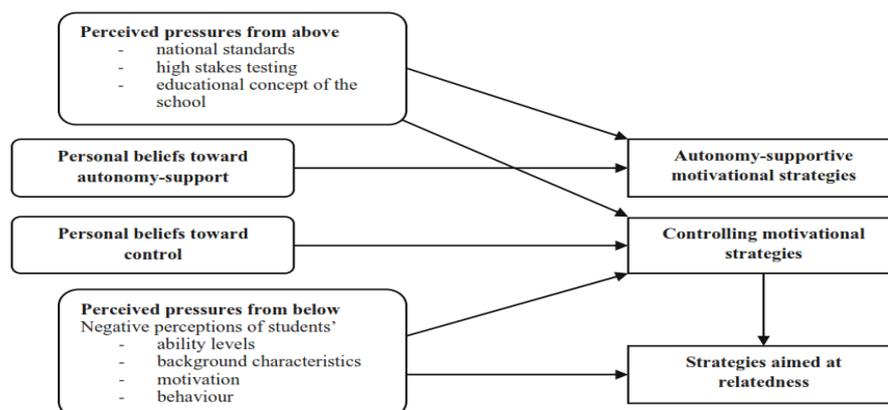


Figure 2. 2 Conceptual Model Showing Underlying Reasons for Autonomy-Supportive and Controlling Motivational Strategies (Hornstra et al., 2015)

Another study was implemented by X. Yang (2015), with the main research question being to uncover what beliefs ESP teachers held about student motivation. It was a case study conducted among three participants. The researcher mainly discussed the relationship between teachers' beliefs and students' motivation, and the influence brought to bear on the teachers' instructional decision-making in adopting motivational strategies. The contextual factors were found to influence teachers' motivational practice covering class size, time pressure, students' expectations, mixed-ability students, and so on. Thus, the relationship among teachers' beliefs, contextual factors, and motivational strategies has not been adequately investigated in China, especially in northwest China. And the investigating methods were self-reported only without classroom observation. Fives and Gill (2014) suggested further research with classroom observation was needed in investigating the teachers' used of specific motivational strategies. Hatch (2002) suggested that observation helped better understanding of the contexts, participants and in-depth understanding data. This study filled these gaps.

Contexts of China

This present study was conducted in Northwest China, and it is necessary to understand the context of China from the aspects of "above" and "below", as well as the inter-relationships among Chinese culture and Chinese students' motivation.

Based on Pelletier and Sharp (2009) and Hornstra et al. (2015), details of contextual factors “above” including educational policies, national English curriculum standards, high-stakes test, school philosophy, and performance evaluations etc. were searched and presented.

Contextual factors “Above”

Contextual factors “above” refers to the factors external to the English classroom which can induce effects on teachers’ classroom instructional behaviors; these include educational policy, national curriculum standards, high-stakes test, school policy and the teacher performance evaluation system.

Educational policy. In 1993, the ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China declared that elementary education had to transform from exam-orientation education to quality-orientation education (NDRC, 1993). The transformation has been in progress for decades. In 2010, *Outline of the National Plan for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development (2010-2020)* was formulated by MOE (2010) illustrating developing education strategically, cultivating people as the most important thing in education, carrying on educational reform and innovation, supporting educational equality written in state policy, and signifying quality-orientation education. It aims to further popularize education, to have everyone receive quality education by different means, and to build up a complete

lifelong learning education system. The specific goals for upper secondary school education is to accelerate the ubiquitousness of upper secondary education, and the promotion of upper secondary students' comprehensive qualities. It also set goals for the reform of the examinations and enrollment system, especially to revamp examination and enrollment at secondary level.

The outline also set development missions for preschool education, compulsory education, vocational education, higher education, and special education. In addition, it had the aims of undertaking educational system reforms at school-running system, education administration system and so on. Guarantee measures were included to promote implementation (MOE, 2010).

National curriculum standards. As the dominant foreign language taught to upper secondary school students in China, English has been a required foreign language subjects for basic education students for many years. Both *the National English Curriculum Standards for General High School (Experimental Version)* (MOE, 2003) (Abb. The Standards) and *the New English Curriculum for Chinese Compulsory* (MOE, 2011) were carried out. The New English Curriculum for Chinese Compulsory issued in 2011 has excluded the requirement for upper secondary school students (Fan, 2013). Thus, the nationwide upper secondary schools follow the curriculum standards announced in 2003. The Standards indicated that English education in China did not match the

needs for economy construction and social development, and was not in synch with the transformation of the outdated tendency of overvaluing teaching grammar and vocabulary in the development of students' comprehensive English language capacities. The Standards also aims to promote students in their learning, motivation, attitudes, skills, abilities, awareness and autonomy through the English learning process.

The Standards 2003 adopted the international practice. As illustrated in Appendix L, general objectives are marked at nine different ability levels. It requires that students should start their English learning from the third grade and achieve the first Level. At the end of primary school, students could meet the requirements of the second Level. Level 3 to Level 5 should be achieved in lower secondary school. The upper secondary school students should graduate in Level 8. In Grade 10, the first year of upper secondary period, the students should meet the Level 6 at the minimum.

The overall description for Level 6 indicated that students can:

- a) further increase their English learning motivation and learning autonomy;
- b) catch up the meanings in oral and written materials and express own ideas;
- c) effectively speak out or write down particular experience;
- d) involve in all aspects of learning activities;
- e) initiatively explore learning resources and access information through multiple channels;

f) change their own English learning objectives and strategies with self-evaluation;

g) comprehend pragmatics in the cultural context.

The Standards gave some teaching suggestions in class design, classroom atmosphere creation, teaching methods, assessment and so on. It also suggested that the local schools could adjust the standards according to the local condition and needs. It is clear that The Standards has encouraged teachers to facilitate students' learning and pushed teachers to try their best to help develop students' motivation and autonomy in Grade 10, as there were comprehensive requirements of students' English abilities established.

In 2016, the ministry of education advocated a new concept for subjects as Key Competences (SCIO, 2016). For English subjects, Key Competences consisted of linguistic competence, cultural character, thinking quality and learning capacity. Key competences required teachers to cultivate students' passion, wide vision and capacity of cross-cultural communication, which was more updated and conformed to the trends of the times. All EFL teachers in the selected school were introduced in a workshop as to the concepts and how to achieve them in the classroom. They were encouraged to focus on not only the language, but also on the students. They have been advised to facilitate students to learn by themselves. Teachers were encouraged

to design classes based on searching more, and thinking more about one lesson. It should be mentioned that, preceding this research report, the latest *National English Curriculum Standards for General High School (2017)* (MOE, 2018) had been published in January 2018. The Key Competences have been embedded into the latest curriculum. Teachers will start a new round of learning to understand the latest standards and implement the concepts into practice.

Although there were uniform standards set for English teaching throughout China, the text books which are designed on the basis of The Standards were not yet unified for national use (Xue, 2011). Xue (2011) compared two types of text books designed according to the National curriculum stands. One was *Senior English for China* published by Peoples' Education Press, and one was *New Standard English* published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. The text book used in the school was *Senior English for China* published in 2003 which included 11 books for the three-year or four-year senior high schools. Grade 10 students were expected to finish two books in their first semester. Each book consisted of five units of learning content and workbook. Each unit included warming up, pre-reading, reading, comprehension, learning about language, using language, summing up and more than 30 new vocabulary words. Since the new curriculum standards have been published, the new textbooks are in the process of being applied.

High-stakes test. For upper secondary school students, everyone must take the academic proficiency test of the province, which has become a key reference for National College Entrance Examination (NCEE). But the nature of the test has culturally come to be equated with graduation from senior high school. The academic proficiency test was designed locally based on the text books, and teachers need to help students graduate from upper secondary school.

Another test, very high-stakes test, is NCEE—Gao Kao. As one key subject out of three, English has been valued for decades. No matter whether students like it or not, the same as with Chinese and mathematics, they have to study it and try to get high scores (Zhang, 2016). Teachers, as well, had to think more about how to help students improve students' scores in NCEE.

Over the years, a new policy of English examination was implemented. The weight of English in NCEE has been decreased (Education Proposal, 2017, No. 307). Students could take the English language test two times a year and the highest score would be counted into the NCEE result, which has started to be carried out in some cities like Beijing, Tianjin (MOE, 2017). It seemed that English became less important than before. But actually, English scores became more flexible and competitive. The students had two strategies to face this situation. One way, students especially boys who were not good at English would quit learning English after taking one or two tests,

to get a relatively satisfactory score. They would then spend more time learning other subjects like mathematics or chemistry. They would care less about what teacher taught in the English classroom, and moreover, the strategies teachers used to motivate them. Another approach: students who were good at English would test as many times as they could to get the highest possible score. Of course, there will be some students striving for higher scores in this way, although they did not study well in English. Whatever happens, it seems difficult for teachers to motivate students without fighting for high marks. Just as Yu, Chen, Levesque-Bristol, and Vansteenkiste (2016) addressed, Gao Kao failed to support students' psychological needs that were the basis of intrinsic learning motivation. Kirkpatrick and Zang (2011) has found that NCEE negatively affected students' innovation and sense of self. They suggested the schools pay less attention to the NCEE and more attention to students' motivation and growth. The same as Yu et al. (2018), they found NCEE thwarted students' needs and development. The suggestions for sustained change in educational reform were given.

The school philosophy. The school has been attempting to raise overall educational quality, as indicated in the school's mission statement: instilling morals first, education-oriented, educating and upgrading all students. Thus, the school attaches importance to extra-curricular activities. For example, the school has two

basketball teams who have been champions in that area for many years. The school set up a literature society and started to produce a school magazine, “Qi Shan YU”. The Calligraphy and Painting society organizes activities throughout the year. There is a calligraphy and painting exhibition every year. There is a photographic society and a philatelic society on school campus as well. All these help promote the development of the school culture.

On the other hand, the school never goes easy with students’ learning and strives for high admission rates to the university, as implied in the school introduction on official website (“Introduction to Yu Zhong NO.1 Secondary School,” 2017). The school is centralized and aims at extrinsic rewards towards for both teachers and students. For example, the school offers extra rewards, like bonuses, for teachers whose students get the highest NCEE scores or NCEE rates after each year NCEE. The teacher who has lower scores or rates has no extra bonus. Students would be criticized or punished when they broke the school rules. More information about the school is introduced in Chapter 3.

The teacher performance evaluation. The school was in one region in Northwest China, thus the basic information of the school was introduced in Chapter 3 as part of the introduction of the case.

Thereafter, the teacher performance evaluation system set by the school was mainly introduced. The teacher performances were mainly assessed by “contribution value”. All the teachers, including English subject teachers, were evaluated in the system. The school manager would calculate the weight of each subject in the total score of one student to see whether the teacher finished the assigned quota or not. The calculation was done after each monthly test, which was taken by every Grade. The students’ ranks in their own Grade were written on the ranking lists which were stuck in their classrooms to remind the students at what levels they were. All teachers of one grade needed to join in a teaching quality analysis meeting after the monthly test. They were told the results of the test and analyzed for how to improve their teaching, especially to improve students’ scores in the meeting. The principle would closely follow teachers whose class scores were low. Teachers from other subjects might therefore exert pressures on each other because of the need to finish their own quota and to be outstanding in the evaluation, which induced a competition for taking up students’ time in learning.

Contextual factors “Below”. The contextual factors “below” refers to the students in the classroom. Teachers’ instructional behaviors to motivate students would be influenced by the students. Hereafter, students’ academic background and family background are introduced.

Academic background. The Academic level of the Grade 10 students were acknowledged from the results of the school entrance examination and the first monthly test.

The full mark of English examination in the upper secondary school entrance examinations is 150. The mean score of sixteen classes of Grade 10 was 100. 78. Normally, the pass standard is set by 60% of the full mark, namely 90, in the English examination. The mean scores of the classes were all past 90. The mean score of all classes was 100. 78, which was a slightly higher than the pass score.

The full mark of the first monthly English test was 120. By using the same pass standard—60%, the pass score should be 72. The English mean score of Grade 10 was 62. 27, which was lower than the pass score. The students' performance in the first monthly test was worse than that of the entrance examination. Only two key classes' mean scores passed the standard. The students' academic level of Grade 10 was not high.

Family background. Students' backgrounds were various. There were students from small villages, as well as students from capital cities. There were students who lived near the poverty line, alongside students with a very high standard of living. Some students worked hard to pass the examinations of the school, some students took priority and paid money to study there. Some had started learning

English since kindergarten, while others had just started learning English from secondary school. Such a varied student-body created a difficult context for teachers to fulfill their duties.

An administrator of the school explained that most of the students came from rural areas, while good students in key classes had more students from urban ones. 40 students in Class 3, and 50 students in Class 4 and 5 were sponsored by three institutions separately. The sponsored students were from single-parent families, no-parent families or poverty level families with a better overall academic performance in the entrance examination. They were required to maintain their academic performance and behave well in the school. The sponsors did not take part in school management, but periodically inquired as to the students' performance in the school.

In summary, the factors experienced by teachers included the national standards, school educational conceptual ideals, high-stakes tests, and the students in the classroom.

Chinese culture and students' motivation. According to SDT, autonomy was a universal need (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Many studies had proved that autonomy was found among students in China (Vansteenkiste, Zhou, Lens, & Soenens, 2005; M. Zhou et al., 2009). Early in 1990, Christophel (1990) had pointed that the findings of level of various Chinese motives directly reflected the collectivist or group-oriented tradition.

Christophel (1990) concluded that Chinese had high levels of needs for compliance and acceptance of punishment, socially oriented success, change, endurance, nurturing, and order; moderate needs of autonomy, respect and politeness, dominance, and helpfulness to others in need; and low levels of individually oriented achievement, affiliation, aggression, exhibition, heterosexuality, and power. However, the levels of autonomy, exhibition, and heterosexuality were increasing, and at the same time, the levels of deference, order, nurturing and endurance were decreasing with continuing rapid social change. Vansteenkiste et al. (2005) have indicated that Chinese students' autonomy positively predicted their learning outcomes, success, and well-being. In addition, they found that parental autonomy supportive was related to more adaptive learning. Besides, Y. Yang (2012) found that Chinese middle school students' motivation was from their intrinsic interests, personal development, external pressure, and achievement, which was influenced by relationship, teacher competence and personality.

On the other side, N. Zhou, Lam, and Chan (2012) indicated that Chinese people who highly valued filial piety, hard work, and education were influenced by Confucianism. Confucianism is a religion and philosophical tradition of Chinese dating back 2500 years (Adler, 2011). The cultural norm to show loyalty and obedience toward authority figures such as parents and teachers has existed for thousands of

years in China. Deeply influenced by Confucianism, it is expected that Chinese students would accept and follow the teachers' and parents' demands. Chinese students would not believe their teachers are controlling on them, when they have combined their own autonomy with teachers' external regulations. They were found to better accept teachers' beliefs and values when they have a better relationship with their teachers. Additionally, Yu et al. (2018) pointed out that Chinese traditional nationwide examination potentially made Chinese believed that scores determined the destiny, especially for the rural students. Teachers' behaviors that seemed relatively controlling may not be negatively experienced by students who have internalized their teachers' values and beliefs, which was early found by Bao and Lam (2008).

Bao and Lam (2008) investigated how autonomy, choice and socioemotional relatedness relate to motivation among Chinese children. It was found that if children had close socioemotional relationship with the adults who made choices for them, the freedom of choice took less effects on students' motivation, but the autonomy played role in students' motivation no matter what levels of the socioemotional relationship. Thus, Bao and Lam (2008) concluded that socioemotional relatedness could internalize children's motivation and children could become autonomous without freedom of choice. They therefore suggested that Chinese teachers, besides offering freedom of choice, should indispensably enhance relatedness with children.

In addition, Ma and Ma (2012) reported that Chinese students' autonomy and motivation were linked and mutually reinforced each other in language learning by developing a negotiated syllabus. They suggested that teachers should provide students choices to make decision for their own learning. However, in the research conducted by Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) at Hong Kong university, students held a belief that teacher was the dominant figure. The students held the teacher more responsibility for language learning, although they were generally able to make decisions themselves. It meant that students had fair motivation but less willingness to make autonomous decision themselves. They preferred to shift the responsibilities for the learning activities to their teachers. Chan et al. (2002) therefore presumed that students had expectations of the teacher's responsibilities, professional knowledge and expertise, and students had insufficient support from their teachers to learn autonomously. Thus, both Jun (2016) and M. Zhou et al. (2009) suggested Chinese teachers continue professional development and be more autonomous in the classroom teaching.

Overall, in the context of China, culture is an intrinsic and unavoidable factor on analyzing students' autonomy and motivation, as well as the teacher's role in the classroom.

Summary

In summary, the literature review of this present study provided information about how motivation, especially intrinsic motivation, plays a key role in students' learning. Teachers can motivate students, based on SDT, through the use of autonomy supportive and controlling motivational strategies. Autonomy supportive motivational strategies benefit students' intrinsic motivation, while controlling motivational strategies are detrimental to students' internalized motivation. It is suggested to provide students with volition in their process of learning. On the other hand, the literature review also explored the factors that could influence teachers' motivational strategies, especially from the aspects of teachers' beliefs and contextual factors that bring pressure from "above" and "below".

Overall, the conceptual framework was developed based on the literature review. The present study investigated the phenomenon of the influence from teachers' beliefs and contextual factors on teachers' motivational strategies of a case in a collectivism country to observe their motivational strategies used in the reality, to elicit their beliefs about motivational strategies and influential contextual factors. The findings would help better understanding the relationship among teachers' motivational strategies, beliefs and contextual factors in the context of China.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study aimed at investigating EFL teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies and strategies used in the classroom in Gansu, China, and researching the contextual factors that influenced teachers' motivational strategies. This chapter presents detailed information about the research design, participants, research instruments, data collection and data analysis.

Research design

This present research is a case study conducted in Northwest China which aimed at gaining a deep understanding of the phenomenon of Chinese EFL teachers' motivational practices and how their beliefs and contextual factors may influence their practices. To explore this phenomenon, two data collection methods including classroom observation and semi-structured interview were conducted. In addition, documentary information about the context was collected in detail when the participants brought it up in the interviews. To uncover the motivational strategies used in the classroom, the data were mainly sourced from classroom observation, with the interview data as supplementary information. To uncover teachers' beliefs and the

influential contextual factors, the interview data were used as the main source. The analysis results of each participant were integrated to answer the research questions.

Participants

The participants were English teachers in one upper secondary school in one region of Northwest China. After gaining the permission from the school principal to conduct this study, each teacher was approached individually through a group chat of social media to help predict teachers' willingness of participation. The participants were non-native English speakers having more than 5 years teaching experience in Grade 10.

The English teachers who taught Grade 10 and had more than five years of teaching at the school would have their familiarity of the school and the undertaking of national or local English educational policies. They were then asked to complete a questionnaire (See Appendix A) to identify their motivational strategies in beliefs which can guarantee that there were two styles of participants in the study. It should be noted that the results identified by questionnaire were never used as data for analysis. To avoid cultural bias, three experts of Chinese EFL teachers were invited to validate that the questionnaire was congruent with Chinese culture (See Appendix B) before distributing to the participants. Finally, seven teachers were approached to participate

in the study. However, during the actual period of the study, only six teachers were able to be observed and interviewed.

The six teachers were provided with the information sheets and the consent forms (See Appendices C and D) written in English. The information sheet introduced the purpose of the study, the rights of the participants in the study, the benefits to the participants from the study, the use of the data and other related issues. The teachers were given time to read the information on the sheets and ask questions about the research to decide whether to participate in the study or not. The observation time was discussed with each teacher afterwards. To keep the confidentiality of the participants and protect the teachers' personal information, the pseudonyms were given according to one of the positive characters of each teacher. For example, both Hui (慧) and Ling (灵) were used to refer to a teacher who impressed me with their intelligence. Hao (好) was commonly used to describe a kind and considerable teacher. Rui (睿) represented a teacher who was very sagacious. The information of the six participants were listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3. 1

Profile of Participants

Teachers	Gender	Teaching Experience in the selected school
Hui	Female	9 years
Ling	Female	10 years

Teachers	Gender	Teaching Experience in the selected school
Xian	Female	13 years
Hao	Male	18 years
Rui	Male	21 years
Wan	Female	17 years

During the observations, the students in some classes were aware of the observation purposes. Two teachers introduced me to the students before or in the first observed class to explain why I was there. In the other classes, the four teachers did not tell the students about the purpose of the observation. I therefore pretended to a pre-service teacher observing the classes, which was common to the students. I quietly sat at the back of the classroom without intruding upon the class activities.

The Status quo of the school

To better understand the context of the case, I will introduce the school with more specific information in regard to the school.

The school was set up in 1943, utilizing the management model of combining humanism with science. Since 1996, the teaching quality of the school has shown a tendency of “leapfrog development”. The rate of students who meet the admission standard of the national college entrance examination has increased from 25% in 1995 to 91% in 2004. More than six thousands of students therefrom were admitted to universities by 2017. The school undertakes the mission of “立德为先·育人为本·高

进优出·低进高出” (instilling morals first, education oriented, educating and upgrading all the students), while the vision of the school is “以人为本 (people oriented), 主动发展 (developing with initiative), 求真务实 (holding truth-seeking spirit), 追求卓越 (pursuing excellence)”. It was evaluated as the key demonstrating school of that province in 2004.

Entering the campus, the first thing that comes to view is the stone inscription bearing the school motto. It was built by the latest leadership to express their determination to carry on the concept of “competing for the first (争先·争先!)”, a theme written into the school anthem by its first principal, in writing a new chapter for the school. The latest leadership of the school is determined to make an effort to develop school spirit, and improve the teaching and academic atmosphere.

The school operates six days a week from Monday to Saturday. Classes start from 7:00 a.m. to 17:45 p.m. including one period of morning class, seven periods of ordinary classes, one period for free activity, and two-hour lunch break. The evening classes start from 7:15 p.m. to 10 p.m. per day. Saturday classes end earlier, without evening classes. Both morning and evening classes can be extra classes or self-study hours when students are required to attend. If some event occupies the work day, the school might make up classes on Sunday, which happened during the data collection

process. Students are not allowed to bring mobile phones onto the campus. If caught violating this rule, they are criticized.

During the time of this study, there were 60 classes and about 4200 students in total in the school. The class size was large with 65 to 78 students in a classroom. In each grade, the classes were categorized into three types: top classes, key classes and ordinary classes based on the students' comprehensive entrance examination scores. Grade 10, for instance, included two top classes, three key classes and eleven ordinary classes. Top class students had highest school entrance examination scores, and key classes came second. The other students were randomly assigned to the rest of the ordinary classrooms. The size of the top classes and key classes were a bit bigger than the ordinary classes. In each top and key class, there were about 78 students.

Each teacher taught 2 classes in Grade 10, except Hui who taught three classes at that time. Hao, the leader of English subject of Grade 10, taught in top classes, and was responsible for some administrative work related to English subject of Grade 10, like checking students' English notes, or checking English teachers' lesson plans etc. Rui, the ex-leader of the whole English section of the school, taught English in key classes. He is responsible for some school administrative work as an administrator. He is also responsible for operating a famous teacher studio which was set up under his name to help English teachers' development in that area and to achieve the goals of

sharing resources and improving English teaching. Hui and Ling are both the members of the studio. Most of teachers were interested in participating in this study. Xian and Wan expressed their strong interests in the research results. All teachers expressed their wish of improving their teaching and inquiring of the opinions of their classes.

Research Instruments

This research employed two research instruments including classroom observation and semi-structured interview. Classroom observation was used to identify teachers' motivational strategies in practice and semi-structured interviews were used to examine the teachers' beliefs and contextual factors that they experienced.

Classroom observations. Non-participation classroom observations were used to investigate the teachers' use of specific motivational strategies. Since observations permit in-depth understanding of the context (Hatch, 2002). Each teacher was observed in their English classes five times, one period each. During the observations, I sat at the back of the classroom and did not try to interrupt any class instruction or activities without an observation form. I just wrote down notes such as the description of the setting, the teachers and students' interactions, the activities, direct quotations or at least the substance of what people said, and my own comments. The classroom interactions were also audio recorded to help add details after each observation.

During the process of expanding the field notes, an initial analysis was conducted to prepare for the post-observation interviews.

In order to be able to conduct classroom observation properly, I was trained to take observational notes and field analysis notes by an expert for three weeks.

Since all data were collected from my own observation, and interpreted through my perception, my point of view might influence the interpretation of teachers' instructional behaviors. Thus, before starting the process of collecting the data, I reflected my own beliefs about motivation in English teaching as follows: I think motivation is very important in English language learning and teaching. Teachers are important in motivating students. I believe that English learning should be armed with interests and a sense of achievement. As a teacher, designing interesting activities could motivate students internally. But sometimes, I might use competition or non-contingent rewards to involve them in the classroom learning. I would love to facilitate students to learn and give them more time and chances to speak the language.

Among the six teachers, I had a personal acquaintance with some of them before the study, and had observed one or two times in some teachers' classrooms. However, I did not think that what I observed 15 years ago could create any bias to my interpretation of the data collected in the present study.

Semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with each participant in two steps: after each classroom observation and at the end of all five observations with each teacher. The post-observation interviews were used to help uncover teachers' beliefs about specific strategies. The final interview questions were used to gain understandings of the teachers' beliefs and contextual factors in general. All interviews were audio recorded for further transcribing and coding. The interview questions were asked in English, but to reduce teachers' hesitation or anxiety, the interviewees were given options to respond either in Chinese or English. Each post-observation interview took around 20 minutes and each final interview took around one hour.

Both the post-observation interview and final interview consisted of three phases: opening, main questions and closing. At the beginning of the interview, one or two opening questions about the participant or the participant's general experience of the day were asked to break the ice and make the participants feel relaxed. The main questions were designed to answer the research questions. Main questions in both sets were mainly adapted from Hornstra et al. (2015), Vural (2007) and Alshehri (2014). Comparing the three sets of questions in three studies, the questions that addressed the present study research questions were chosen and rearranged. The closing

questions were asked to indicate that the interview has come to the end. Table 3.2 shows sample questions used as the opening and closing questions.

Table 3. 2

Examples of Opening and Closing Questions

Set	Opening Questions	Closing questions
Post-observation Interview	Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. I have scheduled for about half an hour for this interview. Does this still work for you? Anything exciting today?	Thank you for sharing your experience. Do you have more comments concerning to the class today? What did you feel was the most interesting thing we interviewed these days?
Final interview	Today is our final interview. First of all, thank you very much for allowing me to observe all your classes and discuss with you about your lessons. How do you feel about being observed and interviewed?	Thank you for your time, collaboration, and share. Before we end, is there anything else that you would like to add regarding the student' motivation and your use of motivational strategies?

For post-observation interviews, the questions were designed to help the teachers recall the specific motivational strategies they used in the classroom and the reasons for using those strategies. Additionally, they were encouraged to think of what else they could do in the same situation and the reasons for not using them in that lesson. The questions were adapted from Hornstra et al. (2015), Alshehri (2014) and Vural (2007). The adaption included changes in terms such as motivation and motivating to be more concrete like involve, engage, participate or interest. Table 3.3 shows the adapted questions, original questions and the goals of adaption.

Table 3. 3

Post-Observation Questions

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
1. How was the class today?		To give a general evaluation to that observed class
2. Please describe how the students involved/ participated in your class today?	Alshehri (2014) (Can you describe your students' motivation in the English language classrooms?) Hornstra et al. (2015) (Please describe a student	To recall students' participation in the classroom concerning to students' motivation

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
	who you feel actively participated in class/ who is difficult to be involved?)	
3. What did you do to keep the students' attention in the lesson?	Hornstra et al. (2015) (How do you try to keep this student motivated?) Alshehri (2014) (Tell me about a motivated classroom, what do you do to keep them motivated? Now tell me a demotivated classroom, what do you do to encourage students' motivation?)	To elicit teachers' motivational strategies that she/he used in the classroom that day.
4. Why did you _____? (This question will be based on the responses to Question No.3.)	Hornstra et al. (2015) (What are reasons for you to use this approach?)	To elicit the possible influential factors

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
5. How often do you _____? Why? (This question will be based on the responses to Question No. 3.)	Hornstra et al. (2015) (How often do students <u>work together</u> ?)	To help reveal teachers' beliefs
6. Is there any other method/ strategy that you use in the same situation?	Vural (2007) (Is there anything else you could think of to motivate students to learn in a classroom? What would your ideal classroom be like?)	To give teacher more chance to think about the motivational strategies that were possibly used in the same situation.
7. Why didn't you use _____ in this lesson? (This question will be based on the responses to Question No.4 and No. 6.)	Hornstra et al. (2015) [Do you do this in your class? Why (not)?]	To elicit possible influential factors

For the final interview, the questions were developed to explore more about teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies and contextual factors as a whole (See Table 3.4).

Table 3. 4

Final Interview Questions

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
1. What do you think the motivation of the students is in general?	Hornstra et al. (2015) (What do you think is motivating to students?)	To elicit teachers' beliefs in depth about students' motivation
2. How would you describe students' motivation in your class?	Alshehri (2014) (How can you describe your students' motivation in the English language classrooms?) Hornstra et al. (2015) (Can you describe a student who you feel is very motivated/ who is difficult to motivate?)	To inquire the students' motivation level from teachers' perspective
3. How important is it for the teachers to do something to promote	Alshehri (2014) (Do you think it is important to use motivational strategies to	To investigate the importance of

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
students' motivation during the lesson? Why?	develop students' motivation?) Vural (2007) (To what extent is it teachers' job to make students interested in learning a foreign language?)	motivation in teachers' beliefs
4. What are strategies that you think can motivate students?	Hornstra et al. (2015) (What are strategies do you believe motivate your class?) Vural (2007) (What do you think teachers could do to help students become more motivated in a language classroom?) Alshehri (2014) (In your opinion what is the motivational strategies that should be used in language classroom?)	To find teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies in general

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
5. Do you use those strategies in your classroom? Why (Why not)?	Hornstra et al. (2015) [Do you do this in your class? Why (not)?]	To find influential factors in general
6. According to observations and interviews, the following strategies were used in your lessons. Can you confirm again with whether my note is correct? (Show a list of strategies that the participant used or reported using).	Hornstra et al. (2015) (According to the vignettes about specific motivational strategies, teachers were interviewed)	The motivational strategies used in classroom practice or reported by participant were listed to verify
6.1 Why did you use these strategies?	Hornstra et al. (2015) (What are reasons for you to use this approach?)	To elicit influential factors and teachers' beliefs.

Questions	Original Questions	Goals
6.2 How do your students respond to these strategies?	Hornstra et al. (2015) (How do your students respond?)	To elicit students' respond to teachers' strategies
6.3 How do these affect students' motivation?	Hornstra et al. (2015) (How does <u>working together</u> affect their motivation?) Vural (2007) (Do you think teachers' motivational behaviors affect students' level of motivation? How?)	To elicit what level of students' motivation changed
6.4 Which strategy is the most important and effective motivational strategies? Why?	Alshehri (2014) (What do you think are the most important motivational strategies, especially in the context of Saudi Arabia?)	To elicit teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies

Probing questions about specific factors “above” or “below” around the theme of the pressures mentioned by participants to explain the reasons that the teachers experience from context, like state standards, educational policies, school administrators, colleagues, and students etc. were specifically asked.

All the interview questions were checked by three university instructors for their trustworthiness. One expert is in the field of language acquisition and two experts are in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). The experts were asked to evaluate whether the two-set interview questions could be used to find the answers to the research questions. The evaluation form used three-rating scale to indicate the experts' opinions towards each item as follows:

1	means	the item is applicable
0	means	the item is questionable
-1	means	the item is inapplicable

The items obtaining scores higher than 0.50 were considered as applicable and could be used in the study. In contrast, the items obtaining the scores lower than 0.05 must be revised. The scores from the three experts were calculated using the following formula.

$$IOC = R / N$$

IOC	means	the index of congruence
R	means	total score from the experts' opinion
N	means	the number of experts

The results showed that all questions in both sets of interviews were applicable with three scores of 0.89 and 0.85 for the post-observation and final interview questions

respectively (See Appendices E and F). Nevertheless, the experts provided additional comments concerning grammar, word choice and sequence of questions, and adding questions for teachers to reflect and deepen understanding. The final interview questions after adjusting is presented in Appendix G.

Before officially starting the research process, all interview questions were piloted with two EFL teachers who taught in the same school in different Grades. The pilot study was mainly focused on probing questions and the differences of teachers' answers between in Chinese and in English. It was the gist that the probing questions should be asked more precisely and arranged around the research objectives. The pilot participants expressed that they might feel free more to express their ideas in native language. With the consideration that some teachers might be circumspect or diffident in answering the questions in English and some teachers would like to use English as they were EFL teachers, the options for teachers to use either English or Chinese to answer the questions were given to support their expression fully. The experiences in interviewing to prevent any ethical problems that might occur during the interviews were also gained. Finally, two teachers, Xian and Rui used English throughout the process, while Hao and Wan answered in Chinese. Hui used Chinese to answer the post-observation interviews, but used English in final interview. Ling used Chinese most of time, but used English as well. By using English, teachers gave their answers

more directly to the questions, while teachers would like to share more about their own feelings or complaints which were easily expressed in native language.

All the interview data were transcribed with asking a colleague to examine its consistency. Teachers were granted the right to state their opinion either in Chinese or English, the transcriptions were in Chinese and English. Then, the Chinese parts were translated into English by me and a full set of translated transcriptions were sent to the participants for verification.

Data collection

The data collection process started in November, 2017 and lasted for five weeks. After getting permission from the school and consent forms were signed by all participants, the observation and interview schedules were negotiated with each teacher.

However, the actual data collection time was adjusted from the original plan because of activities, the pace of teaching, the teachers' other responsibilities and personal reasons upset the plan. The whole plan had to be adjusted according to the actual conditions (See Appendix H). For two teachers, the observations were conducted in two classes instead of one. During the observation, field notes (See an example in Appendix I) were taken. Then after each observation, the field notes were expanded with the assistance of audio recording and roughly analyzed (See an

example in Appendix J). This preliminary analysis helped identify the motivational strategies used in that given observed class and scope the post-observation interview.

The post-observation interviews were conducted mostly within the same day of the observation to ensure that the teachers would be able to recall what they did in the classroom. The interviews were conducted either in the office of a given teacher or an empty classroom where the teacher felt free to express their opinions. An audio recorder was put on the table to record the interview.

The final interviews were conducted in negotiated time with each teacher in the last post-observation interviews. As with the post-observation interview, the final interviews were conducted in the office of a teacher or an empty classroom.

In addition, the documentary information about the factors “above” mentioned as related to the teachers’ motivational strategies by the interviewees, was collected through an official website, like the website of Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China, where the official educational information was announced. The school administrator Rui was the main resource to get the detailed information about the school and the students. As described in the participants section. Rui was a school administrator and familiar with school policies, administration, and activities. He also provided the information of students’ academic performance and background. As

an ex-English section leader and leader of the aforementioned teacher studio, he was familiar with the change of English development in China as well.

All collected data were labeled and well-managed. The observational field notes were labeled with dates of observation, class number, and time at the top. The interview records and transcripts were labeled with dates and placed in folders named according to the day of the week. Before leaving school, all the teacher contacts were established for future reference. After collecting data from all participants, it was thoroughly and comprehensively analyzed.

Data analysis

Data analysis was conducted in three stages during and after the process of data collection. First, the observation data were preliminarily analyzed before each post-observation interview. Second, another preliminary analysis of five-time class observations and post-observation interviews were conducted for the final interview. Lastly, all collected data were analyzed or re-analyzed to answer each research question. The coding method was mainly used to analyze the data from the observations and the interviews. Following the process suggested by Saldaña (2014), the whole coding processes inductively started from finding codes, forming patterns or categories, and building themes. Hereafter, the data analysis procedures were explained to answer each research question.

Analysis of field notes for classroom observation. After each classroom observation, the expanded field note was preliminarily analyzed to determine the instructional behaviors used in that classroom. To begin, I carefully examined the field note to recall the complete context and expanded my field note right after the observation with my interpretation. Secondly, the codes were marked by reading expanded field notes line by line to indicate teachers' instructional behaviors, which were purposively picked out for inquiry in the post-observation. Third, the instructional behaviors that motivated students with the same functions were clustered into categories during the third stage of data analysis. At last, the categories that seemed to go in tandem with the similar feature were grouped to construct themes referring to the definitions of autonomy supportive and controlling strategies. An example of the coding process is demonstrated in Appendix K.

The initial findings of some specific instructional behaviors were discussed with the teachers in the post-observation interviews. The findings of all motivational instructional behaviors were confirmed with each teacher in final interviews to check the observation results. Besides, the coding process was repeatedly conducted to identify the consistency of the codes, categories and themes, to augment the trustworthiness of the findings.

Analysis of semi-structured interviews. As for the semi-structured interviews, all data were audio recorded and then transcribed into scripts (See an example in Appendix L). My colleague helped check the accuracy of the transcripts.

The post- observation interview data were first roughly analyzed at the second stage through line by line coding. Second, the codes of inquiring about specific instructional behaviors and the codes of factors that the teachers mentioned were clustered separately, which were collected in the final interviews.

During the last stage of analysis, the data of post-observation interviews and final interviews were concurrently coded and re-coded line by line. All the codes were categorized according to the similar characteristics. Finally, all the categories were clustered into the themes of self-reported motivational strategies, beliefs and contextual factors. The examples of coding interview data were illustrated in Appendix M. Both post-observation interview and final interview transcripts were checked to confirm the teachers' answers. The trustworthiness of the results was protected through repeated reading of the content and refinement of the categories, as well as by sending the findings to participants for confirmation. No disagreement were reported by participants.

After analysis, the results for answering the research questions were listed in the tables below.

Table 3. 5

Categories and Instructional Behaviors of Observation Data and Post-Observation Interview for Research Question 1.

Categories	Instructional behaviors
1 Exercising teachers' authority	Picking students directly; Monitoring students, directives; Commands and prescriptive
2 Relying upon incentives	Using punishment as external sources; Introducing incentives, praising
3 Evoking tense feeling	Competition; Criticizing; Rush students
4 Telling answers directly	Giving answers without leaving time for students to think
5 Enhancing students' understanding	Informing learning objectives; Decreasing learning difficulty; Helping students to review learnt content
6 Arousing students' interests	Relating the lesson to real life, examples
7 Asking thought-provoking questions	Asking optimal challenging questions to involve students thinking
8 Leaving time for students to work independently	Allowing students to work with at own pace
9 Providing encouragement	Encouraging student to try or to take risk

As shown in Table 3.5, ten categories of motivational strategies were finally concluded for answering research questions 1. Strategies from No.1 to 4 are strategies in autonomy controlling style, while the others are in autonomy supportive style. Following some categories, a few specific instructional behaviors were found. Teachers' interview transcripts were used as supplementary information to facilitate understanding. Besides the motivational strategies, in order to find teachers' classroom practice in either autonomy supportive style or autonomy controlling style, a table (in Chapter 4) was used to find the teachers' trends of using specific strategies, in which an overall image of using motivational strategies by the teachers was shown. Since this study was to find the teachers' trends of using motivational strategies, the strategies observed one time were not included in the findings to answer the first research question.

Table 3. 6

Samples, Codes and Categories of Interview Data for Research Question 2

Samples	Codes	Categories
1 -“Motivation is the top one issue.” -“The motivation in the class decides the effectiveness.”	Motivation is important	Importance of motivation in English teaching and learning
2 -“I think 70% of my students have motivation.”	High	Students' motivation levels

Samples	Codes	Categories
-“Students’ motivation is normal.”	Moderate	
-“I felt that most of them like English. Students are eager to learn English to know about English countries. Some of them learn for entering the university. They are forced to learn.”	Varied	
-“Students dislike English, even hate English.”	Low	
3 Interesting activities, good relationships, simplify difficulties, scores, controlling methods, involving students in learning.	The direct answer for the effective and important motivational strategies.	The most effective motivational strategies

Table 3.6 illustrated the sample excerpts for codes which were concluded to reveal the teachers’ beliefs through identifying the importance of motivation in English teaching and learning, the levels of the students’ motivation, and the most effective motivational strategies, which answered research question 2. A table shown in Chapter 4 was created to help summarize the information and indicate the overall trend.

Table 3. 7

Codes and Categories of Interview Data for Research Question 3

	Codes	Categories
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -National Curriculum Standards -High-stakes test (NCEE) -The school (School policy, Teacher performance evaluation system, Large size of the class, Strict rules) -Behind time constraint 	Pressures from “above”
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Students’ English competence -Students’ nature 	Pressures from “below”

Table 3.7 illustrated the contextual factors that brought pressure to teachers from “above” and “below” that answered the third research question with the documentary information in details which was collected based on the coding results.

Research question 4 was answered through synthesizing the findings of research question 1, 2 and 3.

After analyzing the data, the Findings are presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the findings from classroom observation field notes and interview transcripts of six Chinese teachers who participated in this study. The findings are presented in the order of the four research questions. First, the findings about the strategies that the teachers used and their motivational style. Second, the findings about the teachers' beliefs about the importance of motivation for English learning, the level of the students' motivation, and the motivational strategies that can effectively motivate students. Third, the findings about contextual factors the teachers experienced from two aspects: "above" and "below". Lastly, the findings about the effects of teachers' beliefs and contextual factors on motivational strategies.

When presenting the findings for each research questions, excerpts from observation expanded field notes and interview transcripts are provided to illustrate the points. Since the interviewees were given options to answer the questions either in Chinese or English, and they used both Chinese and English in the classrooms, the English translation is provided for the excerpts that included Chinese sentences or words.

What motivational strategies do EFL the teachers in Northwest China utilize in their classrooms?

To answer the first research question, the observations were used as the primary source and the interviews were used as supplementary information. The findings about the strategies that EFL teachers in Northwest China used are reported based on the two styles of motivational strategies, namely autonomy supportive and controlling.

Most of the lessons were given in teacher-centered approach when the instructional activities were conducted as a whole class. The teachers occupied the majority of the class time to teach. Based on the observations, it can be concluded that the six Chinese teachers in this study tended to use controlling motivational strategies in their English classrooms. Nevertheless, indications of the use of autonomy supportive strategies were also observed. Overall, Table 4.1 showed the teachers' use of motivational strategies observed during the time of the study. This table shows that all teachers used a variety of motivational strategies in English classes. Although the teachers did not show identical trends of using the motivational strategies, the table shows that more controlling strategies were observed in the classes. Hui, Xian, Hao, and Wan used motivational strategies A and D in every class. Ling used A and B the most. Motivational strategies A was also frequently used by Rui.

Table 4. 1

Teachers' use of motivational strategies from observation

Teacher	Week					Trend
	1	2	3	4	5	
Hui	A D E H	A D E F H	A B D F G	A B D E F H	A B C D F	A. D. F
Ling	A B C D E F H I	A B C D E F	A B C E	A B C E I G	A B D G H	A. B. C. E
Xian	A E F H I	A C D H	A B D E	A D E H	A D E H	A. D. E. H
Hao	A D E	A B C D E G	A D	A B D E	A D E G H	A. D. E
Rui	A B C D E G I	A B C D I	A C D E G	A B C E F H	A E F G H J	A. C. E
Wan	--	A D E F I	A B C D E F	A D	A B D F	A. D. F

*Notes: Letters A-I refer to different motivational strategies as follows.

A=Exercising the teachers' authority (picking students directly, inspecting students, uttering directives)

B=Relying on external sources (introducing incentives, punishment, praising)

C=Evoking tense feelings (organizing competitions, criticizing, rushing students)

D=Giving answers directly

E=Enhancing students' understanding (informing objectives, decreasing difficulty, review)

F=Arousing students interests in the class (relating to the real life)

G=Asking thought-provoking questions

H=Leaving time for the students to work independently

I=Providing encouragement

Thus, motivational strategies in controlling and autonomy supportive styles observed were reported in details in the following section.

Controlling motivational strategies. As shown in Table 4.1, the teachers in this study tended to compel the students to act and think in the teachers' prescribed way (Reeve, 2009). Four major strategies that were revealed in the observation included exercising the teacher's authority, relying upon incentives, evoking tense feelings, and giving answers directly. Each strategy was identified in this study by a few specific instructional behaviors.

Exercising the teacher's authority. Most teachers were observed to act like "a boss" in the classrooms and exercise their authority to get students involved in the class activity. They sought the students' compliance to produce the results they desired without providing options or rationales to the students. Specific practices that were observed in teachers included picking students directly, monitoring students, uttering directives, using punishment as external sources, and introducing incentives.

Picking students directly. The practice of exercising authority that was observed in most classes was choosing which student to participate in activities. Especially when asking students questions, all the teachers picked the students by themselves rather than waiting for the students to answer with their own free will. As shown in Excerpt

1, Hao, instead of waiting for a volunteer, as he first requested, called one student to answer his question by himself. This kind of scene was commonly observed in all lessons.

Excerpt 1

Hao: ...What do you think how to protect wild life? Now let's have a discussion.

I give you two minutes to do it. Start!

Students: (Discussion)

Hao: Please stop. Animals are dying out. ...what do you do as a person? Please volunteers. If you have some ideas, or good ideas. You can put up your hands. Anyone? Please put up your hands.

Students: ...

Hao: Zhao XX, please. (Note Hao, 174-177)

In the interviews, two teachers, Hao and Rui, made a specific remark on this topic. They emphasized that they preferred to call the students by names but for different reasons, as shown in Excerpt 2 and 3. For Hao, choosing students to participate is a way to provide an equal chance to all students. Differently, Rui used this strategy to maintain students' attention in the class activity.

Excerpt 2

Hao: 我一般就挨着说，每个人的观点挨着说。我感觉学生说不多，每个人就一句，最多两三句，说多少算多少。多说多练。

I normally picked the students to answer one by one in row or in line.

Everyone has a chance to speak. I noticed that the students cannot say much. They may say just one sentence, at most three sentences.

It doesn't matter how much they say. The more they say, the more they practice.

(Interview Hao, 433-434)

Excerpt 3

(I asked Rui, between waiting for students to put up hands and picking them up by names, which he preferred to do.)

Rui: I don't like this way (wai). If the questions are only answered by the students who put up hands, that is to say, maybe those who cannot put up hands cannot understand the question. So, they can just sit there and think that "Ah, those can try. (I do not have to.)" If I pick randomly, they do not know who will be asked, so they must pay more attention. This is my opinion.

(Interview Rui, 747-751)

Inspecting students. Another behavior that most teachers performed in the classroom was to circle around the classroom to make sure that the students followed their instruction and to remind the students that it was time for them to learn. Rui

explained in the interview that he circled around the classroom to “*monitor*” the students to ensure their participation. He said: “I always go here and there to make them know that it is for you to study.” (Interview Rui, 681) Xian reported the same reason for walking around the classroom. The other teachers did not mention their monitoring practice.

Uttering directives. The teachers gave many directives or commands to require the students to follow and produce a desired behavior in the classroom without giving explanations. The tone of uttering commands was like “Just do as I told you.” Directives or commands such as the following were frequently heard in the classrooms during the observations.

“Look at here (the blackboard)!”

“Write it down!”

“Underline it!” จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

“Stop!” CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

“Listen! Listen!”

“Pay attention!”

Relying up on extrinsic sources. The second major controlling motivational strategy observed in the six classrooms was the teachers’ use of extrinsic sources to motivate the students rather than encouraging them to learn for pleasure or intrinsic

reasons. The extrinsic sources of motivation, such as punishment, incentives and praising were used to motivate the students to act as the teacher expected.

Using punishment as external sources. Most teachers were observed to use punishment to drive the students to perform as they required. The example of punishment included leaving students stand for a while to wait for the right answer, reciting a text as an extra assignment, leaving more homework, throwing chalk, or slapping. The punishment was employed with or without warning.

In Excerpt 4, Ling warned the students to behave properly in the class, otherwise she would punish. When seeing that one boy was not paying attention to her explanation and whispering with his classmate, she did throw one short piece of chalk to him to get his attention back.

Excerpt 4

Ling: 你小心说话。要不粉笔头就冲你飞过去了。弹无虚发。老师就是个神枪手。

Be careful about what you are going to say, or the chalk would fly to you. I never missed shooting. (Note Ling, 67-69)

In another lesson, she slapped a boy on his back with her book in a class, because he did not finish the homework. The boy left everything blank on his book, which might have enraged her. From the post-observation interview with Ling after

the two classes, it showed that she believed that the students did not mind her actions. But she was aware that the actions were improper.

Hao and Wan were not observed to employ physical punishment as did Ling, but they were often observed making ask the students who could not answer questions stand up until the right answer was given by other students. They even asked students to stand up when they found students were sleepy.

Rui was found to give students a warning at the end of class that if they did not finish assigned homework of reciting the text, they would be punished. In the post-observation interview, he explained that he just hoped that punishment would help students complete their homework. He had no real intention to punish them at all.

Introducing incentives. Using incentives was another instructional behavior found in this study. Three teachers, Hui, Ling and Wan, mentioned using rewards or prizes when the students performed well. However, the act of giving prizes was observed in only one class.

Hui reported in the interview how she promised to give the students' time to buy snacks if the students did well in the activity. She confirmed the effects of the prizes on students' behaviors as shown in Excerpt 5.

Excerpt 5

Hui: 我就说做完下课请他们吃蛋糕，没做完的就表演节目。所以他们就使劲的在做啊。

I told them that, after they finished (the task), I would buy cakes for them. If they did not finish, they have to give a solo performance. So, they worked hard to undertake the task. (Interview Hui, 556)

Wan proudly presented how she created “Happy English dollar” --vouchers made by herself to be used as a different reward for the students in the final interview. These “dollars” could be used to exchange for stationary at the end of the semester. She normally gave the “dollars” when group discussion was conducted.

Ling was observed to use pens as the prize for the competition winners in one class. In one class, Ling ran a competition in the process of learning the reading text. She then rewarded the students who won in the competition. Students enticed by the incentives were observed to participate quite well, even a student who seldom actively participated in the class stood up to answer the questions to help his group win.

Praising. Praising as a kind of positive feedback was commonly used by most of the teachers to respond to the students in the classroom. The most commonly used feedback was “very good” which was provided to students who gave the right answers. Other expressions used by the six teachers included:

“All of you are intelligent designer!”

“You did such a good job!”

“Wow, very good!”

“Yes!”

“Good!”

“Congratulations!”

“Come on.”

Ling explained the positive effect of praising helping motivate students' attention in the class activities as shown in Excerpt 6 in post-observation interview.

Excerpt 6

Ling: 那一是对他们的回答的答案的肯定。二是想传递...鼓励给他们。然后他们能够体会到老师是认可我的。因为这个对他们是非常非常重要的。... 其实当学生站起来，回答问题，你能给他一个 thank you, good job. you did a quite good job... 真是的会发现他们的眼睛会发光。他就会上课的时候,...更集中精力。

The first is to confirm their answers. The second is to encourage students. Then, they can get the approval from teachers. It is very important for students. ... Actually, when students stand up and answer the questions, and then you respond with “thank you”, “good job” and “you did a

good job.” you can find a glint in their eyes. They will become more concentrated in the class. (Interview Ling, 147-152)

Evoking tense feelings. The third controlling motivational strategy found in some classes was creating a tense atmosphere. Three instructional behaviors that some teachers used to make the students feel strained or under pressure were using competition-like activities, speaking with a harsh tone, and rushing students to work.

Organizing competitions. A few teachers were found to use competitions in the classroom to motivate the students. Ling was the one teacher who was observed to stage a competition in the classroom. She designed a competition among groups of the students to win the right of exemption from punishment. Her interview shows that she did not see any negative influence from competition among the students. She thought it was a good way to involve students and even thought competition created a relaxed atmosphere in class as illustrated in Excerpt 7.

Excerpt 7

Ling: I think it is a kind of activity that can motivate the students to compete with each other...I think maybe it is useful, because I can see so many of the students are willing to participate.... They like it, and I think it is relaxed atmosphere in my class. They like it and they want to participate in it, so maybe we can say it is useful. (Interview Ling, 593-603)

Ling also reported, in the post-observation interview, that she would like to organize other competition activities, such as a reading contest, and a writing contest among students in the following semester. Similar to Ling, Rui also expressed his beliefs of the effects of running competitions among students as a motivational strategy to motivate them to learn English in the final interview.

Criticizing. A few teachers were found to criticize the students' performance on the classes or in the tests. Ling was observed to criticize students which brought the whole class to silence. She expressed her dissatisfaction with the students' performance to the whole class. In Excerpt 7, Ling used “满江红 (Man Jiang Hong)” (My eyes were full with color of red) to describe the students' test paper which had too many mistakes so the correction marks made the paper all red. She admitted that she tried to “*indirectly*” describe her disappointment this way which might be “*humorous*”. In another class, she directly criticized the students' work as seen in Excerpts 8 and 9.

Excerpt 8

Ling: 满江红啊！...我看到你们满江红时，我也是无语了！我不知道你们作何感想。

Man Jiang Hong! ... When I saw all your test papers in red, I do not know what I can say! I do not know what are your feelings of that?

(Note Ling, 72, 80-81)

Excerpt 9

Ling: 你也做了。不会读？哪个不会读？...英语学了这么多年，英语句子都不会读。Terrible! ...我给你们 45 分钟时间看着做的。结果 2/3 的人答不上。有我没讲过的语法吗？没有。只是复习单词而已。

You have written it. Why cannot you read? Which one cannot you read? ... You have studied English for these years. How come cannot you read a sentence? Terrible! ... I asked you to do this before and gave you 45 minutes to finish it. But 2/3 of you cannot give the answer. Is there any grammar that I did not teach before? No. They are the exercise for you to review the vocabulary. (Note Ling, 221-226, 239-241)

Hui and Xian reported they would blame students when they found students did not follow their instructions or did not finish the homework. However, it was not observed in the class during the time.

Rushing students. All the teachers were heard to use words to rush the students to work as the teachers wished. Most of the time, the rushing words were given before leaving time for students to discuss or work alone. It seems that although the teachers wanted the students to perform the task independently, they also

wanted students to finish everything quickly to complete their class plan. The list of sample rushing words was below.

“Find the answers as soon as possible!”

“Quickly, find it as soon as possible.”

“Finished?... read the words as quickly as possible.

At that time, students quickly followed teachers’ instruction when they heard the assignment.

Giving answers directly. The last controlling strategy was how most of the teachers gave answers to questions by themselves. In addition, they used mostly close-ended questions, the interrogative questions that only require “yes or no” answers. Often, the students had no time or did not really need to think by themselves since the teachers offered the answers shortly after. In a way, questions seemed to function only to attract students’ attention.

Hao was a typical example of supplying answers immediately after questions. Sometimes, he did not even ask questions to invite students to participate. He normally asked a question then answered it himself, as shown in Excerpt 10. In this excerpt, Hao indicated for students to translate a sentence as an example of learning the word “similarity”. He started the sentence to have the students to speak out together in his flow.

Excerpt 10

Hao: similar, 它的名词是 similarity, 复数是 similarities, 相似之处。举个例子,

翻译这个句子。你能告诉我古代奥运会和现代奥运会的相似之处

吗? ...Can you tell me-- the similarities between the --ancient Olympic

Games and modern Olympic Games?

Similar, its noun is similarity and plural form is similarities. It means the state of being similar. For example, let's translate a sentence. 你能告诉

我古代奥运会和现代奥运会的相似之处吗? ...Can you tell me the

similarities between the ancient Olympic Games and modern Olympic

Games?

Students: ...the similarities between the ancient Olympic ... (Note Hao, 21)

This strategy was observed widely in all classes but in different degrees. If all the teachers were put on a continuum, Hao would be placed on the far end of high controlling since he hardly left any space for students to participate. The other teachers often used incomplete sentences to prompt the students to answer. An example was observed in Hui's class. She picked a student to retell history of the development of the history according to the structure written on the blackboard. Without waiting for the student's own answer, she started to guide the student as shown in Excerpt 11.

Excerpt 11

Hui: In 1642, the computer began to ...

Student: In 1642, the computer began to use as a calculation machine.

Hui: In 1842, it became...

Student: In 1842, it became a ...

Hui: An ...

Student: An

Hui: Analytical machine...

Student: An analytical machine.

Hui: Pay attention to my sentence structures. (Note Hui, 279-281)

Autonomy supportive motivational strategies. The observation data revealed five main motivational strategies that can be identified as autonomy supportive as follows: enhancing the students' understanding, arousing the students' interests in the class, asking thought-provoking questions, leaving time for the students to work independently, and providing encouragement. Based on Reeve (2016b), the teachers in this study also allow their students to express their own thoughts, feelings and actions. Similarly, the findings revealed a few specific instructional for some motivational strategies.

Enhancing the students' understanding. All the teachers were observed to use some techniques to help students' better understand the learning content. The observed instructional behaviors included informing the learning objectives, decreasing learning difficulty, and helping the students to review the learnt content. This strategy was mentioned by all the teachers in the interviews and observed in most of the classes. However, this strategy was not counted as a motivational strategy in other research.

Informing the learning objectives. To help the students understand what they were going to achieve in the classes, all the teachers gave clear learning objectives.

Hui and Rui were two typical examples among the teachers who employed this strategy. They always listed clear learning objectives on the slides and read them for students at the beginning of each lesson. For example, when teaching the warming-up of Unit 3- Computers, Hui showed the slide with lesson objectives on it. She also read it for the students as shown in Excerpt 12.

Excerpt 12

Hui: Well, students. These are the objectives that we are going to achieve today.

No. 1, we are going to learn the knowledge of computers and No.2, practicing listening and speaking ability. (Note Hui, 197-198)

Excerpt 13

Rui: The learning objective of this class is to learn and use the present perfect passive voice. (Note Rui, 120)

Although the other teachers did not inform the learning objectives as explicitly as Hui and Rui did, they introduced what they were going to do in that lesson to the students. For instance Xian, at the beginning of a class, she asked the students to “Take out the book and we will review the words and expressions of Unit 2.”

Decreasing the difficulty of the lesson or activity. From the observation, they seemed to make an effort at easing the difficult English activities by using techniques such as connecting new expressions with what the students already knew, starting from easy exercises to more difficult ones, using L1 – Chinese. The interviews with Xian revealed that she believed English was difficult for her students. She admitted, “*Learning is difficult. ...Learning English is difficult for Chinese students*” (Interview Xian, 262, 455), so she emphasized that the content needed to be “digested” by the students. Xian, as well as Ling and Hao, regularly presented new content by connecting what the students had already learned or were familiar with. In Excerpt 14, Xian tried to link the words that the students already knew to help students master the use of “from...on”. She asked the students to translate the phrases “from now on”, “from tomorrow on”, to “from this moment on”.

Excerpt 14

Xian: “from ...on” means “从...起”. Then how do you say “从现在起”?

Students: From now on.

Xian: Right. “从今天起”?

Students: From today on.

Xian: Okay. “从明天起”?

Students: From tomorrow on. (Note Xian, 136-138)

Another example is from Rui’s class. The example showed how the lesson was arranged from easy to difficult. In this lesson, Rui taught the exercises of present perfect passive voice by filling blanks in sentences to translating sentences. At last, he gave a task to students to write a speech by using present perfect passive voice. Below is the sample content from his slides.

[Excerpt of filling blanks]

1. You can see the house (未油漆 *has not been painted*) for years. ...

[Rewrite sentences by using present perfect passive voice]

1. 那所学校已经建成了. *The new school has been built.*

2. 汤姆的小说还没有被出版. *Tom’s novel has not been published.*

[Task] The present perfect passive voice is often used in formal situations such as articles or speeches. The headmaster is making a speech (about awarding prize for

some students). Help him complete his speech using the present perfect passive voice.

(A table was given for more information.)

As for the use of Chinese to ease the difficulty, all the teachers were observed to switch to Chinese when they noticed the students might not have understood their instruction clearly. For example, when the students became silent after their instruction. Every teacher admitted that they switched language to make the students understand what they said in the interviews, although they know this was not advocated in English language teaching approaches.

Reviewing the learnt content. All the teachers were observed to help the students to review the learnt content at the beginning of the classes with different frequencies. To involve students in learning new content easily and cultivate students' feeling of achievement, Ling, Xian and Hao made use of the time at the beginning or at the end of the class to review what the student had learned in the previous lessons. For example, Ling asked the students to review the vocabulary of the unit and the sentence expressions that they had learnt, which might be used in the following lessons. Wan explained that she purposively designed a lesson to help the students to enhance the use of language by reviewing the words, phrases and sentences as shown in Excerpt 15.

Excerpt 15

Wan: 今天的...课堂任务是要做那个课文中的重点的单词和短语的回顾·然后
为了强化他们的词汇·语言的应用能力。...就是把这个单词提出来的同时·
 让他们就是做了一些翻译句子的练习。° ...

Today... the main objective was to review key words and expressions in the text so as to intensify the students' vocabulary and language use. .../ had them do some translation exercises of vocabulary. ...

(Interview Wan, 6-12)

Sometimes some teachers used exercises to review the lessons at the end of the class. For example, after teaching about present perfect passive voice, Rui asked students to complete a poem with classes in the structure of “something has/have been done” as seen in the following example.

Look at the way _____ (face has been washed)

Look at the way _____ (hair has been combed)

Look at the way _____ (shoes have been cleaned)

You'd better do them again. (Note Rui, 204-206)

Arousing students' interest in the class. The second major autonomy supportive strategy observed in the classrooms was arousing students' learning interest. All the teachers had a consensus in the importance of the students' interest in English learning. To attract the students to learn with interest, most teachers tried to connect

English learning in the classes with the examples or news in daily life. This way helped the students see the value of English in their lives, and the use of English in daily life. The examples of teachers' or students' own life were commonly observed to clarify the use of vocabulary or sentence structures.

For example, Wan helped the students to review the word “charge” and its related expressions. She first asked the students to make a sentence with the structure “charge somebody with a crime”. To help the students, she asked them to think of a piece of news “Jiang Ge Tokyo Murder Case” that attracted widespread attention, and students gave the sentence “They charged him with murder.” Then, she shared her own experience of being overcharged for parking to practice using “charge somebody amount of money” (Note Wan, 49-53). In her post-observation interview, she also expressed her willingness to use examples related to real life as seen in Excerpt 16.

Excerpt 16

Wan: 比如我今天举例子，像 parking。像这种例句可能有时候有更多的跟我的生活相挂钩。比如说，今天举这个例子就是我停车收费收我 28yuan 元。这本身是一个事实的事情。当时我也觉得好吃惊讶。用这种方式让他对课堂有更多的兴趣。然后让他注意力能够更加的集中一些。

For example, parking. Most of time, the examples are related to my daily life. The example I gave today was about my experience of parking by

being charged 28 yuan. It happened in real life. I was astonished at that time. I used this way to arouse the students' interests in the class and make them more concentrate. (Interview Wan, 21-24)

It was observed that when the teachers taught with examples that the students knew, the students concentrated and all stared at their teacher. Sometimes, the teachers even digressed from the classroom content for a moment. At that time, some students tried to butt into the topic to give their own opinions. They showed their interests in the teachers' related life examples, stories or news. This happened in Xian's class many times. Xian was very good at giving examples related to daily life. From the window, floor of the classroom, to the head teacher of the class, even to the love stories, she connected many things to the English expressions. She explained in her post-observation interview: *"The way to attract the students' attention is to give examples related to daily life and interesting, which can raise the students' interests in learning."* (Interview Xian, 330-331) One example was when she taught the word "volunteer", she could quickly connect this word with the observer and told the experience of the observer to the students as in Excerpt 17, which helped the students remember the word "volunteer" and attracted their attention in listening to the story told in English.

Excerpt 17

Xian: Now, as for this word (volunteer), I will introduce this new teacher to you.

Listen carefully! About almost 10 years ago, the new teacher came to our school as a volunteer after graduation from the university. Understand?

Students: Yes.

Xian: And then, after one year, she left for her hometown. Three years ago, she went to Thailand. Do you know Thailand?”

The students: 泰国.

Xian: Yea, she went to Thailand, she studied for her Master degree. And she is doing research to finish her graduation paper (Note Xian, 60-64)

At that time, the students either glanced at me, or stared at their teacher to know what happened to me. They actively guessed the words in their teachers' description.

Ling preferred sharing experiences of her own or others as well. For example, in one class, to teach the word “imagination”, Ling shared her experience, as shown in Excerpt 18.

Excerpt 18

Ling: We also watch TV series and movies. Some told the story of the “war” between the mother-in-law and the daughter-in-law in a family. Those plots really happened in the real life that we might happen to meet.

Everyone can read at the beginning of the TV series or movies, they give a statement that 本片纯属 (All events, characters, and incidents portrayed in this play are)...

Students: 虚构 (fictional).

Ling: 如有雷同 · 纯属 (Any similarity to any persons, living or dead, or to any actual event is) ...

Students: 巧合 (coincidental and unintentional) °

Ling: So, how are the series written?

Students: 虚构 °

Ling: They are from...?

Students: 想象 (imagination). (Note Ling, 111-118)

She also told her experience of watching a Korean series in the university. She expressed her feeling of watching handsome actors which aroused girls' sympathy and boys' laughter.

Wan introduced her experience of designing an activity by inviting students to perform how to do first aid in a post-observation interview. The students were remarkable for both voices and expression. She was observed to invite an American native speaker to the classroom to perform at the end of class, which was very different from other activity. The native teacher sang in his charming voice and played

guitar, while the students were acting like the fans of an idol. Wan thought that was a good way to increase the students' interests (Interview Wan, 465).

Asking thought-provoking questions. The third autonomy supportive strategy found in some classes was asking questions to get the students' brain in gear in the classroom. Questions not only provoked the students to think, but also supported the students' autonomy and competence, especially when the questions were unpredictable or open-ended. It was observed that most teachers used this strategy in the classes.

Rui was observed to ask many questions when teaching reading. His questions were mainly based on the reading text, but the answers were not from the text directly. The students had to give their own opinions to support their answers. For example, when reviewing the unit of the Olympic Games, Hao asked students "Who is your favorite athlete? Why?" In another reading lesson about a hero and a heroine, Rui asked the students "*If you were the hero/heroine, what would you do under such situation?*" (Note Rui, 63-64) All the questions he used were open and inviting various answers.

Leaving time for the students to work independently. The fourth autonomy supportive strategy was observed in some classes that most teachers provided time for the students to think about a given question, or to discuss with

friends. They waited for the students' answers without rushing them. This seemed to have given the students' freedom in learning and working.

For example, when Hui asked the students to do a fill-in the table exercise on the structure. She tried to make sure that every student had enough time to work on the exercise. When noticing some students had already finished the exercise while the others did not, she asked those who had finished to prepare to present their answers, and gave the other students more time to work. Hui explained in her post-observation interview that giving time to the students to learn by themselves would promote the students to think and to participate in the activities.

Rui was also observed to leave adequate time for the students to work with each other. Excerpt 19 shows how he provided the opportunity and time for the students to work with their partners.

Excerpt 19

Rui: Please find the answers from the text. If you cannot find the answers, you can discuss with each other. ... If you cannot answer, you still can discuss with your partner for a short time. (Note Rui, 285-286, 291-292)

Xian was observed to wait for the students' answers. She did not rush the students when they were unable to respond to her question, but waited until the

students were ready. Xian also expressed her willingness to wait for the students, as shown in Excerpt 20, which was not normal among six teachers.

Excerpt 20

Xian: I think maybe the students'- their English is not very good. I will also ask them to answer my questions. Maybe they will waste some time, but I think it will be okay... (Interview Xian 114-115)

Providing encouragement. The last autonomy supportive strategy was commonly observed in the six classes. All the teachers tended to encourage students to produce language without being afraid of making mistakes, which could encourage students into classroom participation. The students savored the consideration from the teachers. The teachers were observed to frequently use “try” to encourage the students to volunteer answering questions. The list of sample expressions observed from classes demonstrates the use of encouragement.

“Do you want to have a try?”

“Try your best to find it...Be brave to read them out.”

“Trying is a good way to study.”

Apart from the autonomy supportive strategies listed above, some teachers also used other strategies such as soliciting the students' opinion, talking in a humorous way, creating a relaxed classroom and teaching inductively. However, these were only

used for one time by one or two teachers, and neither were mentioned as a strategy in the interviews, which did not indicate any consistent pattern among the participants. Thus, those strategies were not reported in details.

According to the strategies that the teachers used in the five periods of classes, they showed the trends of using motivational strategies. The trend for each teacher of using some strategies showed their main motivational style. It was found every teacher “exercising the teachers’ authority” in almost every class, some using “telling the answers to the students directly”, or “introducing the external sources”, and most of them still tried to “enhance students’ understanding”. Thus, they all practiced a controlling style to motivate students.

In conclusion, all the teachers in this case study employed more controlling strategies in the classroom to promote students’ learning motivation, though they used autonomy supportive motivational strategies sometimes. The next question was what they believed in regard to motivation and motivation strategies. Then, what style of motivational strategies they believed in. The findings are reported in the following section.

What beliefs do EFL teachers in Northwest China hold about how to enhance students’ motivation?

To answer the second research question, the data from the interview was used as the main resources. The teachers’ beliefs were investigated in three aspects: beliefs

about importance of motivation in students' English learning, beliefs about their students' motivation levels and beliefs about the effective motivational strategies that should be used to motivate students in English classrooms. The overall findings of the teachers' beliefs elicited from interviews of this study were illustrated in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2

Overall Findings of Teachers' Beliefs

Teacher	Teachers' beliefs		
	Importance of motivation	Level of students' motivation	Effective motivational strategies
Hui	Important	No specified	Interesting activities
Ling	Important	Low	Good relationship with students
Xian	Important	Varied	Simplifying difficulties
Hao	Important	Varied	Scores
Rui	Important	High	Controlling
Wan	Important	Moderate	Involving students

Table 4.2 shows that all the teachers believed motivation to be important in English language classes, but they held different views about effects of motivation. They also held different perceptions of their students' motivation level. The students' motivation levels were varied overall. Each teacher reported a different effective motivational strategy for them, which implied their motivational styles.

Beliefs about the importance of motivation. From the interviews, all the teachers agreed that motivation was important for English teaching and learning, yet they have differing opinions of the effects of motivation. First, some teachers thought that motivation yielded good results in their teaching as an example shown in Excerpt 21. Hui believed that motivation could make class effective and successful. Secondly, motivation was believed to enhance students' learning and led students to become more active learners. Excerpts 22 showed that Rui believed motivation could make students concentrate on their own learning.

Excerpt 21

Hui: I think the motivation in the class decides the effectiveness of the class.

So, if you can motivate the students very well, maybe you will have an effective class. So... you can see, sometimes when you listen to my classes, I cannot motivate them very well, the class... in my opinion, the class failed. So, the motivation is very important when teaching.

(Interview Hui, 595-597)

Excerpt 22

Rui: My opinion about motivation of students? Of course, it is important for every class, for learning. If they have motivation, they long to learn something. If they have no motivation, maybe they are forced to

study. ...If they have no motivation, maybe the study efficiency is not very good... If they really have their studying motivation, they will put their hearts into study. (Interview Rui, 777-778, 800-801)

Similarly, Hao thought motivation was impetus for students to learn. He indicated that motivation could not only yield good learning results, but could also make students study for longer periods of time in Excerpt 23.

Excerpt 23

Hao: ...因为没有动机，就没有动力。没有动力的话就没有(效果)。学生学习知识自己主动，兴趣的学习。这样的话效果更好。没有动机的话，一天效果也就不行了。

...Because no motivation, no impetus. No impetus, no (results). If students can autonomously study knowledge with interests, it will achieve some better results. If there was no motivation, they might learn for only one day. (Interview Hao, 473-474)

Both Ling and Xian theorized in another way to emphasize the importance of motivation. Xian thought that, as a teacher, she should “*motivate students to learn English as often as possible.*” (Interview Xian, 560-561) Ling told her own experience as an example to explain the importance of motivation in learning. Both teachers

believed motivation was important. All the teachers therefore believed that English teachers played important roles in motivating students.

Beliefs about students' motivation levels. The teachers had different perceptions of their own students' motivation levels. Four out of six teachers admitted that not all the students in their class were motivated. They perceived some of their students might be motivated to learn English because of their interests in English, English culture or English subject. The others might learn English because of the pressure to enter university as Hao indicated in Excerpt 24.

Excerpt 24

Hao: 像一二班的娃嘛，动机嘛，很有一部分我感觉是还是喜欢英语的。特别想通过英语的语言来了解英语国家的东西。是这样的。当然我说了还有一部分是为了考大学。所以逼着他学。其实也不爱学英语。尤其男生。... 动机嘛，就是他心里有这个。他们的心里没有这个想法，让念就念，没有主动性，被迫着那样学习。

Like the students in class 1 and 2 (key classes), their motivation, I felt that most of them like English. They are eager to learn English to know more about English countries. That's how it is. Of course, I said, some of them learn for entering the university. So, they are forced to learn. They do not like learning English actually, especially boys. ...they do not have

motivation in mind. Ask them to read and they read without any autonomy. They are forced to learn. (Interview Hao., 461-466)

Wan directly pointed out that the levels of motivation of her students were normal at a moderate level. Hui did not report her perception of her students' motivational level. Ling was the only teacher who held negative perception about the students' motivation. She believed that the students in her classes had no interest and lacked motivation, especially the boys as told in Excerpt 25. When she referred to one of the surveys she conducted at the beginning of the semester, the students frankly responded that they “*dislike English*”, or even “*hate English*”. She added that her students did not learn English autonomously and had to be pushed to learn by the teachers, which made both sides stressful.

Excerpt 25

Ling: 在课堂上...学生，尤其是我们这边的男生，他对英语的兴趣不强，上课的时候特别容易瞌睡。

In the class, students of this area, especially boys, have slightest interests in English. They are likely to fall asleep. (Interview Ling, 42-43)

Rui thought his students had relatively higher English learning motivation. He believed about 70% students were motivated in English learning which was in a high portion. Hui did not clearly state the motivation levels of her students. She reported

that students in her class were not active sometimes, and it depended on her class design and the energetic level of performance in teaching.

Overall, the levels of the Grade 10 students' English learning motivation were varied from EFL teachers' perception. Most of them believed that students were either intrinsically (e.g. interest) or extrinsically (e.g. pressure) motivated.

What motivational strategies can effectively motivate students? The observation data revealed that the teachers used motivational strategies in the classroom, and each of them gave some motivational strategies in interviews that they believed motivated students in the classroom, including stimulating students' interests through interesting activities, playing games, group discussion, telling or making up interesting stories, playing music or movies, applying examples from real-life situations, inductive teaching, and helping students find their own learning style; creating good or close relationships with students; encouraging students to be teachers; asking questions; sharing skills or strategies in teaching. Those were characteristics of autonomy supportive motivational strategies such as arousing students' interests, and supporting students' relatedness and competence. There were some controlling motivational strategies given as well, such as giving rewards, uttering blame or criticism, inflicting punishment, preaching, displaying scores or rankings, and organizing competitions. It needs to be mentioned that a few teachers gave importance to being

self-“*energetic*” in the classrooms. They thought teachers should be more energetic in the class to stimulate students.

Every teacher, in final interview, reported their own most effective strategy they would be preferably used when they found the students needed motivation. Even though the teachers believed some motivational strategies can motivate students, some motivational strategies for each of them were the most important and effective to use. Those strategies implied the teachers’ motivational styles in beliefs.

Beliefs in autonomy supportive style strategies. The most effective strategies given by four teachers, who were Hui, Ling, Xian and Wan, were beneficial to the students’ intrinsic motivation. Those strategies given can support students’ autonomy, relatedness, or competence, which implied that those four teachers believed in autonomy supportive motivation style.

Hui regarded organizing interesting activities as her most effective motivational strategies, even though she reported her weakness in designing interesting activities. It was also observed in her class that she tried to involve students through activities.

Ling insisted that good relationship with the students was the key for teachers. Because “*students liked teacher, they might be interested in their English class, and then might like English class and English study*” (Interview Ling, 308-309). She believed that the better the relationship between the teachers and the students, the more the

students understand and cooperate with their teachers. She declared this opinion from the first time of post-observation interview to the final.

Xian indicated that simplifying difficulties to support students' understanding was the most important and effective strategy. It was broadly accepted and liked by her students. She thought that decreasing difficulties could make the students gain a sense of achievement, which revealed her feature of competence support and consideration for students. She was more autonomy supportive in her beliefs.

Wan pointed out that any motivational strategies, such as organizing activities or encouraging students to perform, that could involve students in developing themselves and promoted their feelings of achievement were doable. She underlined that the most effective strategy was to have students to participate in every step of learning (Interview Wan, 543-544).

Beliefs in controlling motivational strategies. The most important and effective strategies both Hao and Rui reported could extrinsically motivate students.

Rui confessed that he controlled students or aroused their interests according to his experience under situations. But compared with controlling students and forcing them to learn, Rui admitted that arousing interests was good, *“especially in education.”* (Interview Rui, 723-724) So, in his final interview, he showed hesitation picking a specific strategy as his most effective one, but he finally stated that *“controlling is effective”*

for the reason he illustrated in Excerpt 26, which became the basis of judging him as an autonomy controlling style teacher in beliefs.

Excerpt 26

Rui: ...if I feel powerful, the students will know that “I must do in this way.

Otherwise, I will be punished.” This is also a very traditional way, and

nowadays, we don’t advocate this kind of way, but actually in our classes,

I think, it is also very effective.... Without controlling, without result. No

controlling, no result. (Interview Rui, 700-702, 723-724)

When answering the question of the most effective motivational strategies, Hao believed in “No dogmatic practice (教无定法)” of English teaching, which means that he would prefer to teach according to the situation, rather than picking one method only. I thought it might be his philosophy. Thus, at that moment, he did not give any strategies. It was hard to judge what motivational style he believed in. As the interview went on, he found that asking questions-- which he always did to check students’ understanding-- was workable for his teaching. It seemed he seldom consciously considered motivating students as indicated in Excerpt 27. It was found that Hao directly pointed out to use marks (scores) as the motivation sources when he was asked how to maintain students’ motivation. Hao emphasized that scores were the

main powerful motive for students to study. Thus, it is reasonable to conclude that the most effective motivational strategy for Hao was using marks (scores).

Excerpt 27

Interviewer: Has our conversation been helpful in getting you to think about the strategies that you know but never thought about?

Hao: 这个以前没想过。…从来没有人这样连续的听课，…还是有很大的促进作用。…我们这样经常上，上了 30 年了。也是从来没想到这个。就这样上着就行了，语言的东西嘛。从来没有想过方法，尽管方法可能用着，但是没有意识到。但是你说的动机呀，这个确实是对我们有很大的促进作用。

I have never thought about it before. ... Nobody once had continuously observed classes. ... It promoted us a lot. ... We have taught in this way for 30 years and ever never thought about this (motivational strategy). We just taught language and did not consider methods although we might use them in the classes without conscious. However, the motivation that you introduced must be helpful and promote a lot for us. (Interview Hao, 559-562)

As concluded in Table 4.2, all the teachers had beliefs that students' motivation was important in learning English and believed that the teachers should

motivate students in the classroom. They had different beliefs about the levels of motivation of their students in classes. Only Ling gave a complete negative evaluation of her students' motivation level. The beliefs of four out of six teachers interviewed about what motivational strategies were most effective showed their tendency to be autonomy supportive, and another two teachers tended to be controlling in their beliefs. In addition, all the teachers admitted the importance of teachers in motivating students. Some even thought it was the teachers' responsibility to be energetic to motivate students.

What are the contextual factors that EFL teachers in Northwest China experience?

To answer research question 3, the data of factors were sourced from the interviews. The information mentioned by teachers in the interviews was furthermore purposively searched from a school administrator and websites, especially from the website of Ministry of Education of People's Republic of China (MOE). Two categories of contextual factors that the teachers might experience induced the pressure from "above" and the pressure from "below", which referred to the factors outside the classroom and students inside the classroom respectively.

Pressure from "Above". Based on Pelletier and Sharp (2009) and Hornstra et al. (2015), pressures from "above" are factors outside the classroom that can cause

pressure for teachers. The teachers mentioned national curriculum standards, high stakes testing, the school and the time constraint in interviews.

National curriculum standards. One of the pressure “above” that was revealed in the interview data was the text book which was designed based on the national curriculum standards. It is a main direct way that the curriculum influenced teachers in English teaching. Two publishers designed the text books for Chinese public-school students to learn English (Xue, 2011). The present school utilized the text book designed by People’s Education Press. Some teachers mentioned the text book were difficult for their students. In Excerpt 28 and 29, Rui reported their opinions on the textbook with too many learning content and Hao thought the text book was out of date, which obviously decreased his intention or motivation in class design and his consideration of students’ needs and motivation.

Excerpt 28

Rui: It is complicated, not difficult... too complicated, too many items, I think.

Speaking, speaking, talking, talking, too many items.

(Interview Rui, 160-161)

Excerpt 29

Interviewer: (今天上课) 没什么特殊的准备或者特别的想法吗？

About the class today, do you have some special preparation or ideas?

Hao: 你看我的, 十几年的书咯。上着就行了嘛。 没说这节课要怎么上。

Look at my book, I used it for many than ten years. So, I just teach without special design. (Interview Hao, 144-145)

English has been a dominated foreign language for basic education students for many years (Hu, 2005). In the upper secondary school, the English textbooks used now was published in 2005, which were designed according to the national curriculum standards published in 2003 (MOE, 2003), named *The National English Curriculum Standards for General High School (Experimental Version)* (The Curriculum). The Curriculum promotes quality-orientation education which was totally contrary to exam-orientated education. It aimed to develop students' English ability comprehensively. This aim was divided into five general objectives. The five general objectives are: 1) Language Skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing; 2) Language Knowledge refers to the knowledge about English pronunciation, phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, communicative functions and topics; 3) Attitudes to Learning indicate the students should learn English with interests and happiness, participate actively, have courage to use English and express themselves. With the growth of the students, their attitudes to English learning become more self-regulated

and autonomous; 4) Learning Strategies refer to the strategies that students can use in English learning including basic strategies for learning, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, communication strategies, and resource strategies; 5) Cultural Awareness refers to students' understanding of own culture and the culture of English speaking countries. As mentioned in literature review, the objectives were marked at nine levels (See Appendix L).

Students are allowed to improve their English according to this designed system and meet various demands required in the curriculum. It is a student-centered curriculum which encourage students to have own differences. Since students are the center of the curriculum, all that can satisfy their needs of development must be taken into account. The teachers should design the classes following the descriptions of five objects according to the level of the students. As introduced in the literature review, the students in Grade 10 should achieve to objectives to the level 6. However, The Curriculum suggested to carry on the standards based on the local actual facts, that is, the schools could adjust the standards according to the students' condition and needs. Hence, it was required for teachers to teach based on the standards' needs in order to increase students' comprehensive abilities. Rui indicated that he concerned on the development of the English curriculum standards and tried to implement them

into his own classroom teaching. He was the only teacher who directly connected English curriculum standards with classroom teaching.

High-stakes test. All the teachers thought what they and their students were fighting for the most was the National College Entrance Examination (NCEE). NCEE has been the top topic in China education for years (Zhang, 2016). Some teachers thought that most of their teaching behaviors aimed at NCEE, as Xian indicated in Excerpt 30.

Excerpt 30

Xian: I will ask them to write some basic things that I want to teach in the class.

Everyone must do it. Not just good students should do it. Usually I will walk around to make sure that they can do it.

Interviewer: If we think more about that, why students have to do that? Just now you mentioned you asked students to do something. So why?

Xian: Because we are in senior middle school, we have to prepare for the final examination-- Gao Kao, the college entrance examination. They should to do so. They have to do so.

Interviewer: But if we make an assumption that if we don't have to prepare that part, will you use the same way?

Xian: No. I will use other ways.

Interviewer: For example?

Xian: Maybe ...we will use different materials. We ...just like oral English teacher to do some more interesting things, not just memorize important phrases or other things. Maybe I will ask them to listen to some interesting music or something like that to communicate in English is my final goal if I don't want to prepare for the final examination. (Interview Xian, 478-490)

Some teachers still believed that emphasizing NCEE scores was due to the examination-orientation educational concept which has been replaced by quality-orientation educational concept. It should be noted that some teachers thought that the English textbook used and NCEE were not closely related to each other. They had to balance the textbook teaching and skills training for NCEE. Ling added that most of teachers had cut the listening practice from the textbook, because its score was no long accounted in NCEE result. So, all the teachers cut off some content that irrelevant to NCEE in the textbook. NCEE has been the top issue comparing with the text book and the national English curriculum standards behind the text book.

As one key subject out of three, English has been valued for decades in NCEE. As same as Chinese and mathematics, the students have to study English and try to get high scores. Teachers, including English teachers and class head teachers, as well, had to think more about how to help students improve students' scores in NCEE. NCEE is a competitive examination throughout China. Because a university normally fixes the

admission quota in a province with little change every year. And usually, the number of students who come from its home province is higher than that of other provinces. The advanced educational resources being unequally distributed throughout China based on their geographic regions is the reason for this inequality. For example, according to the compiled statistics published on the website of Peking University Enrollment Information ("Enrollment cut-off point," 2017), the quota of English major students for Beijing was 3, while for Gansu Province was 1. It means that Peking University recruited 3 students in Beijing (a municipality) and 1 student in Gansu (a province). To those who were eager to learn English in such a world-famous university, the NCEE scores must be outstanding. Ling expressed that she did not care how much the school would reward her when this batch of students graduate. She would love to see more students would be admitted into good universities.

These years, the weight of English in NCEE has been being decreased (Education Proposal, 2017, No.307). Students can take English assessment test two times a year and the best score would be accounted as the English result in NCEE. It has been implemented in some provinces in East or South China, such as Tianjin ("1 st English Examination in 2018 for NCEE Held Tomorrow," 2018), Beijing etc. ("What New NCEE Brought-- Focus on NCEE Reform in 2018," 2018). English teachers had a perceived responsibility of supporting students' success in NCEE.

The School policies. Some teachers expressed their concerns about the school policies, including school's mission, large size class, strict rules and teacher performance evaluation system.

School's mission. Under the direction of NCEE, it was noticed that the school highly rated the high score of NCEE among all the school issues, which was emphasized in the school introduction in its official online medium account. Some teachers showed their students monthly test scores to tell how their students performed in the English test or how they help lower score students. Hui and Xian thought they were still teaching in an examination-orientation era, although the curriculum has started promoting the quality-orientation learning concept. Hui described her compromises under such situation in Excerpt 31.

Excerpt 31

Interviewer: ... Could you give me some opinions about the schools' educational concept, or their policy?

Hui: How to say, I don't want to say much more about it. I think the leader in the school is very important for a school's development, especially their concept ... If the leaders cannot give us a healthy concept, maybe we will work very hard but get a little. Get a little from students from ourselves. Now you can see, we spend so much time, students spend so

much time in learning. But how about the effectiveness? I don't like this way of teaching and learning. But I have no rights.

Interviewer: No choice?

Hui: No choice. So, I will try my best to make our classes interesting and effective. At the same time, I hope students can get the high scores. So, I will try my best to get the balance in teaching and learning and better in the score and myself. (Interview Hui, 711-720)

Teachers' performance evaluation system. Some teachers expressed their concerns to the teacher performance evaluation system, in which the teachers are evaluated based on the students' scores. Ling thought it was either a restraint or a regulation to teachers. Hui thought it conflicted with the school educational concept of "never leave one student behind" which was stressed at the beginning of the semester. Too much pressure to Hui caused her upset and she even wished to escape from the school with expecting a baby. In Excerpt 32, Ling stated her decision under such situations.

Excerpt 32

Ling: 现在就是你要是想让你的班级出类拔萃。你是不是要想尽一切办法你提高学生的学习动力，提高学习兴趣，提高学习效率？你就要想尽一切办法，无论是平均分，指标分，贡献率。是不是要想尽一切办法？

You should do everything you can to excel your class. Should you do everything you can to promote students' motivation, to arouse students' learning interests and to increase learning effectiveness. You should do everything to improve the average scores, target scores and contribution rate. Should you do all your best? (Interview Ling, 896-898)

The school has a long history and its educational concept was transformed with the time and its leadership ("Introduction to Yu Zhong NO.1 Secondary School," 2017). As introduced in the literature review, the present leadership pursued the high admission rate to the university and uphold "competition". The whole school was in a competitive and tense atmosphere, either among students' scores, among rankings of classes, or among teachers. The teachers all felt the pressure from the teacher performance evaluation system. They had to fight for students' scores which were paid close attention by the school leadership. And also, they had to fight for their own "face" or living.

Large size of the class. Xian and Hao indicated that the classroom was so big with so many students in the classroom, as shown in Excerpt 33. More than 65 students were crammed a classroom. The teachers had to think about how to be fair to the students and have an effective class.

Excerpt 33

Rui: For such a large class, there are nearly 80 students. I think controlling is necessary. Otherwise they will become very...not in order. Some students will do as they like, maybe some students will make noise and some students will even say something unrelated to our class. So, control for big class is very necessary. (Interview Rui, 849-851)

Strict rules. Some teachers thought the management way adopted by the school was too severe for both teachers and students. For example, Hui gave students time to break for five minutes during the afternoon class at one time, which was encountered and criticized by the principal. No sleeping in the class and no smart phones allowed in the school was strictly implemented among students. Once the students were spotted to violate the school some rules, they were criticized in a relatively mild way. The most severe punishment for students was that they would be compelled home for some days or their parents would be “invited” to the classroom to study with the students for some time. Hui expressed her upsets for students’ psychological health and development. The teachers had to keep students awake and disciplinary in the classroom, and facing the possible situation once there was a parent sitting in the classroom.

Behind the time constraint. Most teachers gave their reasons of some instructional behaviors to be time constraint. “If I had enough time...” was inferred

many times. But the deep reason of time constraint was the contradiction of more content to learn or explain with low acceptance of students. Many teachers indicated that too many contents in the text book and exercise book to finish for students. Ling counted the periods used for one unit to achieve her teaching objective. Plus, she had to explain the exercises books and test papers. She admitted that she still need at least ten periods to finish one unit, although she had cut off some content to teach. Ling added her opinion on the too many teaching content in Excerpt 34.

Excerpt 34

Ling: 我说这个话，我觉得当然就是有些领导听了会不乐意听。但是实际上是教材限制了我的发挥，或者是我的策略的采取吗？不是。反倒是因为这些教辅的存在。...那些等于我现在上课，单词一节，warming 一节，reading 两节，grammar 一节，using language 一节。顶多有时拖拉一下，七节。一周的时间。我们讲的资料有时候不是光课时作业，练习册和报纸嘛。我们还有周考卷子和月考卷子。加上以后，一个单元把个一周的题都讲了。所以说这些做题呀，它就是因为这些东西加进来太多了，占用了课时量太大了，所以有时候逼的人没办法就删啊，删啊。

I think the leaders would be unhappy with what I say. But in fact, is the text book limited my teaching or how to use the strategies? No. It is the exercise books. I taught one unit in seven lessons—one for vocabulary,

one for warming, two for reading, one for grammar, one for using language, and extra one when are sluggish. One-week time. What we need to explain is not only the three types of exercises books, but also the test papers of weekly and monthly test. Adding those in the class time, it almost took one unit time to explain all the exercise in a week. Thus, the exercises are too many and occupied too much class time, which forced us to cut off, cut.

Interviewer: 对你课堂上激发学生有影响吗？

Does it influence you to stimulate students in the class?

Ling: 有影响。教辅...，其实上课你去讲学生听，有一个良性的互动。课堂气氛往往很好。但这个题讲不讲，必须要讲的。但是讲多了，你一连讲，学生就不爱听了。他没兴趣了...他反感英语就是作业太多嘛。如果作业少一点的话，我少做我精做嘛。...我主动性效率上去了。那是不是比做一整套题的效果有过之而无不及。我是这样觉得。多而泛滥。

Yes, it does. Exercises books. I told you now teaching text, you teach and students listen to you. There is a good interaction. And the classroom atmosphere is good. Explaining exercises is necessary. But if you spend much time in this, the students would not love to listen. They would lose interests... they dislike English for too much homework (exercises

books). If the homework become less, and do it with careful chosen... their autonomy would be heightened. That would be much effective than doing all. I think it is too many like flood.

(Interview Ling, 1008-1012)

Pressure from “Below”. The basic information of students was collected from the interviews and a school administrator. The students’ English competence and their nature in learning are reported.

English competence. Many teachers thought their students had relatively low academic performance. For example, Xian pointed out that the students did not have good English language and knowledge basis. So, she had to think about reducing the difficulty of the lesson. Wan, as shown in Excerpt 35, also had a negative perception of her students’ English abilities.

Excerpt 35

Wan: 比如说，就说是做一些比较难的问题那种的。他们有些难的问题就没法做下去。如果是我们在一二班去上吧，你可能七八分钟就搞定了。但如果在我们这个可能二十分钟也搞不定。因为他也不会说出什么东西。更多的是要老师给他支持，老师给更多线索。这样的话我会觉得普通班的拔尖的学生很吃亏的。因为他没有得到很好的提升。因为整体水平的差异，就会把难度降低。

For example, about some more difficult questions. They (her students) cannot do some harder questions. If I did this in class 1 or 2, you may spend seven to eight minutes. But in my class, they even cannot finish it within 20 minutes. Because they can say anything. They need teachers to support and give more clues. So, I feel sorry for the good students in ordinary classes. They lost chance to improve. The difficulty is decreased because of the level of the whole class. (Interview Wan, 528-531)

Based on the information collected from Rui of the school, the means of the entrance examination score and the first monthly test scores of each observed class were illustrated in the Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3

Academic Background of the Observed Classes

Class	Mean of the English score in the School Entrance Examination (Total score 150)	Mean of the first monthly English test (Total score 120)
Class (2) of Hao	123.6	82.7
Class (4) of Rui	110	69.5
Class (6) of Ling	94.6	57.5
Class (12) of Xian	97.2	59.7
Class (13) of Hui	95	58.2

Class (16) of Wan	93.1	54.5
Mean of Grade 10	100.78	62.27

*Note: The common pass standard is 60% of the full score, that is, 90 and 72 for each.

It was found that the mean of the English scores in the entrance examination of observed classes were varied. Although all the mean scores have passed the common pass standard 60%, only two classes were beyond the mean of the grade. Other classes were lower than the average level. But comparing the mean score of the class, it was found that the academic performance was much better in the entrance examination than the monthly test. In the monthly English test, only two classes were beyond the average of the grade, but only one class passed the 60% standard. The rest classes were all below the common pass standards. There was a big gap between the highest mean score and the lowest mean score. It uncovered the academic background of the students of the observed classes was not good, and their English competence was not high. Wan, in Excerpt 36 thought that the discrepancies among students due to their own background, such as living in different regions or types of families.

Excerpt 36

Wan: 西部的学生我觉得在语言方面真的是，他可能自己的认知度不是很高。...

你看我们的学生来源，有来自农村的，有来自城市的，有来自山区的，

层次就是参差不齐的。然后就是可能他们的学习的兴趣度也是有差别的。

就是本着学生发展的角度吧，还是要把他们要操心着些。

Our students in north China, I think, in the aspect of language learning, they do not have higher cognitive ability. You can see the source of students. Some are rural, some are urban, and some come from mountainous areas. They are on diverse levels. ... they might have different levels of interests of learning. I would like to have more concern for students' development. (Interview Wan, 35-37)

Students' nature. The students in the classroom were not active. All the teachers had agreement on this and they all endeavored to have students performed more active. Some teachers believed that students did not have good habits in learning which should be developed, they thought, in junior high school. Thus, some teachers attributed the low ability, negative attitude towards English and bad habits of students to the lower secondary school education. All the teachers described that many students lacked of interests in English learning. Hui thought her students were not active in the classroom by using “*not in a studying state*”. Xian described students sleeping in the classroom in a sympathetic consideration way-- “Students had a lot to do a day, which made them so tired.” Wan claimed that the students in the class were always sleepy for two reasons. One reason was the teachers who cannot give full

play of the students' initiative. Another reason was the students' low ability that make them lose the interests in the class, especially the boys. Rui clearly pointed out that how he would treat students once the students did not show their interests, as shown in Excerpt 37.

Excerpt 37

Interviewer: Which way do you prefer? Controlling or arousing interests?

Rui: Maybe according to the cases. I will use it according to different situations, different cases. According to my experience. I think maybe this is a good way here, this is not suitable here. This is what we call experience.

Interviewer: Can you give an example? An example that which situation will you control them, which situation will you arouse their interest?

Rui: For example, if you give something new or surprising, he will be interested in what he will learn. If the student is the one who can be made to study by interest, I will of course use the way to arouse his interests. But the students if you give any, he still just sits there, he will not be interested in what he is given to study. In this case of course you should try to control, try to force them to learn, which is kind of power.

(Interview Rui, 708-716)

Additionally, one teacher used word “lazy” to describe the students in learning. Some teachers reported that the students’ English learning habits were not good, and their beliefs about the importance of English were interfered by their lower secondary school teachers. The students became to like being controlled by their teachers in learning. Excerpt 38 is utterance recited by Rui who heard that from his students.

Excerpt 38

Rui: I heard some students said that “if my teacher did not punish me or if my teacher did not criticize me, or even beat me that time, I would not study.” (Interview Rui, 754-755)

Overall, the reasons that teachers gave for their use of motivational strategies were categorized into pressure from “above” and pressure from “below” including the influences from the text book, the school, the time constraint and students’ competence and nature of learning.

How do teachers’ beliefs and contextual factors influence the use of motivational strategies?

The research question 4 was answered in two aspects: influence of teachers’ beliefs on motivational strategies; influence of contextual factors on motivational strategies. The synthesis of the answers from the first three research questions (See Table 4.4) was used to answer the first aspect. The reasons behind the teachers’ use

of motivational strategies referring to the contextual factors was used to answer the second aspect.

Table 4. 4

Teachers' Motivation Styles and Beliefs

Teacher	Motivational style	Teachers' beliefs		
		Importance of motivation	Level of students' motivation	Effective motivational strategies
Hui	Controlling	Important	Not specified	Autonomy supportive
Ling	Controlling	Important	Low	Autonomy supportive
Xian	Controlling	Important	Varied	Autonomy supportive
Hao	Controlling	Important	Varied	Controlling
Rui	Controlling	Important	High	Controlling
Wan	Controlling	Important	Moderate	Autonomy supportive

The findings about the teachers' beliefs and motivational strategies suggest that no matter what the teachers believed about motivational strategies and students' motivation, all the teachers showed the tendency of being controlling in the classroom practice. As shown in Table 4.4, all the teachers believed that motivation was important. Their beliefs also reflected in their classroom practice that all of them employed a variety of motivation strategies in the classrooms. However, the teachers' beliefs about the effective motivational strategies were not consistent with their actual

motivational practices. All of them were observed to be controlling style teachers, while their beliefs did not show the same trend. Only two teachers showed a tendency to be controlling both in beliefs and practices, while the other four teachers believed in autonomy supportive strategies, but exercised controlling strategies. The inconsistent pattern between teachers' beliefs and their use of motivational strategies suggest that other factors may have influenced the teachers' practices in motivating the students. This thus leads to the analysis of the effects of contextual factors.

Considering the contextual factors that each teacher mentioned in the interview, the data revealed the influence of six contextual factors, i.e. the national English curriculum, high-stakes test, the school policy, time constraints, the students' English competence and their nature, on teachers' use of motivational strategies.

The national English curriculum standards required the teachers to help students achieve the English standards (MOE, 2003) as shown in Appendix N. Rui explained some parts of the national English curriculum standards in interview and expressed his willingness to try student-centered approach in the class to meet the curriculum requirements. He was observed to teach inductively to encourage students to work on their own. On the other hand, Rui complained that the text book design according to the national English curriculum standards was too complicated as shown in Excerpt 28, which occupied class time. Xian expressed her worries about the

difficulty of English for her students. The perceived difficulty in learning the curriculum for Grade 10 students and the content in the text books made Xian prefer to decrease the difficulty of the lessons or activities to enhance students' understanding and feel the sense of achievement (Excerpt 14).

Besides the curriculum standards, the most influential factor NCEE was a key determinant. As Xian stated in the interview shown as Excerpt 30, she had a perceived responsibility to help her students to pass the examination –Gao Kao (NCEE) with a relatively satisfying results. She would prefer to teach in another way to attract students if they did not need to worry about NCEE. It was observed that all teachers left at least one period to explain test paper or exercise book, although most teachers expressed that they were tired of doing that and there was too much content to teach or explain (Excerpt 34). NCEE pushed the teachers to prioritize the test scores.

All the teachers showed their concern of the school policies in the interviews. Hui expressed her worry about the teacher evaluation system and struggle for her students' examination results. Then, she was observed to use more directives and commands in the classroom to involve all the students. She stated the reason in the Excerpt 39

Hui: 我就想, 你为了他这个评价体系 · 那得就中上的学生吧 · 中等偏上的学生要抓起来 · 然后前面学的好的英语不好的同学 · 单个得抓 · .

I think, just for the teacher evaluation system, I must focus on medium-high levels of students. Watching on students above middle level. And individually help students who had excellent total score but low English ability. (Interview Hui, 443-444)

Striving for high NCEE rates and trying hard to improve the scores had become a main school running objective as introduced in Chapter 3. The school schedules many tests for students to finish and requires every class to post a ranking list with students' names on it to record students' test rankings.

Comparing the school to a classroom, the teachers would be the students in said classroom. The principal would be a teacher trying to motivate other teachers to work hard and students to study and behave well by using extrinsic sources-- rewards for teachers and punishment for students. There is no doubt that the intrinsic motivation of teachers in working and of students in learning is largely thwarted.

The teachers controlling behaviors were also influenced by the students. As shown in Table 4.2, the students' motivation level was not the determining factor for teachers' controlling. Thus, the controlling class practice was induced by the teachers' negative evaluation for their own students' competence and classroom performance. Wan stated in interview why she did not use activities as Excerpt 35 illustrates. She believed her students could not perform well in the classroom and did not believe

their students had sufficient competence for learning individually or effectively. Most of the teachers, like Hui, had an expectation of active participation in the classroom, but the students' inactive nature produced the pressure of motivating students to the teachers, in order to achieve the goal of active students' participation in the classes. It was observed that Hui used more activities than other teachers. But in the post-observation interview, she was still not satisfied with students' classroom performance. "Not active" she said. The students' inactiveness drove teachers to change their motivational strategies as the example shown in Excerpt 1. Hao had to be controlling towards students since no one actively answered his questions. Ling was observed to punish students when she found students' performance was short of her expectation (Excerpts 4 and 9), though this was contrary to her beliefs in regard to motivating students through building good relationships with them.

In addition, students' habits of being controlling made teachers controlling as well. As Rui stated in Excerpt 26, once students cannot be motivated by arousing interest, controlling motivational strategies were used. The students (as he described in Excerpt 38) would probably be motivated by adopting controlling motivational strategies.

Overall, the factors "above" and "below" influenced teachers. The conflict of teachers' beliefs and motivational strategies was born of the discrepancies between

contextual factors and their ideals. The contextual factors were considered by teachers as pressure though some of them tried to find ways to deal with the pressures to reconcile their action with their beliefs.



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, a summary of findings, and a discussion of the findings in comparison with the previous studies. In addition, the limitation of the study, pedagogical implications, and suggestions for future research are presented.

Summary of the study

This study was qualitative research that investigated the relationships among EFL teachers' motivational strategies, beliefs and contextual factors in the region of Northwest China. Six 10th Grade English teachers who were teaching English in an upper secondary school with more than 5 years of teaching experiences in the school were observed and interviewed over a period of one month in 2017.

Each teacher was observed in their English classroom five times to learn about their motivational strategies. After each observation, the teacher was interviewed to confirm their motivational instructional behaviors and inquire the reasons behind their behaviors. Finally, after all five observations, a final interview was conducted. The post-observation interviews and final interviews were used to elicit teachers' beliefs

regarding students' motivation and motivational strategies and the contextual factors that might affect their motivation practices. Coding was used to analyze the data from the two sources.

Summary of the findings

The present study unveiled the findings according to the four research questions. First, the data showed that most teachers in Northwest China had the intention to motivate their students in classroom by employing various motivational strategies. The teachers overall conducted their classes using mainly teacher-centered methods, which illustrated the tendency of the controlling style; however, they also intermittently made attempts to use some strategies to support students' autonomy, competence and relatedness. The controlling motivational strategies observed involved exercising teachers' authority, relying on external sources, evoking tense feelings, asking close-ended questions and giving answers directly. The autonomy supportive motivational strategies observed included enhancing students' understanding, arousing students' interests, asking thought-provoking questions, leaving time for the students to work independently, and providing encouragement.

Secondly, the data revealed that all the teachers believed that motivation to be important for students in learning English. Most of them thought the students in their classes had different types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, or no

motivation. For the belief about which motivational strategies were effective, two teachers thought externalized or controlling strategies were the most effective, while the other four thought autonomy supportive strategies were effective.

Third, the interviews revealed that the teachers experienced contextual factors introduced both from “above” and “below”. The teachers felt pressure from “above” such as the national curriculum, NCEE, school educational concept, as well as the teacher performance evaluation system. The pressure from “below” was mainly due to the teachers’ negative perception of students’ competence, classroom performance or response, and students’ motivation level.

Lastly, the findings show that pressure from contextual factors influenced the teachers’ motivational practices whereas teacher beliefs did not show effects. No matter what beliefs about the motivational strategies the teachers held, they all exercised more controlling strategies in the classroom.

Discussions

This section presents the discussions of the three major findings about the EFL teachers in Northwest China in light of other previous studies, both in China and other similar contexts.

Northwest China EFL teachers tended to rely on controlling motivational strategies regardless of their beliefs. In this study, the EFL teachers in Northwest

China were overall found to typically use a controlling style in their classroom, although they were also observed to use some autonomy supportive motivational strategies. The six teachers tended to rely on motivating the students using external sources such as authority, incentives, punishments, and so on. This result is consistent with the findings in previous studies conducted in China and similar EFL context (Loima & Vibulphol, 2014; Reeve, 2009; Wu, 2002). Li (2005) founded that Chinese lower secondary school teachers tended to be controlling style. Similarly, Vibulphol (2016) found that, in Thailand, controlling strategies were commonly used by ninth grade English teachers.

The trend in the use of controlling motivational strategies of the teachers in this study suggested there is an inconsistency between teachers' motivational practices and teacher beliefs. Four teachers reported their beliefs in autonomy supportive strategies, and two believed in controlling strategies; however, their practices were the same, adopting the controlling style. Such inconsistency between teacher instructional practices and teacher beliefs have been found in various studies, for example, Vibulphol (2004), Muñoz and Ramirez (2015) and Hornstra et al. (2015). In the same line, studies that looked into the motivational practices of Chinese teachers also showed discrepancy in beliefs and practices such as found in this study (e.g. Lou & Liao, 2005; X. Yang, 2015; X. Zheng, 2004).

The practice of the controlling strategies may due to two main reasons, contextual factors (cf. Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2017; Phipps & Borg, 2009; X. Zheng & Borg, 2013) and Chinese culture (cf. Hornstra et al., 2015; Pelletier et al., 2002; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009; Wehmeyer, Shogren, Little, & Lopez, 2017; Yu et al., 2018).

First, the contextual factors that the teachers in this study experienced seemed to create pressures from both “above” and “below” and affected their choices of motivational strategies (cf. Hornstra et al., 2015; Pelletier et al., 2002).

For the pressure “above”, the influence of school policy and high-stakes tests was identified in this study. The data from this present study showed how some teachers who were concerned about enhancing students’ interests and intrinsic motivation strived to be autonomy supportive. Due, however, to the requirements of school policy and national examination for high school students, their instructional practices often turned to controlling mode in order to meet the school’s expectations of “high-quality” teaching, which indicated by students’ performance on tests and high rates of admission to universities ("Introduction to Yu Zhong NO.1 Secondary School," 2017) and put aside their preferred teaching methods.

NCEE, the national university admission examination in China, seemed to be the main influential factor in this study (cf. Zhang, 2016). As E. Wong (2012) reported, NCEE was the test perceived to determine the future life of Chinese youth. In this

study, NCEE was found to influence not only the school policy, but also teachers' instruction and use of motivational strategies (Yu et al., 2018). Although China is undergoing curriculum reform to promote high quality education and aim at developing competences (SCIO, 2016), some teachers in the school reported that they had to teach for "examination". The clear trend of controlling motivational style in this study proves how NCEE can overridden other factors, including the teachers' own beliefs, in influencing the teachers' practice in motivational strategies. This again provides proof of how NCEE can affect teachers' classroom practices (cf. Shin et al., 2018; Zhang, 2016).

For the pressure "below", the teachers' perception of the students' classroom performance, English ability and behavioral nature seemed to influence the teachers' motivational practices; however, their assessment of the students' motivation did not show a clear relationship. These findings are then only inconsistent partly with previous studies that suggested how teachers' perception of students' motivational level and performance can affect their motivational practices (e.g. Hornstra et al., 2015; Pelletier et al., 2002; Pelletier & Sharp, 2009; Pelletier & Vallerand, 1996). In these previous studies, the teachers' assessment of students' motivation affected their choices of motivational strategies, making them be a controlling teacher when seeing the lack of

motivation in their students. Differently in this study, all teachers adopted the controlling style no matter what their perception of the students' motivational levels.

Last but not least, Chinese culture seemed to be very influential on the teachers' motivational practices. The controlling strategies observed in this study symbolize Confucianism ideology, which embraces the hierarchical structure of relationships in classrooms, as explained by Edwards and Li (2011). They explained that in Chinese culture, the teacher is respected as the authority in the class and is responsible for the students' learning outcomes. Similarly, Han (802) described a teacher as “师者·传道授业解惑者也。” (《师说》·韩愈) which can be translated as “one who could propagate the doctrine, impart professional knowledge, and resolve doubts.” On the other hand, students are expected to be obedient and follow the teacher's orders (N. Zhou et al., 2012). Evidently, the six teachers in the present study performed their expected role effectively. Typical strategies observed in this study included the teachers' role of the authority appointing who to participate in a given activity or circling around the class to enforce students' participation.

Some unique motivational strategies in EFL classrooms in Northwest China.

Teachers were found to motivate students using some special techniques employing either controlling or autonomy supportive strategies. The controlling motivational strategies found in this study had much in common with previous studies (Reeve,

2016b; Reeve & Jang, 2006) such as giving direct answers, and/or introducing extrinsic resources. There were two categories of motivational strategies with some unique techniques either clearly observed or mentioned in interviews that were never reported as motivational strategies in previous studies. One was “exercising teacher authority” through “picking students directly”, “inspecting students” by circling around the classroom, and “uttering directives” in controlling style. Those had a similar nature to the instructional behaviors grouped by Reeve and Jang (2006) and Reeve (2016b). They believed teachers took priorities from their own perspective and commanded students without providing rationales, inadvertently controlling students.

Another special strategy was “enhancing students’ understanding” in autonomy supportive style by “informing learning objectives”, “decreasing difficulties of lessons or activities” and “reviewing learnt content”. Nunan (2003) and Chang et al. (2017) explained that with knowledge of what they are going to learn and deliberately easy understandable instructions, students could have own plan in the learning process which supports their autonomous learning. In this study, all the teachers believed students had difficulty in English learning, and so they emphasized students’ understanding of the learnt content which induced a sense of achievement or competence satisfactory to the students, as explained by Reeve (2016b), Cox and Williams (2008) and McEown et al. (2014) who found that students were more

internally motivated when they thought teachers supported their competence or mastery.

Additionally, it should be noticed that providing choices or options that SDT advocated (Ryan & Deci, 2017) to enhance autonomy and providing rationales (Reeve et al., 2002) which can promote relatedness were not found in this study. M. Zhou et al. (2009) suggested that the teachers in rural China should provide more choices for students, otherwise, students' intrinsic motivation will not be cultivated. Although a few teachers expressed that good relationship could motivate the students in interviews--which was supported by Bao and Lam (2008) and Y. Yang (2012)--it should be noted that, even if the teachers internally motivated students through autonomy supportive techniques to create the sense of competence or relatedness, students' intrinsic motivation cannot actually be enhanced without supporting their autonomy (Chang et al., 2017; Eckes et al., 2018; Reeve, 2016a; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

At last, teachers' interpretation of how to motivate students were different from previous studies. Teachers' beliefs about the functions of some strategies did not serve as they expected. The beliefs that holding a contest with rewards could raise students' interest in learning can drive an autonomy supportive style teacher to use competitions in the classroom, which thwarts students' intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 490). Thus, the teachers in Northwest China was advised to join the

professional development, as Jun (2016) emphasized. He explained that teachers in Northwest China might lack of updated teaching concepts and in-service training could facilitate teachers to be more in line with modern development and educational reforms.

Limitations of the study

Although the present study revealed many insights about Chinese EFL teachers' in Northwest China, the findings should be reviewed with some cautions. Firstly, as reported at the end of the first research question, during the process of classroom observation, some teacher strategies used were observed just once, and therefore cannot necessarily be judged as a trend. So, those strategies were not reported in this study. Secondly, while this study investigated the motivational strategies used by the teachers in the classroom and interpreted effects of the strategies based on theories, it did not extend to exploring how those strategies affected the students' intrinsic motivation. Lastly, since this is merely a case study, the general extrapolations and application to a larger segment of the population was not an objective.

Pedagogical implications

This present study has some pedagogical implications for EFL teachers. First, since some EFL teachers had different beliefs about the functions of their motivational strategies, there is the possibility of misinterpretation and misunderstanding. There is a necessity to clarify teachers' concepts in regard to guarantee to their tactics to ensure

that what they do leads to the desired result. Secondly, it was found that contextual factors heavily influenced the EFL teachers a lot in their classroom practices. Teachers should have greater awareness of this influence from contextual factors and seek possible ways of mitigating its effects on their classroom practices. Third, though all teachers intended to raise students' interest in English learning, the methods of arousing students' interest were overly simple and limited, especially in the design of the observed activities. It is therefore recommended a program be deliberately created to provide EFL teachers with more methods of arousing students' interests in English learning. Lastly, it was found that most of the class time, EFL teachers still taught in a traditional teacher-centered way through translation. It was thus suggested that the professional development of EFL teachers among either pre-service or in-service teachers should be enhanced. Sustainable self-improvement should be encouraged.

Suggestions for future research

Since this study only focused on five periods of English classes for each participant, and more observations might yield more findings on teachers' strategies. Thus, a longitudinal and more wide-ranging study is warranted to detect and understand such patterns more clearly, in order to improve Chinese EFL teachers' motivational strategies and better direct their pedagogical implications. As this study focused on teachers' motivational strategies and beliefs only, not delving into how

teachers' motivational strategies might actually effect students' motivation, further study is needed to grasp from the students' perspective what motivational strategies really affect their intrinsic motivation in that regard.



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APPENDIX

Appendix A

Pre-Analysis Questionnaire

Instructions

Here are two different approaches to instruction. We are interested in how much each way of teaching describes what you do in the classroom as well as your impressions and beliefs about each way of teaching. Please read the Teaching Scenario#1 and take a moment to think about that approach to instruction. For the 4 statements below that approach to instruction, we ask you to please circle a number from 1 to 7 to communicate how much or how little that way of teaching describes what you do (or would do) in the classroom. Please read the Teaching Scenario#2 and again take a moment to think about that approach to instruction. For the 4 statements below that approach to instruction, we again ask you to circle a number from 1 to 7 to communicate how much or how little it describes what you do (or would do) in the classroom. There are no right or wrong answers. Instead, we are interested in learning about your approach to teaching.

Teaching Scenario #1:

As you plan and prepare for an upcoming lesson, you think about what needs to be covered. You make a step-by-step plan of what students are supposed to do and when they are supposed to do it. As the class period begins, you tell students what to do, monitor their compliance closely, and when needed make it clear that there is no time to waste. To keep students on-task, you make sure they follow your directions, obey your assignments, and basically do what they are supposed to do while not doing what they are not supposed to do. When students stray off task, you correct them saying, “You should be working now”, “act responsibly”, and “there is a time for work and there is a time for talk—now is a time for work.” To motivate students, you offer little incentives and privileges. When students encounter difficulties and setbacks, you intervene quickly to show and tell them the right way to do it. When they do what you tell them to do and when they produce right answers, you smile and give your praise. When they don’t do what you tell them to do and when they misbehave, you make it clear that you are in charge and that it is your responsibility to make sure that they act responsibly and complete their work. Overall, you take a “no-nonsense” attitude and make sure students do what you tell them to do, even if it means you need to push and pressure them into doing what they are supposed and required to do.

Please answer the 4 questions below in reference to Teaching Scenario#1.

	No, not at all			Yes, very much so			
1. This approach to teaching describes how I teach my students on a daily basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. This approach to teaching nicely describes what I do during class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. This is an accurate and true description of what I do during my teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do NOT teach this way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Teaching Scenario #2:

As you plan and prepare for an upcoming lesson, you think about what your students want and need. You wonder if students will find the lesson interesting and relevant to their lives. To support their interest and valuing of the lesson, you prepare some resources in advance so that they can see how interesting and how important the lesson truly is. To better engage students in the lesson, you create a challenging activity for students to do, and you create some engaging questions to pique their interest. As the class period begins, you invite your students' input and suggestions before finalizing the day's lesson plan, letting your students know that you welcome and value their initiative, ideas, and suggestions. To motivate students, you take the time to explain why the lesson is important, how it aligns with their personal goals, and why it is a truly worthwhile thing to do. When students encounter difficulties and setbacks, you display patience—giving them the time and space they need to figure out the problem for themselves. When students complain and show little or no initiative, you acknowledge and accept their negative feelings, telling them that you understand why they might feel that way, given the difficulty and complexity of the lesson. As you talk with your students, you resist any pressuring language such as “you should”, “you must”, and “you have to.” Instead, you communicate your understanding and encouragement. Overall, you take your students' perspective, welcome their thoughts, feelings, and actions into the flow of the lesson, and support their developing capacity for autonomous self-regulation.

Please answer the 4 questions below in reference to Teaching Scenario #2.

	No, not at all			Yes, very much so			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. This approach to teaching describes how I teach my students on a daily basis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. This approach to teaching nicely describes what I do during class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. This is an accurate and true description of what I do during my teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do NOT teach this way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B

Motivation Style Questionnaire Evaluation Form

Two statements below will be used to determine what motivational style each teacher is. Scenario 1 describes a teacher with highly autonomy supportive motivational style, while scenario 2 describes a highly controlling motivational style. Please evaluate the two scenarios whether they can be used in Chinese context. Also, please add your comments to clarify your evaluation. Thank you for your time and contribution!

NO.	Scenario	Experts' Opinion			R	IOC
		1	0	-1		
1	As you plan and prepare for an upcoming lesson, you think about what your students want and need. You wonder if students will find the lesson interesting and relevant to their lives. To support their interest and valuing of the lesson, you prepare some resources in advance so that they can see how interesting and how important the lesson truly is. To better engage students in the lesson, you create a challenging activity for students to do, and you create some engaging questions to pique their interest. As the class period begins, you invite your students' input and suggestions before finalizing the day's lesson plan, letting your students know that you welcome and value their initiative, ideas, and suggestions. To motivate students, you take the time to explain why the lesson is important, how it aligns with their personal goals, and why it is a truly worthwhile thing to do. When students encounter difficulties and setbacks, you display patience—giving them the time and space they need to figure out the problem for themselves. When students complain and show little or no initiative, you acknowledge and accept their negative feelings, telling them that you understand why they might feel that way, given the difficulty and complexity of the lesson. As you talk with your students, you resist any pressuring language such as “you should”, “you must”, and “you have to.” Instead, you communicate your understanding and encouragement. Overall, you take your students' perspective, welcome their thoughts, feelings, and actions into the flow of the lesson, and support their developing capacity for autonomous self-regulation.	3	-	-	3	1

NO.	Scenario	Experts' Opinion			R	IOC
		1	0	-1		
2	As you plan and prepare for an upcoming lesson, you think about what needs to be covered. You make a step-by-step plan of what students are supposed to do and when they are supposed to do it. As the class period begins, you tell students what to do, monitor their compliance closely, and when needed make it clear that there is no time to waste. To keep students on-task, you make sure they follow your directions, obey your assignments, and basically do what they are supposed to do while not doing what they are not supposed to do. When students stray off task, you correct them saying, "You should be working now", "act responsibly", and "there is a time for work and there is a time for talk—now is a time for work." To motivate students, you offer little incentives and privileges. When students encounter difficulties and setbacks, you intervene quickly to show and tell them the right way to do it. When they do what you tell them to do and when they produce right answers, you smile and give your praise. When they don't do what you tell them to do and when they misbehave, you make it clear that you are in charge and that it is your responsibility to make sure that they act responsibly and complete their work. Overall, you take a "no-nonsense" attitude and make sure students do what you tell them to do, even if it means you need to push and pressure them into doing what they are supposed and required to do.	3	-	-	3	1
Mean Score of IOC (N=3)						1

Appendix C

Information Sheet

You are invited to participate in a study entitled “Relationships among EFL Teacher Motivational Strategies, Beliefs, and Contextual Factors” conducted by Xiaosu Chen, a master’s degree candidate in the Master of Education Program in Teaching English as Foreign Language at Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand. This study is conducted as a part of the requirements of the program under the supervision of Jutarat Vibulphol, Ph.D.. To help you understand the context of the study and your participation in the study before making decision, please take time to read the following information.

What is the purpose of the study?

This study focuses on the instructional strategies that Chinese teachers of English use in their classroom and the reasons underlying it.

Why am I invited to be a participant in this study?

You are invited to participate in this study because of your teaching experiences as a teacher of English in China.

Do I have to agree to this invitation?

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There will be no effect on your evaluation at work.

What do I need to do as a participant in this study?

By agreeing to participate in this study, you will be observed in your English classes five times between November and December 2017. After each observation, there will be a post-observation interview which will take about 15-20 minutes. And after all the observations, there will be a final interview which will take approximately 45-60 minutes.

The class observations and interviews will be scheduled based on your convenience and availability. However, the post-observation must be conducted shortly after each observation and before the subsequent observation.

The class will be observed using field notes and all the interviews will be audiotaped. The researcher will observe the class in a silent manner without involvement or

interruption in the class activities. Photos of class activities and materials may be taken as a supplement of the field notes.

How will my identity be kept confidential?

The information that is collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. Your names will not be used in recording nor publishing the data. Instead, a created identification number and name will be used. The field notes and interview recordings and transcripts will be kept in a safe place during the time of the research and will only be used for the purpose of this research. The data will be destroyed after the project is complete.

What benefits will I gain from this study?

For direct benefits, since the data from the observations and interviews will be shared with you, you will gain insights about our own instructional practices and the factors that may influence your practice. Also, your participation will help us understand what goes on in English classrooms in China in terms of the strategies that the English teachers use in promoting students' motivation and learning.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?

You may withdraw from the study any time. And once you request to do so, the data collected from you, to date, will be destroyed.

How will the finding of this study be used?

The findings of this study will be written as a master's thesis and be published by Chulalongkorn University. Also, parts of the study will be published as an article in an academic journal and presented at a conference.

Who organizes or sponsors this study?

This study is conducted as a part of the master's study requirements and funded partly by Chulalongkorn University.

Who do I contact if I have further questions or concerns about this study?

You may contact the researcher directly:

Xiaosu Chen (陈晓夙)

E-mail address: ldkichen@gmail.com, or ldkichen@163.com

Tel: 13836106292 (China). 66-0899680687 (Thailand)

Or contact the advisor:

Jutarat Vibulphol, Ph.D.

Faculty of Education, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

E-mail: jutarat.v@chula.ac.th

Tel: +66818245585

Thank you for your cooperation. Let me know if you have any questions or concerns regarding your participation in the study.



Xiaosu Chen
19 November 2017

Appendix D

Consent Form

I have been invited to participate in the study entitled “Relationships among EFL Teacher Motivational Strategies, Beliefs, and Contextual Factors” conducted by Xiaosu Chen, a master’s degree candidate in the Master of Education Program in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand.

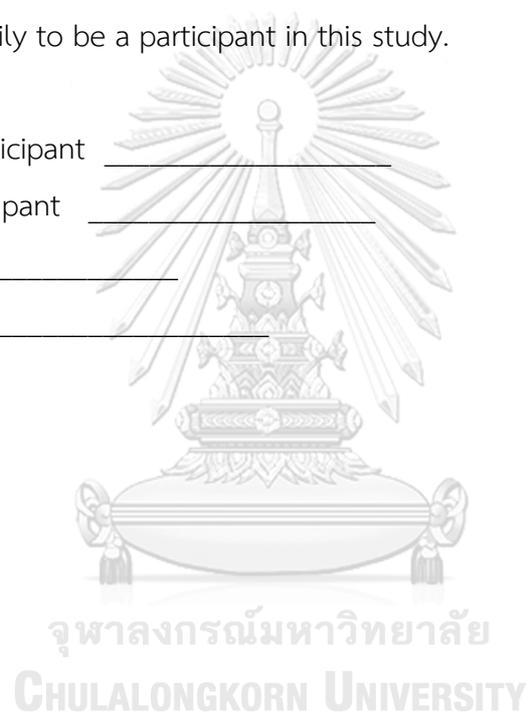
I have read the information sheet. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study.

Print Name of Participant _____

Signature of Participant _____

Date _____

Day/Month/Year _____



Appendix E

Results of Evaluation Form for Post-Observation Interview Questions

No	Questions	Experts' Opinion			R	IOC
		1	0	-1		
Opening Questions						
	Before starting each interview, 1-2 simple questions about the participant or the participant's general experience of the day will be used. For example, -How is your day so far? -How many lessons do you have today? -Anything exciting today? -How's the situation in the school this week?	3	-	-	3	1
Main Questions						
1.	How was the class today?	2	1	-	2	.67
2.	Please describe how the students involved/ participated in you class today?	3	-	-	3	1
3.	What did you do to keep the students' attention in the lesson?	2	1	-	2	.67
4.	Why did you _____? (This question will be based on the responses to Question No.3)	3	-	-	3	1
5.	How often do you _____? (This question will be based on the responses to Question No.3)	3	-	-	3	1
6.	Is there any other method/strategy that you use in the same situation?	3	-	-	3	1

No	Questions	Experts' Opinion			R	IOC
		1	0	-1		
7.	Why didn't you use _____ in this lesson? (This question will be based on the responses to Question No.4 and No.6.)	3	-	-	3	1
Closing Questions						
	To end each interview session, one of the following questions will be used: -About your lesson today, are there any other comments that you want to add? -What do you think is the most important thing that we talked about today?	2	1	-	2	.67
Mean Score of IOC (N=3)						.89

Appendix F

Results of Evaluation Form for Final Interview Questions

No.	Questions	Experts' Opinion			R	IOC
		1	0	-1		
Opening Question						
	Today is our final interview. First of all, thank you very much for allowing me to observe all your classes and discuss with you about your lessons. How do you feel about being observed and interviewed?	3	-	-	3	1
Main Questions						
1.	What do you think the motivation of the students is in general?	2	1	-	2	.67
2.	How would you describe the students' motivation in your class?	2	1	-	2	.67
3.	How important is it for the teachers to do something to promote students' motivation during the lesson? Why?	2	1	-	2	.67
4.	What are the strategies that you think can motivate students?	3	-	-	3	1
5.	Do you use these strategies in your classroom? Why (Why not)?	2	1	-	2	.67
6.	According to observations and interviews, the following strategies were used in your lessons. Can you confirm again with whether my note is correct? (Show a list of strategies that the participant used or reported using).					
6.1	Why did you use these strategies?	3	-	-	3	1
6.2	How do your students respond to these strategies?	3	-	-	3	1
6.3	How do these affect their motivation?	3	-	-	3	1

No.	Questions	Experts' Opinion			R	IOC
		1	0	-1		
6.4	Which strategy is the most important and effective? Why?	2	1	-	2	.67
Closing Questions						
	Thank you for your time, collaboration and sharing. Before we end, is there anything else that you would like to add regarding the students' motivation and your use of motivational strategies?	3	-	-	3	1
Mean Score of IOC (N=3)						.85



Appendix G

Semi-Structured Interview Guidelines

Post-Observation Interview Questions

Opening questions (each for one day)

- How is your day so far?
- How many lessons do you have today?
- Anything exciting today?
- How's the situation in the school this week?

Main Questions

1. How was the class today? (How satisfied were you with the class today? Today, did you achieve your goals /objectives/ outcomes of teaching? How?)
2. Please describe how the students involved /participated in your class today?
3. What did you do to keep the students' attention in the lesson? (What did you do to make students want / determined to learn?)
4. Why did you _____?
5. How often do you _____? Why?
6. Are there any other methods/ strategies that you use in the same situation?
7. Why didn't you use _____ in this lesson?
8. What would you have done differently today?

Closing Questions

1. About your lesson today, are there any other comments that you want to add?
2. What do you think is the most important thing that we talked about today?

Final Interview Questions

Opening Question

After one-week observation and interview, we finally come to the final interview.

Thank you for your collaboration these days. What's your feeling of being observed and interviewed? Hope I didn't disturb you and your students. (Have our conversations been helpful in getting you to think of other strategies that you know but might not have thought about? Or reflecting more once your selection of strategies to fit in certain groups of students?)

Main Questions

1. What do you think the motivation of the students is in general? (Did you see it in your class)
2. How would you describe the students' motivation in this class? (What makes the differences? whole class / individual?)
3. How important is it for the teachers to do something to promote students' motivation during the lesson? Why?
4. What are strategies do you believe can motivate your class?
5. Do you use these strategies in your classroom? Why (not)?
6. According to observations and interviews, following strategies were used in your lessons.....
 - 6.1 Why did you use these strategies?
 - 6.2 How do your students respond to these strategies?
 - 6.3 How do these affect their motivation?
 - 6.4 Which strategy is the most important and effective motivational strategies? Why?

Closing Question

Have our conversations been helpful in getting you to think of other strategies that you know but might not have thought about? Or reflecting more once your selection of strategies to fit in certain groups of students?

Thank you for your time, collaboration and sharing. Before we end, is there anything else that you would like to add regarding the students' motivation and your use of motivational strategies? (What have you learned about your own teaching and learning-any realization resulting from this process of sharing?)

Appendix H

Data Collecting Process

Week	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5
Mon.	Hui O1 C(13)& POI*	-	Wan O2C(16) & POI; Xian O3C(12) & POI	Wan O3C(16) & POI	Hao O4C(2) & POI; Hui O5C(7) & POI
Tues.	Ling O1 C(6)& POI	Ling O2C(6)& POI; XianO2 C(12)& POI	Ling O3C(6)& POI	Ling O4C(6)& POI; Rui O3; Hui O3C(7)	Ling O5C(6)& POI; Hui FI*.
Wed.	Xian O1C(12) & POI	Hui O2C(13) & POI	(A whole-day English workshop)	Xian O4 C(12) & POI; Hui POI of O3; Hui O4C(13) & POI	Xian O5C(12) & POI
Thur.	Hao O1C(2) & POI	Hao O2C(2) & POI	Hao O3C(2) & POI	(Academic proficiency test of Gan Su province on Thursday and Friday)	Hao O5C(2) & POI; Ling FI; Xian FI
Fri.	Rui O1C(4)	Rui O2C(4) & POI	(Monthly test for Grade 10 on Friday and Saturday)	(One-day break)	Rui O5C(4)
Sat.	Rui POI	Wan O1C(16) & POI			Rui POI of O5; Wan O4C(15) & POI
Sun.				Rui O4C(4) & POI	

*O=Observation, C= Class, POI=Post-Observation Interview, FI=Final interview. Numbers indicated the times of observation. Numbers in the brackets indicate classes.

Note: 1. Wan was absent from work for her illness, so she missed the first week class observation and post observation interview, and there was no proper time to make it up.

2. The final interviews of Hao, Rui and Wan were conducted on Monday and Tuesday in Week 6.

Appendix I

A Sample of field notes

Writing & Reading in Textbook

Thursday 9:05-9:50 (Class 12) Nov. 30 ^{Mr. L}

After learning the text: *check ss knowledge?*
 Have you learned something about Olympic games?
 (Randomly picked ss) ^{one by one for a time} What do you know about Olympic games?
 Repeat ss' answer. What do you think about ...?
 [The St. copy her writing on the blackboard.] Mr. made use of time to ask ss to answer these questions.
 Please go on something about Olympic games ^{为什物做文章 报也?}
 ss read books to answer it.
 These are something about Olympics.
 What is your favorite athlete. So, this is my favorite athlete.
 去掉多余的字, and correct mistakes.
 after reading, ss applauded for that girl. *challenge some*
 Who is your favorite athlete? Pick a girl ^(shouting) why?
 有同学在议论. 有人在问其他同学 with whispery.
 So this is about athlete. (SSS)
 inspiring = encouraging / moving with reading the text
 Three stories. Listen to the tape and find the answers to the questions: (SSS 都在仔细阅读) for underline some sentences. write sentence.
 Please fill in the chart. Ask students to write on the blackboard. ^{ack} Others to find the answers. as quickly as possible *pressure words?*

YOUR MEMORIES YOUR DREAMS

Just heard the sound of turning books or coughing.
 Mr. walked here and there.
 The left time for ss to finish by Tuesday. x 10 x 10 x 9
 I good writing were stuck on the wall at the back of the classroom.
 when he started explaining, ss still haven't finished. He read the text and corrected the answers on the blackboard, and translate some sentences in explanation.
 What is the true meaning, do you think of ^{sports} friendship?
 The left time for ss to discuss. *fixed?*
 Four as a group to discuss by copying Chinese or English.
 Pick ss from the first line. (always)
 wrote down ss' idea. ① help ② friendship ③ anti ④ generosity ⑤ winning glory by working hard.
 Go on checking answers. Sometimes underlined words or tick the right answer.
 what does stubborn mean? Give me an example. We have learned.
 Repeat a story? learned by heart before? ^{checking all the content of charts.} After explaining and start translation and learn the useful expressions with examples. ^{lecturer some part}
 After reading the first story, ss read the text together. The same as the next two stories. ^{为什物做文章, 报也?}

Appendix J

An example of expanded field notes and codes

37 **Thursday, November 30, 2017 9:05-9:50, Class (2)**

38 Because the changing of class schedule last week, I observed the class 1. This
 39 week, as negotiated with Hao before, I observed Class 2. — *Change scheduled time*

40 I showed up at 9:04 in the office and greeted to Hao. Then I went to the classroom
 41 directly and took a chair in the front of classroom and got everything prepared. I was
 42 waiting for the start of the class when I found a girl coping her writing on the
 43 blackboard. *Preparing an activity* ✓ *Demonstrated writing*
 44 What she wrote was entitled "My favorite athlete". I guessed they had a homework to
 45 write an athlete whom they liked the most. She hadn't finished the writing, when the
 46 bell was ringing. Hao came in.

47 Hao greeted with students and started his lesson standing on the platform behind *lecture*
 48 the table. He noticed that the girl hasn't finished writing, thus he asked students to *Greeting*
 49 reflect or recall what they learned about Olympic Games last time.

50 He picked up students from the first line to answer that question. The first student
 51 answered without reading book. Hao repeated his answer to the class. I think
 52 because the classroom is big, he helped students to hear what that student said. *Lead Ss to review what have learnt*
 53 Even me who was sitting at the back of classroom couldn't hear him clearly. Besides, *pick Ss to answer directly*
 54 he can correct the mistakes in the sentences. *confirm Ss answer*

55 ["What do you know about Olympic Games?" "What do you think about the Olympic
 56 Games?"] he asked the questions to the students sitting in that line. When they were
 57 answering, Hao glanced many times to see if the girl had finished writing. Students *Questions to invoke thinking*
 58 who answered the questions later in the line read books. He didn't stop them reading. *pick Ss to answer question*
 59 I think he just wanted to make use of the waiting time to recall or check students'
 60 understanding and expressions. *check the process* *allow Ss to work in their own way*

61 ["These are something about Olympic Games. There are a lot of famous athletes in
 62 Olympics."] He transited to the topic from games to athletes, and to the writing on the
 63 blackboard where the girl was writing the last sentence. Hao read the writing and
 64 *reflect and check understanding* *Activity of explaining and demonstrating a writing*

65 corrected some grammar mistakes in the writing by himself. Students followed his
 66 step and read the writing as well. When he read to "never say 'give up'" students *focus on grammar* *teacher-centered*
 67 finished reading that sentence together. After reading, students applauded for that
 68 girl. I think they used this way to show their encouragement, compliment and *Ss participation*
 69 recognition to that girl. Then, Hao asked "What is your favorite athlete?" The right
 70 sentence should be "who is your favorite athlete?" I heard a student who was not far
 71 from me whispered "who, who" many times. I think Hao didn't aware he made errors,
 72 a slip of tongue. He asked this question to students in the first line. Then, I found
 73 students around me started whispering. They had their answers in mind to that
 question, and prepared how to reply it in English. Because Hao didn't only want to *pick Ss directly who sat near him* *Ss attention* *Ss participation/attention* *error* *peer encouragement*

74 hear a name of an athlete, but asked students to give their reasons. That part was
 75 the challenge to students. He picked about three students sitting in front to answer it. ^{optimal challenges}
 76 Then, he transited it to the next part of lesson. ^{pick ss up directly to answer} ^{ss near him}
 77 He asked students to open books to read task in workbook. They would read and
 78 listen to the tape of that article. Hao played audiotape and students read by heart
 79 and listened at the same time. I saw everyone reading, and some students ^{materials}
 80 underlined some sentences or wrote down something. After finishing listening to the ^{practice} ^{ss attention/participation}
 81 tape, Hao tasked students to fill in the charts designed as comprehension exercise
 82 according to the article. ^{instruction} And he picked three students to write their answers on the
 83 blackboard. "Others find the answers as quickly as possible." I just heard the sound ^{pick ss directly to participate}
 84 of turning pages. Hao walked here and there in the classroom. He left time for ^{push ss}
 85 students to finish the exercise first. ^{ss attention/participation} During the time, I observed this classroom. Its ^{monitor ss} ^{leave time for ss}
 86 structure is the same as other classrooms. Two doors on left, one is in the front and
 87 the other is at the back. A green blackboard was hanging on the front wall with
 88 Chinese flag and two inspiring phrases above it. One blackboard was on the back wall ^{setting of the room}
 89 of the classroom with some statements of high moral character of a person. Some
 90 good English writing was sticky at the bottom of the blackboard. A table of students
 91 ranking in monthly examination was on the left side wall with two rows filled. Also, ^{pressure/goals/scores}
 92 students decorated that wall in their way. They made use of sticky notes to express ^{ss' opinion}
 93 that they are the master of the future. — ^{Motivation}
 94 When the boy who wrote the first chart finished, Hao started to check their answers
 95 by reading and translation. When they read a question, he asked "What is the true ^{teacher-centered}
 96 meaning of sport?" He asked students to discuss for a while. I heard students around ^{group discussion}
 97 me discussing in English or Chinese. I looked around the classroom, students ^{ss participation}
 98 formed groups in four without Hao's instruction. ^{habits}
 99 Hao then asked students to give their answers and he wrote down the key words on
 100 the blackboard. Then they went on checking the answers. Hao underlined some ^{invite ss answer / whole class}
 101 words or phrases and ticked the right one. After checking all three charts. They came ^{emphasize language points}
 102 back to the text itself. Hao read some sentences in first paragraph first, and gave
 103 translation or the useful expressions. Then students read that paragraph together. ^{traditional translation} ^{whole class activity}
 104 This process was done in other two paragraphs till the end of this class.
 105 He told students tomorrow they would explain the test of this unit. ^{assign homework / plan for next period}

Appendix K

Examples of Coding of the Observation Data

Sample Excerpts	Codes	Categories	Themes
1 “XXX, what is your answer?” “XXX, have a try.”	Picking students directly	Exercising teachers’	Controlling
2 The teacher walked here and there in the classroom. “I always go here and there to make them know that it is for you to study.”	Monitoring students	authority	
3 “Look at here (the blackboard)!” “Write it down!” “Underline it!”	Uttering directives		
4 “These are the objectives that we are going to achieve...” “Take out the book. Today we are going to review the words and expressions of unit 2.”	Informing the learning objectives	Enhancing the students’ understanding	Autonomy supportive
5 “This sentence is easy... This sentence is a bit difficult.” The teacher arranged the sequence of exercises with filling blanks first, translation came second, and a task came last.	Decreasing the difficulty of the lesson or activity		
6 “The main objective was to review key words and expressions...” “What have you learnt today?”	Reviewing the learnt content		

Appendix L

A sample of transcription and codes

Transcript of Week 5 Wednesday

- 444 R: How was the class today? *Teachers' understanding / consideration*
- 445 E: Just so-so. Because this time is special. Students prepared for this class for long time .they
- 446 forgot something. Because we have some exams. Newspapers, and many many things to do.
- 447 And delay, put off the class today. So they forgot something. It is special. That's the reason *many exercises to finish*
- 448 why I said just so-so. Students' performance was just so-so.
- 449 R: Is this the first class of reading? *Students' performance is not excellent.*
- 450 E: This morning, this is only reading. After I finished part of exercise in newspapers, i did some
- 451 part of fasting reading of this class, for warming-up and fast reading. So this is part of fast
- 452 reading and careful reading. — *Teachers' plan / design*
- 453 R: Please describe what you saw students showing their participation.
- 454 E: In the fast reading period, I think their performance was good. But in careful reading part,
- 455 their performance is just so so. Because just now I told you that they just almost a week or
- 456 more than a week ago, they prepared (preview) the class. They forgot and some of the
- 457 students didn't prepare the careful reading part. And just like finding out the useful
- 458 expressions and some good structures in the passage. They didn't do it. I can see that. But
- 459 because this week is short, they have to prepare so many examinations or some newspapers.
- 460 I didn't blame them. Because it is special. And after, the students will have a holiday. So...*ok exercises.*
- 461 R: What did you do to keep student's attention? You said that in the fast their performance is
- 462 good. But in careful reading...
- 463 E: Yes. They have prepared that part. In the night classes. I asked them to prepare for it .they
- 464 had done this part. But for the careful reading, they didn't underline some important phrases.
- 465 R: If students didn't do that the things that you assigned, what did you do to keep them *Students' performance*
- 466 attention, participating in the class?
- 467 E: I will guide them to find some important phrases.
- 468 R: guide? For example? *guide strategy*
- 469 E: for example, after finding out the topic sentence and supporting details in the passage. I
- 470 will guide them to find some useful expressions. For example, I told them to pay attention to
- 471 the differences among as, though, although. Because it's very important in this passage. So I
- 472 did some explanation and tell them to remember the differences between them. And if I in
- 473 the other one, it is almost at the end of the passage. But in this class didn't finish it. In the
- 474 other class, we have finished this part. *differences between clauses*
- 475 R: Why, didn't finish?
- 476 E: Because this class, I have told you that in this class many students are not very diligent. *(Students' nature) not diligent*
- 477 Not.... They don't work very hard. Sometimes they don't very good preparation for the
- 478 lesson. *lazy (Students' nature)* *Students' performance*
- 479 R: So why did you do that....is this things always happen?

- 480 E: Sometimes.
- 481 R: Sometimes? So in the same situation, do you deal with it in the same way? Or do you have
482 other ways to?
- 483 E: Usually, I will guide them to do the job, if they don't prepare for it. Beforehand. But
484 sometimes, I will become angry and blame them. Or I will just let them do it and I will wait for
485 them, after preparation I will go on. But usually I will, the situation is very often and
486 sometimes only veryusually I will guide the job. Sometimes only very limited chances
487 maybe I will ask them to do it. And then I will go on as usual. But....I don't like that. Because
488 our time is limited. Because so many (content)
489 R: What you don't like?
490 E: I don't like the angry things. Because it is useless. So usually I will guide them. And ask
491 them to prepare for the lessons. And then have class as usual.
- 492 R: If I ask you, why? The reason behind. Why do you urge them? Why, sometimes do you
493 blame them?
- 494 E: It depends. Sometimes such as, the situation is very special, time is limited, and they forgot
495 to do so. So I will guide them to do the job in class. But if they have enough time they don't
496 do it. Maybe I will blame them.
497 R: why?
498 E: Because I should be understanding, I should be thoughtful teacher. Sometimes students
499 are very busy or just like today. The situation is very special. So then it depends.
- 500 R: Ok. Then, what would you have done differently today? I didn't mean the content. I mean
501 as teacher did you find something for you difficult?
- 502 E: to deal with?
- 503 R: eh ha.
- 504 E: Almost nothing.
- 505 R: You asked students one questions, why computers have many changes? Right? And
506 students gave you the answers in English. And then I heard you ask them to translate into
507 Chinese. Why? Why have to translate?
- 508 E: Because in that sentence, there is one important expression, as they.... Because has so
509 many meaning they don't know the proper meaning here. So I will ask them to pay attention
510 of the use. I want to know their comprehending. Maybe they are wrong. Although they can
511 find the answer to this one. Maybe they can't understand this sentence well, especially the as
512 here. Because I want to let them understand the use of English very well here.
513 R: Any other things you want to share?
514 E: As just now you said, I asked my students to underline some important part or something
515 they can't understand very well in the passage. And at the same time. Maybe after doing this
516 part, I will share my opinion with them, maybe in this passage, some parts they don't pay
share teachers' idea.

Appendix M

Example of Coding of the Interview data

	Sample Excerpt	Codes	Categories	Themes
1	“Motivation is the top one issue.” “The motivation in the class decides the effectiveness.”	Motivation is important.	Importance of motivation	Beliefs about importance of motivation
2	“I felt that most of them like English. They are eager to learn English to know about English countries. Some of them learn for entering the university. They are forced to learn.”	Varied	Levels of students’ motivation	Beliefs about students’ motivational level
3	“Design interesting activities. If I can design properly, maybe students can learn the teaching materials easily and very interestedly.” “If you want the students to like learning something or doing something, they must have sense of achievement. If they can do it very well, of course they have sense of achievement. So, if you can simplify the difficult points, maybe they will feel it is easy to learn English. It is not difficult.”	The direct answer for the effective and important motivational strategies	The most effective motivational strategies	Beliefs about the effective motivational strategies
4	“We have to prepare for the final examination Gao Kao, the college entrance examination.” -“You should do everything you can to excel your class... to improve the average scores, target scores, and controlling rate.”	High-stakes test Teachers’ evaluation system	Pressure from “above”	Contextual factors
5	“English is difficult for students.” “Students had a lot to do a day, which made them so tired.”	Students’ English competence. students’ nature	Pressure from “below”	Contextual factors
6	-“I normally picked the students to answer one by one in row or in line. It doesn’t matter how much they say. The more they say, the more they practice.”	Reasons of picking students to answer	Preference of a specific instructional behavior	Beliefs about specific instructional behaviors

Appendix N

The Levels and the Grades

Primary School	Work towards:	Notes
Grade 3	Level 1	Students should start studying English in Grade 3
Grade 4	Level 1	
Grade 5	Level 2	
Grade 6	Level 2	The required standard for the end of primary school
Junior Middle School	Work towards:	Notes
Grade 7 (= Junior 1)	Level 3	
Grade 8 (= Junior 2)	Level 4	
Grade 9 (= Junior 3)	Level 5	The required standard for the end of junior middle school
Senior Middle School	Work towards:	Notes
Senior 1	Level 6	
Senior 2	Level 7	
Senior 3	Level 8	The required standard for senior middle school graduation
	Level 9	An extension level for specialist schools and able students

VITA

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