

A Study of the Motivation of Adult Learners who Learn Chinese as a Foreign Language in the UK

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Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and that the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Acknowledgement

Coming to the UK to do a PhD is one of the best decisions I have made. I have honestly had my best four years so far, full of challenges and surprises, which trained me to be capable, strong, and invincible. Compared to four years ago, when I was doubtful of my academic ability and clueless about what was involved, I have become more confident through the inspiring training and facilitation I received, and I feel proud of myself. Throughout the journey, I have learnt a few important things such as resilience, being goal-oriented and adaptable, and dreaming big but achieving precisely. I have been practising these principles daily, with falls and setbacks, but also achievements.

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training, and half was because of him. Holding on to my sanity during my PhD must all be because of him.

My Chinese identity has gradually weakened over these four years because I now see myself as a global citizen. Although I will always wish for a better UK-China relationship, for more British learners of Chinese to act as cultural ambassadors, more international education cooperation, and a better higher education system, I have embraced open-minded attitudes towards everything going on in the world. I will always have hope and a passion for Chinese teaching and research, and I believe this journey has empowered me.

Abstract

L2 motivation is an important factor in second language acquisition. The study of CFL (Chinese as a Foreign Language) motivation is significant for students, teachers and institutions alike, as drop-out rates within this group are high and a cause for concern.

However, to date, little attention has been devoted to studying the motivation of adult HE (Higher Education) and FE (Further Education) learners on additional courses in the UK.

This study aims to understand the nature of CFL motivation, its dynamic fluctuation and the possible reasons that lead to demotivation by identifying CFL motivation factors. Moreover, the study explores the changes to motivation over time, the reasons for such changes, and the relationship between motivational factors identified by individuals and their classroom experiences. Through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations, both cross-sectional and longitudinal, quantitative and qualitative data have been collected. This research also interviewed Chinese teachers in the UK regarding their understanding of students' motivations and the motivational teaching strategies that they employ. Learners in this study also provided their views on motivational teaching practices and the learning strategies which they adopt to generate and maintain their motivation outside of the classroom.

This study described the profile of learners with initial motivation for CFL as cosmopolitans who have an appreciation of diverse cultures and positive attitudes towards Chinese culture. The study found that CFL motivation is circular in nature and can be conceived of as “interest in learning – positive attitude – motivation – positive learning experience – interest in learning” and “supportive teacher/sympathetic approach – motivation – supportive teacher/sympathetic approach – motivation”. A seven-factor CFL framework has been constructed. This comprises “Perceived Value”, “Attitude”, “Teaching Support”, “Confidence”, “Cultural Engagement”, “Intention”, and “Milieu”. Among these seven

factors, “Perceived Value” has been identified as the dominant component. Self-efficacy, self-determination and self-regulation abilities can also be seen as significant CFL motivation components.

Furthermore, this study also found a significant positive correlation between teachers’ motivational strategies in the classroom and students’ motivational strengths, and that teacher behaviour might cause fluctuations in students’ motivation. Indeed, pedagogy was found to be a key factor in influencing learner motivation, together with individual and social factors that may contribute to demotivation in CFL learning. When exploring motivational strategies, teachers’ empathy and learner autonomy emerged as two important dimensions.

In summary, this study addresses the theoretical gaps in the field of motivation research for adult CFL learners in the UK. In addition, the research into demotivation and motivational strategies of this study’s participants provides other perspectives to understand this motivation. This study also offers suggestions for improving the motivation levels of CFL learners in post-compulsory education in the UK. These suggestions are relevant for learners, classroom practices and educational institutions.

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List of Acronyms

L2: Second Language

L3: Third Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

CFL: Chinese as a Foreign Language

CSL: Chinese as a Second Language

LOTES: Languages Other than English

MFL: Modern Foreign Language

MoTS: Motivational Teaching Strategies

L2MSS: L2 Motivational Self System

SDT: Self-determination Theories

EV: Expectancy-Value

HE: Higher Education

FE: Further Education

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

ML: Maximum likelihood

SEM: Structural equation modelling

GCSE: General Certificate of Secondary Education

MOLT: Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching

MOCLC: Motivation Orientation in Chinese Language Class

HSK: Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (Chinese Proficiency Test)

MEP: Mandarin Excellence Programme

PGCE: Postgraduate Certificate in Education

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

Hanban: Office of Chinese Language Council International

1.1 Introduction

The inspiration for this study was rooted in my experiences at the Business Confucius Institute at the University of Leeds. That year, I taught Chinese to degree students from Chinese Studies and gave evening classes to beginners. The latter group were split evenly, with half coming from the university and the other half from the general public. My interest in research on language learning motivation was sparked upon when observing the interest displayed by students in evening classes were much lower than that of the degree students, and the drop-out rates in the evening course were also high. Initial high levels of enthusiasm were common in all the groups but then faded, and the number of students continuing to the next level was disappointingly low. I reflected and consulted other teachers and peers to understand the reasons behind this phenomenon – whether it was caused by students, teachers, or institutions. This was a particularly interesting and meaningful subject to continue exploring, and I, therefore, decided to become a researcher instead of a teacher. From my initial observations, motivations for learning Chinese amongst adult learners in the UK post-compulsory education were diverse, dynamic, complicated, and inconsistent compared to school or degree-level students. Demotivation or lack of motivation was a significant obstacle for this group of learners, which was reflected in the high drop-out rate when compared to the UK's apparent overall need for Chinese learning.

If I ask a student in my class what drove him to learn Chinese, he might give me a straightforward answer – to communicate with his Chinese girlfriend's parents; but if I ask him to explain how his motivation has fluctuated and how he survived all the frustrations of forgetting the characters and getting the tones wrong, he may not be aware of such minor changes in his mindset and actions. It is then more difficult for a researcher to capture them and give suggestions to teachers. However, it is intriguing to study how the unprescribed

moments in or out of class have impacted learners' motivations in their Chinese learning journey, either enhanced, maintained, or decreased. Thus, I was motivated to investigate this subject in detail to fully understand it and establish a new set of advisory recommendations for teachers to overcome the problems they and their students face.

It is hoped this research makes a significant theoretical contribution to expanding our knowledge of the motivation for learning non-Western languages and the relationship between learning motivation and learning environment factors. In addition, the intention is this study will contribute pedagogically by producing recommendations for teachers teaching a neglected but important population, namely adult non-degree language learners of Chinese, in different institutions across the UK. In turn, this study will broadly impact understandings of language learning motivation and offers ways forward for future research. This chapter will be divided into two sections; contextual background, which provides the background knowledge about Chinese language teaching; research rationale, which highlights the reasons to address the current issues on motivation for learning Chinese in the UK.

1.2 Contextual Background

1.2.1 The Growth of the Chinese Language

While the Chinese language has more than two hundred spoken dialects, Mandarin, also known as Putonghua, is the official standard language. An estimated 1.4 billion people speak Mandarin worldwide. With burgeoning research interests in 'Chinese as a Foreign/Second language (CFL/CSL)', the term CFL/CSL has been used in different varieties of Chinese in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Singapore, where Chinese has an official status, as well as the Chinese diaspora worldwide. Researchers have already begun to use the term "Chinese as a global language" (Sharmar, 2018). Teaching Chinese in families and schools has been a vehicle for developing cultural and heritage affiliation to China and its culture for people who see the Chinese language as an identifying marker and membership to

an imagined Chinese ancestral community (Duff et al., 2017; Sharmar, 2018). A growing number of learners taking CFL in higher education institutions globally has indicated the ever-increasing international status of the Chinese language (Seng & Lai, 2010). Likewise, in Anglophone countries, the Chinese language has become a marker of exceptionalism in many state-funded schools and universities (Duff et al., 2015).

Unlike the global spread of English owing to the British colonial empire, whereby language became a tool for political power, the expansion of the Chinese language today is seen as a result of China's economic growth and its prominent position in the process of globalisation (Sharmar, 2018). Furthermore, the language expansion also carries an implicit yet intentional goal of the Chinese government to expand its soft political and cultural power, mainly within the Confucius Institutes (Gao, 2011; Xiao, 2017; Yang, 2010). To that end, it is also important to realise that English may not be the only language with a global status. There may be a more complex picture where English co-exists with another emerging lingua franca in many world contexts; for example, English-Chinese bilingualism may be valued in multilingual communication contexts. Overall, the attitudes and values towards English are shaped by globalisation and attributed to important economic power. Therefore, Mandarin may be the next internationally important language in the near future, given the economic power of China (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). However, currently, in the UK, Chinese maybe more widely learnt in secondary schools than in post-compulsory education, and research on CFL learning and teaching has mainly been conducted in secondary schools.

[1.2.1 Establishment of Chinese Learning for Adult Learners in the UK](#)

In language courses provided for UK adult learners, language centres, or the Institution-Wide Language Programs (IWLPs) in Higher Education (HE) institutions constitute the majority, while other educational organisations offering non-formal courses in Further Education (FE) and Adult Education (AE) institutions are also common. The Chinese

language has been an increasingly popular offering within universities, developing particularly well in other educational settings described below.

1.2.1.1 Institution-Wide Language Programmes

IWLPs, also referred to as Languages for All, are offered through University Language Centres. The aim is to provide elective, non-compulsory language courses catering primarily to students not enrolled in specialist language degree programmes and to meet the needs of all non-specialist language learners (Coleman, 2004). IWLP provision can be diverse in universities. Most IWLPs provide accredited provision, whereas some may only encompass provision that carries no academic credit. In addition, in some IWLPs, both forms are offered, shown in the report of AULC-UCML 2017¹. Furthermore, some IWLPs serve external students, such as members of the public and lifelong learning students.

In the higher education system, students' choices are becoming more and more critical (Krüseemann, 2018), making it essential for IWLPs to understand student types and their motivations to participate in language learning. In addition, the demand for language and transferable skills obtained through language learning is high. Reports and surveys of employer attitudes and needs, especially with a globalised workforce and increased labour mobility, show that the world is more connected than ever. Moreover, the changing population in the UK is bringing about an increasingly multilingual society, as stated in *Born Global* report².

Accordingly, learners of IWLPs are the main research target in the current study because of their diverse backgrounds, learning expectations, efforts, and motivation orientation, intensity, and persistence. This leaves us wondering: What factors are influencing

¹ Survey of Institution-Wide Language Provision in Universities in the UK: 2016-2017: https://aulc.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/11/UCML_AULC_2016-2017.pdf

² <https://www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/documents/2598/Born-Global-Implications-for-Higher-Education.pdf>

their language choices and engendering their withdrawal from learning? What factors influence their dynamic motivation?

For over a decade, the number of students enrolled in specialist language programs – French, Spanish, and German – as degree courses in the UK HE has declined, resulting in the closure of entire language departments and a reduction in language options in some universities, shown in the report of *Lost for Words*³. In contrast, Chinese language program has become more widely available, with the Chinese language course available in 41 universities; as a result, more than 95% of university languages in the UK included Chinese (Zhang & Li, 2019). In fact, IWLPs across UK universities have witnessed a significant boost in student numbers: university student figures in IWLPs have more than doubled in a decade and are estimated at over 60,000, shown in the report of *Every Graduate a Linguist*⁴. The AULC-UCML surveys in 2017 to 2018 indicated that IWLP is an expanding area attracting increasing numbers of students, see the report of AULC-UCML 2018⁵. This trend in UK HE is the continuation of a pattern initially identified in earlier surveys. However, although there has been an increased tendency to participate in a language course alongside the main degree study, the learning outcomes might be unsatisfactory, stated in the report of *Every Graduate a Linguist*:

In credit-bearing courses, the overall level of attainment is high [...] [I]n non-credit-bearing courses, there is a high drop-out rate of around 30%. Of those who completed their course, 21.5% failed, largely due to not sitting exams or handing in coursework[.] Reasons for the high drop-out and failure rate include students' underestimation of their workload and prioritisation of credit-bearing courses.

³ <https://www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/publications/lost-words-need-languages-uk-diplomacy-and-security/>

⁴ <https://www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/documents/1845/Born-Global-LSE-IWLP-study-Every-Graduate-a-Linguist-Summary.pdf>

⁵ Survey of Institution-Wide Language Provision in Universities in the UK: 2017-2018: https://university-council-modern-languages.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/ad65a-aulc_ucml_2017-2018.pdf

An interesting phenomenon is that although the multilingual abilities of IWLP students of different nationalities are generally high, there is still a significant gap in the high-level multilingualism between the UK and non-UK students. In the example of a prestigious university in London, LSE, only 40% of UK students have a second language at B2 level or higher, and of that group, 90% are non-UK students. Moreover, nearly one-third of non-UK students claim to be proficient in three or more languages; by contrast, the same proficiency is true of only 10% of UK students (Skrandies, 2016).

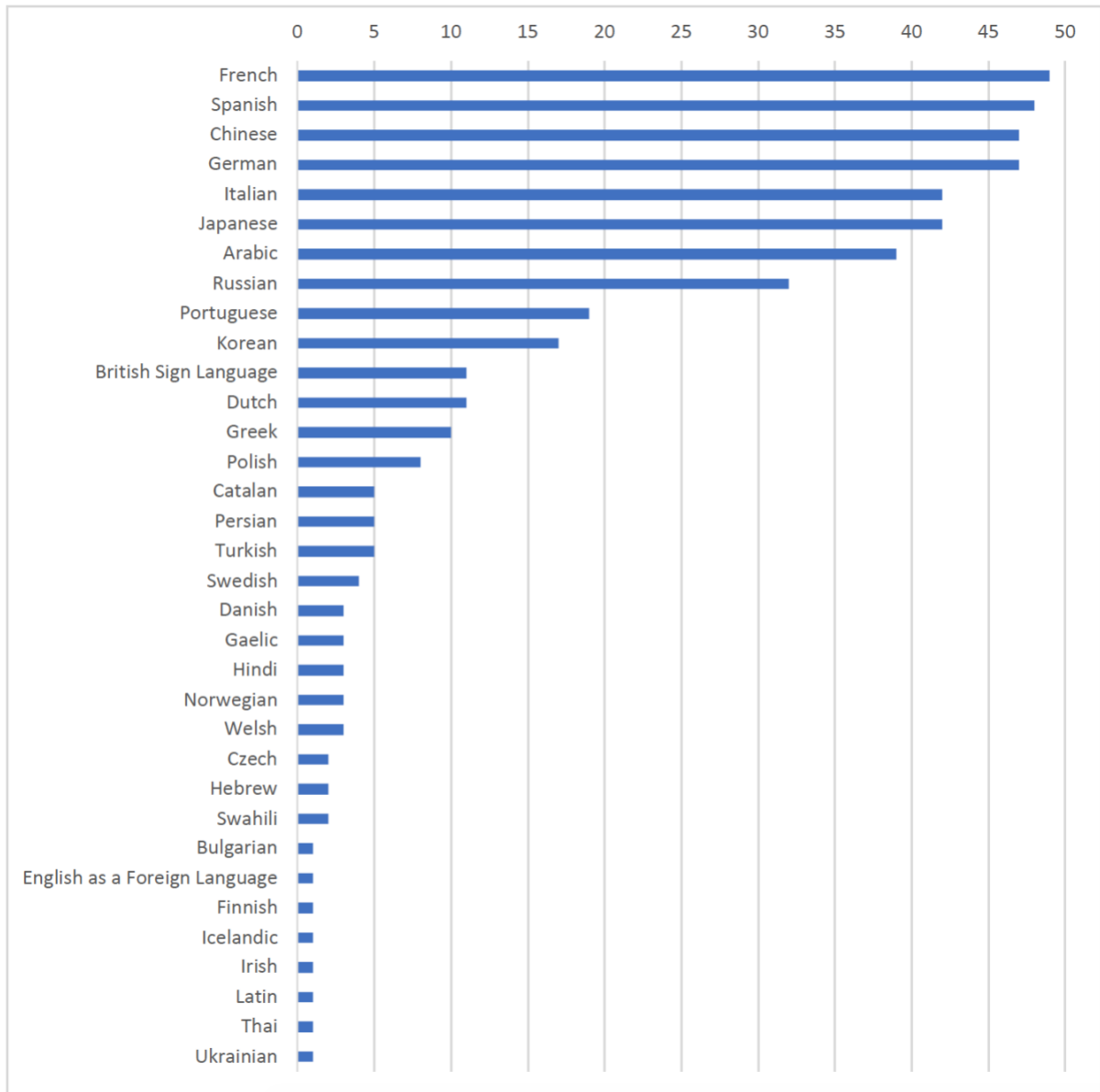
The AULC-UCML surveys (2021) investigated 53 IWLPs in UK universities on the uptake for the languages they offered. For the first time in this survey, Chinese stands in fourth place, ahead of Italian and after French, Spanish, and German, pointing towards a growing trend. Although Western European languages still dominate the top three popular languages, Mandarin is the most widely taught non-European language, ahead of Japanese and Arabic, offered by most HE institutions. Figure 1.1 shows the institutions reporting the offer of individual languages as part of their IWLPs, where Chinese has a significant position – just after French and Spanish. The exact number of students enrolling in Chinese courses is difficult to ascertain because registrations for IWLP course units are not recorded in UCAS⁶ (The Universities and Colleges Admissions Service), or HESA⁷ (The Higher Education Statistics Agency) statistics, even though 95% of UK universities offer these courses, see the report of AULC-UCML 2021⁸. Arguably, it is almost certain that the number of adult Chinese learners is significant in the UK.

⁶ The Universities and Colleges Admissions Service is a UK-based organisation whose main role is to operate the application process for British universities.

⁷ The Higher Education Statistics Agency is the official agency for the collection, analysis and dissemination of quantitative information about higher education in the United Kingdom.

⁸ Survey of Language Provision in UK Universities in 2021: <https://aulc.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/07/UCML-AULC-Survey-of-Language-Provision-in-UK-Universities-in-2021.pdf>

Figure 1. 1
Number of IWLPs Offering Different Languages in 2021 (n=50)



Soon, the growing number of students in secondary and sixth form levels may bring a surge in the number of non-beginner learners of Chinese at HE and FE levels. The Mandarin Excellence Programme (MEP), funded by the Department for Education in England, has succeeded in its goal of achieving 5000 Mandarin school learners by 2020, where 76 state schools in England were involved in the programme, shown in the MEP evaluation report⁹.

⁹ <https://ci.ioe.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2022/05/MEP-Independent-Evaluation-Report-2016-2021.pdf>

Among the pupils taking national and higher exams, entries for Mandarin Chinese at A-level and GCSE levels increased between 2013 and 2018 but decreased in 2019. This decline was possibly related to the new examination specifications in 2019 that learners were not confident with (Zhang & Li, 2019). It could therefore be argued that this decline in the number of school learners, who would probably later become the primary source of university students, would lead to a potential decline in the number of university learners.

1.2.1.2 Other Educational Organisations

Study opportunities for those beyond school-going age are provided by Further Education (FE) and Adult Education (AE) or Lifelong Education in the UK education system (Zhang & Li, 2010). Capturing data on the number of students in adult education classes is considerably tricky. That is because there is a growing number of organisations and a wider range of non-formal Chinese course providers offering Chinese language to the public, government departments, and local authorities who have contact with China, and also private enterprises and companies who need training in Chinese business culture, shown in the CILT report¹⁰. The potential reasons behind the growing tendency of Chinese learning can be owed to the importance that speaking a language and understanding its culture plays in the global economic workforce. According to CfBT report¹¹, language learning awareness to meet business needs has heightened in the employment sector. Employees speaking more than one language get better opportunities in the business world. This phenomenon places language learning at the top of the skills list and makes the role of language acquisition in the FE sector vital (see CfBT report).

As shown by a survey of language learning in the FE sector (see CfBT report), French, Spanish, German, and Italian are the most commonly offered languages, while

¹⁰ <https://dera.ioe.ac.uk/6645/1/DCSF-RW019.pdf>

¹¹ <https://www.educationdevelopmenttrust.com/EducationDevelopmentTrust/files/ad/ad0a4b70-b216-4c2f-abf5-f9b356bf87ee.pdf>

Mandarin is close on their heels. A notable example is a London university specialising in Oriental Studies – SOAS – that provides Chinese Language courses at differing levels and structures to over 1500 students a year, both on and off-site. It caters for professional, business, and legal Chinese language, as well as general language courses and provides teaching courses, conducts research and compiles teaching materials (Zhang & Li, 2010). As Zhang and Li (2010) point out, Chinese language teaching in England is unevenly distributed across the FE institutions geographically, with Southeast England showing the most activity. This indicates that the more advanced economic development becomes within a geographical area, the greater the likelihood is that that area will become more exposed to China, resulting in more jobs attracting speakers of Chinese and more institutions concomitantly providing Chinese language courses. This then further draws attention to the imbalance of Chinese language teaching in FE provision.

In addition, Chinese community language schools intend to preserve the Chinese language and culture among a new generation born outside of China and promote the Chinese education spirit in the UK. This influx of heritage Chinese learners has allowed these schools to offer to teach Mandarin to a widespread group of learners, where non-Chinese students of all ages and even their parents are attracted by this new diverse approach (Zhang & Li, 2010).

1.2.1.3 Confucius Institute

Hanban is the Office of Chinese Language Council International and aims to promote the Chinese language internationally. It initiated the Confucius Institute Programme in 2004 and is therefore called Confucius Institute Headquarters. In July 2020, Hanban was renamed “Centre for Language Education and Cooperation”, stating that the Confucius Institute was handed over to the Chinese International Education Foundation, a self-described non-governmental private organisation. As a language teaching and learning organisation, the Confucius Institute is recognised as the Chinese version of the British Council, the Goethe

Institute, Instituto Cervantes or Alliance Française. Benefiting from the experience of promoting their national languages by the UK, France, Germany, and Spain, China began its own exploration by establishing non-profit public institutions which have aimed to promote the Chinese language and culture in foreign countries over the last 15 years. Unlike other cultural bodies that have their headquarters in different countries and run themselves autonomously, the Confucius Institute has a model of centralised management out of the Hanban headquarters in Beijing and operates in partnerships with one local university and one university in China. This means, like elsewhere in the world, a British university is matched with a Chinese university to run a Confucius Institute together.

Hanban has not shied away from acknowledging its ambitions to spread the influence of Chinese cultural customs, philosophical thoughts, and ideology within the educational sphere, which has often garnered criticism because of some of the wording used. For example, some frequently used phrases in Hanban documents and speeches listed by Zhu and Li (2014), such as promoting Chinese culture, facilitating world peace and enhancing friendship, have led to the organisation being labelled as indulging in indoctrination and have been shut down in a few countries (Shepherd, 2018). However, criticism of Confucius Institutes comes from their relationship with Chinese Communist Party authorities, which have been accused of undermining academic freedom at host universities, engaging in industrial and military espionage, surveilling Chinese students abroad, and advancing the Chinese government's political agendas on controversial issues (Diamond & Schell, 2019). In addition, some concerns focus on financial and academic viability, teaching quality, and relations with Chinese partner universities (Yellinek et al., 2020). According to the 14th Confucius Institute Annual Conference held in December 2019, Hanban established 550 Institutes with 1,172 classrooms in 162 countries worldwide, with 1.86 million students involved in offline courses in 2018. Among those establishments, there were 30 institutes and

more than 161 Confucius classrooms located in the UK at the end of 2019. Despite the controversy surrounding Confucius Institutes, they have played a critical role in teaching Chinese in the absence of other investments in the UK, according to an investigation with more than 40 experts in education, government, and business by the Higher Education Policy Institute (see HEPI 2022 report).

1.2.2 Low Continuation and Progression Rate in Chinese Learning

The lack of competence in foreign language skills in UK adult learners has been seen as a significant problem, as shown in the *Language for the Future* report¹². Only 37% of adults (from 18 to 34 years old) were capable of having a basic conversation when travelling abroad. One of the attempted explanations is the removal of the compulsory study of Modern Foreign Language (MFL) post 14 years of age in Key Stage 4, which has been argued to have prompted a significant drop in intake of MFL in GCSE (e.g., Coleman, 2009). Others argued that the change only exacerbated an already persisted decline (e.g., Macaro, 2008). Another explanation from a social standpoint is the negative publicity of poor MFL learning performance and the misconceptions that language study is only for linguists, which has discouraged learner motivations (Lanvers & Coleman, 2017).

English-speaking students face particular challenges in learning Chinese and can have a relatively slow progression rate (Orton, 2016), partly because English as an alphabetic and non-tonal language is very distant from Chinese as a non-alphabetic but tonal language. When students learn a word in Mandarin Chinese, the pronunciation is usually learnt through the Romanised system of Pinyin with four different tones, which are difficult for many learners to identify but are essential to differentiate the meaning of the word. However, the word's meaning is learnt through the logographical characters consisting of radicals with specific structures. These radicals represent particular meanings but do not provide phonetic

¹² https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/languages_for_the_future_2017.pdf

cues in most cases. Unlike alphabetic languages, learners of Chinese cannot use alphabetic principles to decode print words and access their pronunciations or meanings of the Chinese characters. This absence of grapheme-phoneme correspondence means the form of the character cannot represent the pronunciation of a character. Thus, learners would have to first learn Pinyin, match the Pinyin with the characters, and then link the character with the meaning. These additional steps in the learning process significantly slow down acquisition time and require considerable ability and effort from the learner. Moreover, the learning process gets more complicated due to Chinese characters' handwriting written in a specific order. This is regarded as a considerable obstacle requiring more practice and memorisation to retrieve knowledge when needed (Lu & Song, 2017).

The words of De Francis (1984) have been frequently cited to claim that it takes four times longer for native adult English speakers to learn receptive and productive Chinese skills than for other European languages. With the specific challenges from the distinctive features of Chinese Mandarin, the slow rate of progress in Mandarin learning and the lack of accomplishment may further lead to a decline in learner motivation (CILT, 2007; Orton, 2016). Without sustained motivation built up from progress, the desire to learn may not be easy to keep, resulting in high drop-out rates for Mandarin learners in university contexts (e.g., Tsui et al., 2017; Zhang & Li, 2019).

1.2.3 Challenges of Teaching and Learning Chinese as a Foreign Language

It is likely the unprecedented disruption throughout the COVID-19 pandemic and the UK's EU exit in the academic years of 2020 to 2022 has created a non-ideal political and economic environment for language learning in universities. In addition to the withdrawal from the Erasmus Programme and the low entries to A-level languages, many challenges are faced in developing a language learning programme at HE levels. Furthermore, there has been a string of university closures or reductions in language programmes along with

declining university admissions in modern languages, see the report of AULC-UCML 2020¹³. It would therefore seem that Chinese language learning as a whole is in a rather precarious position considering the UK's current unpromising foreign language learning ethos.

Despite China's growing global importance, it is claimed that the 'China competency' problem (see HEPI 2022 report, p.18) is an urgent one in the UK, as there has been a lack of coherent strategies for engaging with China to develop sufficient knowledge and understanding leading to social repercussions such as anti-Asian discrimination. According to the HEPI report, the number of students in Chinese Studies has not increased in the past 25 years, and the number of Chinese Studies departments in UK universities offering single-honours undergraduate degrees has declined a third from 13 to nine between 2019 and 2020. Moreover, enthusiasm for China studies at the university level continues a downward trend despite China's efforts to promote interest in the Chinese language and a surge of attention toward it at the school level a few years ago (see HEPI 2022 report). In schools, modern China is primarily absent in curricula, and most pupils do not engage with China during their studies (see HEPI 2022 report). In addition, the numbers of secondary school learners involved in the Mandarin learning programme are small, and the qualifications learners gain are problematic (see HEPI 2022 report). In the context of a national deficit in China literacy and Mandarin speakers, there is a call for additional government funding to build "China competency" in the UK education system (see HEPI 2022 report).

There are several possible reasons why students became less enthusiastic about China and Chinese Studies. The first is the high barrier to acquiring basic literacy for students with Western tongues, especially in the challenge of mastery of characters analysed in Section 1.2.2. of this study. The second reason is that there are growing numbers of native speakers

¹³ Survey of Institution-Wide Language Provision in Universities in the UK: 2020-2021: <https://aulc.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/07/AULC-UCML-survey-of-Institution-Wide-Language-Provision-in-universities-in-the-UK-2019-2020.pdf>

of Chinese graduates with a fluent command of English that have become competitive for the opportunities for work that requires a command of Chinese. Third, people who have grown up in China may have more advantages in terms of languages and connections than Western learners of Chinese if they work for Western businesses. The fourth reason is that soft power, especially in Chinese culture, is weak. Owing to Japanese manga, anime, and online games, Western learners are culturally more attracted to Japan, shown in the HEPI 2022 report¹⁴. China's internet censorship and other media also might put students off. For example, King's College London abandoned the plan to set up an undergraduate degree in the Chinese language and found that the demand for an existing degree in Japanese was far higher in 2019, see the news report of *Barriers to Sinology*¹⁵. In the post-pandemic time, students have also lost their opportunities to go to China on summer camps, exchange programmes, or the study-abroad year, because of China's radical prevention policy. Not being able to go to China to practise the language, students have been primarily learning in class; this can damage a learners' motivation in the longer term.

Although the demand for learning Chinese in the UK has increased in the last decade, the development of teaching CFL is still in its infancy, especially when considering the continuous professional learning opportunities for in-service Mandarin teachers, which are insufficient (Lam, 2020). In addition, since many native Chinese teachers have not received formal training before starting their jobs, they may not have the relevant Mandarin-specific pedagogical knowledge (Lamb et al., 2019). The pedagogical issues in Chinese classes might hinder further growth in keeping learners on track. The factors constraining Mandarin provision in UK schools identified in the *Think Global* report¹⁶ include teaching materials and assessment syllabus, staffing and teacher supply, teacher training organisation,

¹⁴ <https://www.hepi.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/Understanding-China-The-study-of-China-and-Mandarin-in-UK-schools-and-universities.pdf>

¹⁵ <https://www.economist.com/china/2020/11/26/as-chinas-power-waxes-the-west-study-of-it-is-waning>

¹⁶ https://think-global.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/dea/documents/dej_10_3_clegg.pdf

curriculum constraints, Chinese language perceptions, and inadequate advisory support. In summary, the three main challenges in teaching and learning CFL in the UK are the political and economic environment, global pandemic, and inadequate support for teachers.

1.2.4 Teacher Training for Mandarin Chinese in the UK

Research on teacher training for Mandarin Chinese in the UK remains scarce. It could therefore be argued that the lack of information within the field has generated a shortfall in the relevant knowledge required to train Mandarin language teachers effectively. For example, it has not been studied thoroughly as to whether training in the application of motivational theories is well understood, specifically with respect to tailoring those theories to Chinese language teacher training. One study found that Mandarin teachers from China working in British schools have encountered challenges including lack of English proficiency, intercultural competence, knowledge about the local education system, effective pedagogical methods, and classroom management skills, including experience in working with students with special educational needs, as well as working with teaching assistants (Lu et al., 2019). This study concluded that training and professional development tailored to the British context are needed for this group of teachers to facilitate their effective teaching.

In England, the UCL Institute of Education (IOE) and the University of Oxford, Sheffield, Goldsmith, Portsmouth, and Manchester Metropolitan offer a PGCE in Mandarin-specific subjects. For example, the IOE PGCE course draws on current Mandarin teaching practice in UK schools through an established national network coordinated by the UCL IOE Confucius Institute (CI) for Schools. The work of the IOE CI, initiated in 2007, has provided teaching materials, accessible and appropriate examinations, and support networks (Diamantidaki et al., 2018). Therefore, it seems likely that teachers trained via these PGCE routes focus only on pedagogy relevant to learners in schools in England, with teaching methods comparable to those used by teachers of other MFLs.

However, most Hanban teachers sent to Confucius Institutes receive training for up to three months in China delivered by a Chinese university, with large groups of about 200–300 trainees together, regardless of the country in which they will teach. Therefore, UK Hanban teachers will not have received UK-specific training from local UK trainers (Diamantidaki et al., 2018). These authors also found that pre-departure training did not facilitate the transition from the educational landscape in China to that of the UK and provided insufficient knowledge and understanding of the new socio-cultural environment in which teachers would work. In particular, they highlight that Chinese university training programmes offer pedagogical knowledge that is primarily theoretical and based on the experience of teaching Chinese to adult learners within China. Their study identified the need to develop a more targeted training programme, which includes a greater appreciation of the UK environment (Diamantidaki et al., 2018).

1.3 The Rationale for This Research

This section aims to illustrate why it is important to examine and understand the motivation for learning CFL in the UK for adult learners in HE and FE institutions. It then identifies the research gap from the existing literature, which will be explored in detail in the literature review in the next chapter.

1.3.1 Why is a Study on Motivation for Learning Chinese of Interest?

China and the UK established a worldwide network to promote Mandarin language learning and teaching in the UK. The British Council's report of *Languages for the Future*¹⁷ identified Chinese as the second highest on the list of languages of crucial importance for the UK's future prosperity, security, and influence worldwide. The British Association for Chinese Studies (BACS) listed five reasons to study Chinese: one, to communicate with the

¹⁷ https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/languages_for_the_future_2017.pdf

world; two, to learn the language of the future; three, to become an expert on China's history, culture, and society; four, to gain challenges and rewards; and finally, five, to enhance career prospects.

Research on L2 (Second Language) motivation has mainly focused on the SLA (Second Language Acquisition) of Western languages, with less attention paid to non-Western languages, including CFL. The different phonetic and logographic systems of Chinese compared to European languages, along with its different historical, social, and cultural systems, mean that it is inappropriate to directly apply previous theories on EFL (English as a Foreign Language) to the study of teaching and learning CFL.

As indicated above, there are benefits to acquiring proficiency in Chinese Mandarin, but there are equally considerable difficulties compared to learning another Western language. These growing interests and the apparent difficulties in learning CFL in the UK have highlighted the following: first, understanding the motivation behind the acquisition of CFL and its orientation, intensity, and persistence; second, investigating the impact on the effects of learner motivation or demotivation phenomenon from different aspects; and three, recommending better motivation solutions to enhance learners' persistence and to attract more students. This study, therefore, aims to research the nature and dynamics of motivation for learning CFL among adult learners in the UK and propose strategies to help motivate learners and keep them motivated. Another critical research perspective for the study is demotivation, namely the various negative influences that cancel out existing motivation (Dörnyei, 1998; Ushioda, 1998) and how this develops over time. The role of the teacher has been recognised as crucial in this respect (Dörnyei, 2001a). However, relatively little is known about the relationships between CFL demotivation and the following: teachers' characteristics, pedagogies, strategies and motivational practice in class.

1.3.2 Why is Studying Language Learning at HE and FE Important?

MFL in UK HE faces severe challenges, the prominent one being the decrease in student numbers. The *Languages, Linguistics, and Area Studies* (LLAS) report¹⁸ for the Arts and Humanities Research Council suggests that this situation can be linked to language learning having an unfavourable image. This report also highlights the broader implications of language departments' closure and reductions in language provision. In light of the above challenges, insights into the motivational profiles of students who sustain their motivation from school to university or re-awaken it while at university need the researcher's attention. However, while existing research has gained insights into the factors that cause students to abandon language learning, little is known about the factors contributing to students' continued engagement in language learning or why they return to it if they had previously given it up, which is possibly the case for many adult learners: for example, they stop language learning after school and then return to it later in life.

There has been research interest in university students studying foreign languages as part of credit-bearing degree programmes. For example, research on university learners of German as a foreign language found significant motivational changes in learners' first year in university; moreover, literature on the transition from school to university has shown that the first year at university is already very demanding for students (Busse, 2013). Therefore, studying the interplay between motivations and contextual factors for first-year students in the HE and FE learning environment is essential. However, compared to research on motivation for learning French, German, and Spanish, students' motivations for CFL learning at the HE and FE level have received comparatively little attention, which leaves a research gap for the current study on the focus of the contextual factors in CFL learning in credit-bearing elective language modules in universities.

¹⁸ <https://web-archive.southampton.ac.uk/www.llas.ac.uk/sites/default/files/nodes/179/llasdigest06.pdf>

1.3.3 Why Research into Demotivation and Motivational Strategies is Needed?

Research has shown that learner motivation for MFL in the UK decreases throughout the school years (Macaro, 2008). This decline is attributed to multiple factors, including teachers' practices, inadequate contact with the target language community, practical use in daily life, and family support (Lamb et al., 2019). The research suggested that students' motivation in language learning will likely be enhanced if teachers adopt effective motivational strategies (Brophy, 2004). Hence, understanding what and how to implement motivational strategies to sustain language learners' motivation is of paramount importance, and adopting teaching strategies specific to CFL learning is essential. Investigations into how CFL teaching methods influence learner motivation and how this knowledge could be used to motivate the students to learn CFL are crucial.

1.3.4 What Does L2 Motivational Research Offer?

Traditionally, motivation researchers who were also social psychologists interested in L2, and SLA researchers who predominantly analysed the fine detail of language, took different research perspectives and rarely communicated. While SLA researchers focus on an inherent process-oriented approach, L2 motivation researchers maintain a product-oriented focus and examine the relationship between learner characteristics and learning outcomes (Dörnyei, 2003). This research field has evolved from independent views into incorporating broader disciplines into complex social, behavioural, psychological, educational, linguistic, and cultural perspectives (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2011). Nowadays, in the research fields of applied linguistics, SLA, L2 learning, and individual differences in language learning, motivation research has become a vibrant, flourishing, multifaceted, and high-profile trend (Csizer, 2019; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Ellis, 2008; Gardner, 2012). As a result, L2 motivation has generated a wealth of academic research, which has evolved independently from mainstream motivational psychology, forming unique constructs that are more helpful in

understanding the reasons behind learning or not learning another language (Lamb et al., 2019).

L2 motivation is conceptualised as a psychological and behavioural phenomenon that varies across and within individuals over time. It dynamically changes a person to initiate, coordinate, terminate, and evaluate the cognitive and motor process, whereby initial desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and acted out successfully or unsuccessfully (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 65). L2 motivation studies have been conceptualised in various theoretical frameworks, pedagogical perspectives, and broader social contexts (Ushioda, 2019). Considering the complex and changing global, social and virtual landscape where L2 learning and usage occur, L2 motivation research has embraced these changing perspectives. As a means of explaining the behaviours and orientations of L2 learners, L2 motivation research is characterised by an interdisciplinary paradigm that draws on the conceptual domains of social and educational psychology (Lamb et al., 2019). Furthermore, L2 motivation research approaches have been discovering contextually appropriate and explanatory frameworks to determine the type, goal, or reasons for L2 learning; to measure the strength of motivation and its fluctuation under the interaction with the learning experience; and to examine the relationship with variables, such as effort, persistence, and achievement (Ushioda, 2019).

In the current study, CFL motivation research provides insights into the variables influencing human behaviour in the CFL learning process and explains why individuals' learning is sustained or terminated. There is considerable educational potential for motivational theories: gaining in-depth insight into the factors underlying students' learning behaviour and exploring the interaction between motivation and the learning environment, especially with the teachers in the classroom. The literature review (Chapter Two) and

discussion (Chapter Eight) will show how to use these insights to inform and improve foreign language teaching and learning.

1.3.5 What Contribution Does this Study Make to the L2 Research Field?

This research will first provide information from different perspectives and show the UK's current Chinese language teaching and learning context. Following this, the current reality of UK CFL learning and teaching in practice will be investigated by giving a voice to both learners of Chinese, about their motivation and experiences in motivation fluctuation, and teachers of Chinese, about their perceptions embedded in the everyday practice of teaching. Apart from the distance and the difficulty factor of the Chinese language, new knowledge will be gained on CFL learning in an instructed learning environment, as it is important to explore what happens in the classroom and the individual efforts made in and out of class.

The Chinese language has been seen as a harder language to learn because of its difficulties and distance to native language learners in the UK, therefore, the Chinese language cannot be treated the same as other LOTEs, such as French, German and Spanish. Although the importance of it as a global language is well understood, i.e., it is spoken even more widely than English in terms of numbers of people; however, Chinese does not have the currency to be used as the international language of communication. In addition, the instrumental reasons for learning CFL may differ from learning English, despite Chinese being a global language. However, from the perspective of employment, there are not many job prospects for Chinese in the UK job market. Moreover, Chinese is not the language of universal culture; young people may be motivated to learn English because it gives them access to music and films in a widely popular context as opposed to less popular Chinese films and media. However, the models of language learning motivation in the existing literature are mainly about learning English. So, there is a need to explore if these models fit

CFL learning too. CFL may situate somewhere between English and more commonly taught languages other than English (LOTEs), so these models might only be moderately helpful. As a final point, it is worth stating that CFL motivation research could further contribute to L2 motivation research of other languages.

This study will fill a gap in the theoretical development of language learning motivational research, described in detail in Chapter Two. In addition, the following three main areas will be covered. First, insights will be drawn through scrutiny of recent theoretical and empirical contributions to L2 motivation. In addition, suggestions on adapting the existing theoretical frameworks to the context of CFL learning will be provided. The empirical data collected for the current study on the motivation for studying languages other than English, particularly Chinese, will be valuable to add to the existing studies on motivation for learning English. Second, this study responds to a paucity of existing studies on motivation fluctuation over time. The longitudinal perspective in the current study will help fill the gap in understanding the relationship between motivation and time. Third, the current study will also fill the gap in studies on motivational strategies for improving the teaching and learning of CFL for adult learners within the context of the UK. These three arguments will be elaborated further in the literature review and are evidenced in the three chapters of the findings.

The “dynamic” nature of motivation is valued in the longitudinal research design of this study. Motivation levels ebb and flow all the time, within a lesson, throughout a semester, or over far longer periods of time (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), and the longitudinal design is intended to best capture this nature and provide a continuous picture. Studies have found that stronger optimism at the start of college predicted less distress at the end of the semester and greater development of friendship networks (Carver et al., 2010). In foreign language classes, a possible fluctuation pattern is that learner motivation starts with high-

level motivations, a sort of honeymoon period; then it drops gradually when learners adjust their unrealistic expectations of progress; it may keep dropping because of increasing classroom anxiety; it may then spring back as learners gain experience in managing it and gaining pleasure in learning (Dewaele et al., 2022).

Note that the word ‘dynamic’ in CFL motivation in this study does not refer to Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (Dörnyei, 2009). In a complex dynamic system, “high-level mental attributes and functions are determined by a set of interconnected components that continuously evolve over time” (Dörney, 2009, p.195-196). Similar to Dörneyi’s (2009) complex dynamic system, this study also focuses on a set of interconnected components that are continuously evolving over time, and the word ‘dynamic’ is used to describe the nature of the motivation in this context, but this study is not conceptualised with reference to Dörneyi’s complex dynamic system theory.

1.4 Summary

This study is conceived from the perspective that the status of Chinese in UK HE and FE is unique. Chinese is neither a very popular heritage language, such as Arabic, nor a ‘hobby’ language, such as Italian or Spanish, spoken in places to which people can easily travel. This uniqueness brings specific geo-cultural differences compared to other languages that learners in the UK are familiar with. People may choose to study the Chinese language before reasons that are similar to those that apply to Japanese and Korean. Specifically, Japanese and Korean are seen as fashionable languages in English-speaking countries to learn as a third language (e.g., de Burgh-Hirabe, 2019; Eom & Braithwaite, 2023). As to what is neglected in the current research picture, we have abundant research on L2 motivation, but most of it focuses on second language learning, which ignores the fact that Chinese has a particular position as an L3 for many learners. This is especially the case for adults learning Chinese in a non-credit-bearing course in HE and FE institutions; this particular population

we hardly ever research. Anecdotal evidence suggests that learners of Chinese L3 typically have a mix of linguistic and cultural interests. Furthermore, Chinese is also linguistically distant from English, making the motivation for L3 Chinese a unique research topic. This uniqueness, brought about by a mix of linguistic, cultural and geographical distance, helps to create a particular area of interest, namely to identify why some learners and not others are able to overcome motivational fluctuations and keep their learning going.

Apart from the position of Chinese as L3, this study flags up what may be specifically important about the cosmopolitan multilingual/plurilingual posture that is special to Chinese. As mentioned above, this study proposes that adult L3 learners of Chinese are learning it not because someone has been telling them to do so but for other reasons. These learners typically come with various language learning experiences already. For some learners, there may be instrumental value involved for job purposes, but that may not be the most vital element; intrinsic enjoyment may also have a certain amount of relevance for adult L3 Chinese learners. Therefore, the value of enjoyment and other positive emotions in Chinese learning is examined in this study.

1.5 An Overview of the Thesis Structure

The thesis consists of nine chapters. After providing the contextual background and the rationale for the present study in this chapter, the rest of the thesis is organised into the following eight chapters. Chapter Two will give theoretical perspectives underpinning the study, explain the research gap it aims to address and state the research aim and questions. Similarly, Chapter Three will describe the overall methodological approach, including presenting the research design and explaining the methodology developed to operationalise the research questions. Likewise, Chapter Four will elaborate on the rationale for data analysis methods and the procedures for analysing data. Chapters Five, Six, and Seven will present the findings for the research questions and the evidence in support of the findings

organised in three parts, each part, in turn, addressing Research Questions 1 to 3 on the nature of motivation, the dynamics of motivation, and the motivational strategies for adult CFL learning in the UK. Based on those findings, Chapter Eight will interpret what the findings mean, why they occurred, and how they can contribute to the theoretical framework of L2 motivation. Finally, Chapter Nine will discuss the implications of the findings of this study from theory to practice and evaluate the current study, summarise the answers to the research questions, explain the original contribution to the field of knowledge, and suggest future L2 motivation research with forward-looking perspectives.

2.1 Introduction

Chapter Two provides an overview of literature related to the current study. This chapter introduces important research that has influenced the development of research into language learning motivation, demotivation and motivational strategies; then reviews the theoretical and empirical insights gained from that research that has shaped the current study; and then provides the rationale for why particular theories and models were taken to study the motivation for learning Chinese in the current context.

First, definitions of the word motivation, L2 motivation and motivational strategy are provided as reference points in Section 2.2, followed by the rationale for the study in Section 2.3; next, three key theories – self-regulation, learner autonomy and engagement – are presented. A brief historical outline of the development of L2 motivation theories is then provided in Section 2.4. Next, given the broad scope of motivational research, a series of the most influential theories or theoretical constructs in mainstream motivation in psychology and education and L2 motivation frameworks drawn on mainstream motivational research are introduced in Section 2.5. Section 2.6 introduces the research on motivation for learning languages other than English (LOTEs), and Section 2.7 focuses on Chinese in different contexts. Section 2.8 reviews the regrettably common phenomenon of L2 learner demotivation. It first introduces research into demotivation and demotivator studies and presents different approaches to understanding demotivation; it also reviews research findings on Chinese learning demotivation; it then discusses the limitations of demotivator studies. Section 2.9 focuses on the research on motivational strategies, starting by introducing theory and classroom practice; next, studies based on Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies and alternative motivational strategies are presented; and studies on teachers'

conceptions of motivation and motivating strategies are reviewed. Finally, a summary of this chapter, aims of this study and research questions are provided in the last Section, 2.10.

This review could not provide the entire scope of L2 motivation research and include every desire of researchers to understand the psychological constructs and mechanisms of the L2 motivational dimensions. However, this review tries to identify what cornerstones formed the current study from the abundant theories and empirical studies. Furthermore, the review not only focuses on a study of motivation per se but also pays attention to the concern of practitioners about how to help people develop or sustain their L2 motivation; as Dörnyei (2003) pointed out, the growing awareness of motivation issues in the language classroom highlights the need to translate research results into practical terms.

2.2 Definitions

2.2.1 Motivation

Motivation exists in almost every aspect of human behaviour, and the variables that contribute to it differ across different theoretical frameworks, which makes it difficult to define as a research concept. However, motivation often refers to the choices people make; the goals people pursue; and the degree of effort people devote (Brown, 1984; Keller, 1983). Therefore, motivation concerns what moves people to make decisions about a particular action and to expend effort on this action, then persist with it (Dörnyei, 2001a); in other words, motivation encompasses the reasons why learners start an activity in the first place, and then why they keep going with it. Motivation research focuses not only on the factors involved in triggering human action but also on persisting and engaging with chosen activities. For the current study, exploring these factors may provide insights into what motivates learners to learn CFL and sustain their efforts over time, including individual and environmental factors.

2.2.2 L2 Motivation

L2 in this study indicates the language people learn in addition to the one or more languages they acquire from birth. Learning in this study indicates that learners' conscious effort is initiated, directed, and sustained by motivation over time. Language learning motivation, or L2 motivation, is a complex and composite construct, with various components contributing to learning behaviours and learning achievement (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), mainly involving “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). Other researchers believe L2 motivation mainly concerns why individuals engage or do not engage in learning and how successful they are in acquiring it (Ushioda, 2019).

L2 motivation encompasses initiating, energising and persisting with the language learning process. A great deal of empirical research in L2 motivation research has aimed at measuring the relationship between different aspects of motivation and L2 learning achievement; in other words, motivation has been investigated as to whether it is a predictor of success (Dörnyei, 2001a). It has been recognised as a critical internal factor in language learning success (Byram & Hu, 2012; Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2011). Motivation has been established as a principal determinant of L2 acquisition, comparable in its impact to another well-researched learner variable, language aptitude. Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and tedious learning process (Dörnyei, 1998); it concerns the choice of a particular action, the persistence in that action and the effort expended (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Motivation has a less direct relationship with outcomes than aptitude, but it still predicts how successful a learner can be (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005) because it influences how much time is spent on the learning and also the effort, persistence, or buoyancy, which then influence outcomes.

L2 motivation is a psychological and behavioural phenomenon that varies across individuals and within individuals over time. Many theoretical frameworks, different pedagogical perspectives, and broader social contexts have conceptualised L2 motivation (Ushioda, 2019). L2 motivation research is characterised by an interdisciplinary paradigm that draws on the conceptual domains of social and educational psychology to explain the behaviours and orientations of L2 learners (Lamb et al., 2019). Orientation refers to a set of reasons for performing an activity that provides a frame of reference within which the learner interprets the language learning experience and directs the learner's attention and effort (Noels et al., 2020). Therefore, L2 motivation research approaches have been discovering contextually appropriate and explanatory frameworks to determine the type, goal or reasons for L2 learning; to measure the level of motivation and its fluctuation under the interaction with the learning experience; and to examine the relationship with variables such as effort, persistence and achievement (Ushioda, 2019).

2.2.3 Demotivation

The collapse of motivation is an undeniable problem in foreign language classrooms. Demotivation is a struggle for teachers tackling the classroom, and demotivation also demands researchers' attention. Dörnyei (2001, p. 143) defined demotivation as “specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action”, focusing on the impact of external causes. Kikuchi (2015, p. 3) defined demotivators as “the specific internal and external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioural intention or an ongoing action”, departing from Dörnyei's (2001) definition, which only focused on external factors. Thorner and Kikuchi (2019) stated that demotivation is not merely a product of external factors, so-called demotivators; rather, demotivation should be understood as a complex psychological process that offers a systematic framework for teachers to seek solutions to demotivation issues in their classes.

Instead of using the term demotivation, Vallerand (2007) conceptualised ‘amotivation’ as a product of various beliefs related to ability, effort, strategy and helplessness, focusing on learners’ unrealistic expectations of learning outcomes.

2.2.4 Learning Strategies and Self-Regulation Theory

Learning strategies are techniques that learners apply of their own will to enhance the effectiveness of their learning (Dörnyei, 2001b), and strategy use is part of motivated learning behaviours because strategy use – by definition – constitutes instances of motivated learning behaviour (Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002). In language learning, the study of L2 motivation and language learning strategy use was initiated by Richard Schmidt and Peter MacIntyre and their colleagues (e.g., MacIntyre & Noels, 1996; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). However, Tseng et al. (2006) queried the use of the term “learning strategies” and proposed the construct of self-regulation instead; the latter has become the overarching framework in which language learning strategies are discussed (see also Rose et al., 2018).

Self-regulation involves “cognitive, affective, motivational, and behavioural components that provide the individual with the capacity to adjust his or her actions and goals to achieve desired results in light of changing environmental conditions” (Zeidner et al., 2000, p.751). Dörnyei (2005, p. 191) defines self-regulation as “the degree to which individuals are active participants in their own learning”. It is a more dynamic concept than learning strategy because it highlights “the learners’ own strategic efforts to manage their own achievement through specific beliefs and processes” (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997, p. 105). The concept of self-regulation of academic learning is a “multidimensional construct, including cognitive, metacognitive, motivational, behavioural, and environmental processes that learners can apply to enhance academic achievement” (Rose et al., 2018, p. 152). In L2 research, self-regulation refers to learners’ ability to monitor their learning, keep themselves motivated, make changes to the strategies they employ, and reflect on their actions and

underlying belief systems (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Rose et al., 2018). Self-regulation is closely tied to autonomy and motivation in Lev Vygotsky's social constructivist theory (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978). Ushioda (2008) explained that the Vygotskian perspective illuminates how motivation can be fostered through the formulation of shared intentions and purposes between teacher-imposed goals and students' personal learning objects; therefore, learners' self-regulation comes from both learners and their teachers, their classroom experience or even their previous experience.

After realising the importance of temporal and situated motivation factors (see Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998), L2 researchers have begun to pay more attention to the impact of everyday realities on instructed L2 learning. These realities consist of variable challenges, setbacks, and pressures resulting from, but not limited to, classroom anxieties, exam phobias, or failing grades that might happen to L2 learners and influence the fluctuation of their motivation. In the protracted L2 learning process, motivation maintenance becomes vital for learners to achieve their desired results (Ushioda, 2008). Motivational teaching practice may also play an important role in raising student awareness of self-regulation strategies, which will be another focus of this study. It is also necessary for learners to be equipped with the abilities to bounce back and step forward in their long-term learning endeavours to obtain well-being, strength, and positive orientation in the L2 learning process (Gregersen, 2016; MacIntyre, 2016; Oxford, 2016b). In Chinese classes, CFL learners come across many challenges, pressures and classroom anxieties because of the difficulty and distance of the Chinese language; thus, motivation maintenance becomes vital for learners to achieve their learning goals, and they need to be equipped with self-regulation abilities to obtain the strength and positive orientation in the CFL learning process. This study explores L2 strategy and self-regulation research to understand how self-regulation plays a role in CFL motivation and motivational strategy use in CFL teaching and learning. This study also aims to discover

a number of strategies that learners use to sustain their learning actions and maintain their commitment in the face of adversity.

2.3 Rationale for Theories Chosen for This Study

It is essential to explain why particular theories are taken for the current study. First, as the learners in this study are from an instructed language learning environment, those theories based on the natural learning environment are irrelevant. Second, as a linguistically distant language to European languages, the Chinese learning process and motivation dynamics from a pedagogical perspective might be distinguished from European languages. Finally, it is worth noting that the Chinese language is not the mainstream foreign language that learners are learning in the UK, and there is no well-developed environment for speaking Chinese. Therefore, motivation theories based on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning might not apply to the current CFL learners. Therefore, to review different theories/models that emerged from the beginning of L2 motivation research to the latest ones, especially the classroom-friendly models for understanding L2 motivation in an instructed learning environment, three theories – self-efficacy, self-determination theory (SDT) and self-regulation theories – were chosen for this research.

A cognitive community helps learners acquire, develop, and use learning strategies in authentic activities via interaction, the social construction of knowledge, scaffolding, modelling, goal setting, peer sharing, and learner reflection (Oxford, 2016a). A well-organised classroom can be seen as a cognitive community, where learners' self-efficacy, self-determination and self-regulation all count significantly. Self-efficacy, self-determination and self-regulation are all key factors affecting Chinese learning; although these are separate traits, they may all be interconnected at one time or another within a language learning class. The interaction of these complex and dynamic elements come together to create a near

infinite number of variations, which may impact upon and reflect a unique pattern in learner motivation.

To provide the rationale further, Chinese often is not the first foreign learners in the UK would learn, so the majority of learners of Chinese will have had past performance accomplishments in their European language learning experience; for international students in British universities, learning EFL would be their source of pre-existing language learning self-efficacy. This study aims to find out why some learners drop out of CFL classes, and low self-efficacy might be a possible factor that influences learner motivation, especially when they encounter obstacles, so self-efficacy could be a significant CFL motivation component. Self-efficacy theory will be introduced in Section 2.5.4. SDT is also relevant to analysing classroom language learning and amenable to pedagogical influence. The intrinsic/extrinsic continuum in SDT also applies to two new CFL motivation classifications discussed in Section 8.3.2 in Chapter Eight. SDT will be discussed in Section 2.5.1 in this chapter. Motivational teaching practice may also play an important role in raising student awareness of self-regulation strategies, which will be another focus of this study. In Chinese classes, CFL learners come across many challenges, pressures and classroom anxieties because of the difficulty and distance of the Chinese language; thus, motivation maintenance becomes vital for learners to achieve their learning goals, and they need to be equipped with self-regulation abilities to obtain the strength and positive orientation in the CFL learning process.

2.4 Historical Development of L2 Motivation Research

Over the past 60 years, a large and growing body of literature has investigated learner motivation from different approaches in the second/foreign language field. The first 30 years started from the social-psychological approach in the 1960s, and the second 30 years appeared in the 1990s with the educational shift. Social psychologists initiated the research on language learning motivation in the 1960s in Canada, most notably Robert Gardner,

Wallace Lambert, Richard Clément, and their associates. In the 1990s, a more complex, abundant spectrum of new research directions, often qualitative analyses of motivational antecedents and consequences, gradually replaced the traditional L2 motivation approach of examining correlations between motivational and achievement factors (Dörnyei, 2001a).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) separated the history of L2 motivation into four distinct phases: (1) The social-psychological period (1959-1990) was typified by the research conducted by Robert Gardner and his associates in Canada. (2) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s) was characterised by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology. The 1990s brought an extraordinary boom in L2 motivation research because there was a shift towards viewing motivation as a more dynamic factor in a continuous process of evolution, according to the various internal and external influences the learner is exposed to (Dörnyei, 2001a). The review of different theories/models that emerged from this period, especially the classroom-friendly models for understanding L2 motivation in an instructed learning environment, was emphasised in the rationale in Section 2.3 in this chapter. (3) The process-oriented period (the turn of the century) was characterised by focusing on motivational change. (4) The socio-dynamic period (current) was concerned with dynamic systems and contextual interactions.

From a review of different accounts of the development of L2 motivation research (Byram & Hu, 2012; Ellis, 2008; Gardner, 2012; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2014), a few theories or models emerge as the most significant from these four phases; they are the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985); Dörnyei's 1994 framework of L2 motivation; the framework of motivation in L2 learning (Williams & Burden, 1997); the process model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998); the self-determination model of L2 motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Noels, 2001); and the L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). The L2MSS has adopted the concepts of self and identity from mainstream

educational psychology studies and developed self-psychology by Dörnyei. As a dominant theoretical framework in L2 motivation research, the L2MSS has generated an increasing amount of literature during the past decade worldwide. The details of these models are provided in Sections 2.4.1 to 2.4.5 in below.

2.4.1 Gardner's Theories of L2 Motivation

The socio-educational models of L2 acquisition grew from the research on Anglophone grade 11 students studying French as an L2 in Montreal, Canada, conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1959), and language aptitude and motivation were identified in factor analysis. The motivation was further described as “a willingness to be like valued members of the language community” (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271). The association between various aspects of motivation and L2 learning achievement was measured and explored in an emerging body of research during that period. Motivation was found to act as the mediator between these influences and achievement in language learning (see Gardner et al., 1979; Gardner, 2006, 2010). Gardner constructed the socio-educational model of SLA that recognises that motivation to learn L2 was influenced by integrativeness, attitude toward the learning situation, and language anxiety (which will be discussed in Section 2.5.3).

Integrative and instrumental orientations have received the most empirical attention from Gardner's model. Integrative orientation refers to the desire to learn a language to interact with members of the L2 community, in this case, the French-Canadian community. The instrumental orientation described reasons for L2 learning, which in Gardner's work was learning French in Canada for reasons that reflect practical goals, practice or utilitarian values such as attaining an academic goal or job advancement. Although some studies showed that the integrative orientation was a good predictor of L2 motivation, others indicated that the instrumental orientation was an equivalent or a better predictor (Dörnyei, 2003). Gardner

(1985) himself argued that these two orientations are not mutually exclusive and that both orientations could sustain the effort.

Attitude is an essential concept for understanding human behaviour; it is defined as a mental state that includes beliefs and feelings (Latchanna & Dagnev, 2009). Attitudes toward the L2 speakers or community have been seen as a central component in Gardner's motivation theory, and a number of EFL studies have investigated the role attitude plays in learner motivation (e.g., Gardner, 1978, 1988; Gardner et al., 1997; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). In the context of this study, the role attitude plays in CFL needs to be further investigated.

Other important variables emerged in L2 motivation in Gardner's model. First, a cultural interest reflected the appreciation of cultural products associated with the particular L2, conveyed by the media, such as films, videos, and pop music (Dörnyei, 2003). In foreign language learning contexts where direct contact with L2 speakers is minimal, learners may still learn about the L2 community through exposure to various L2 cultural products and artefacts. Second, the milieu in L2 motivation research refers to the perceived social influence of significant others such as parents, family, and friends that stems from the immediate environment as opposed to the macro context (Dörnyei, 2003). Finally, linguistic self-confidence in L2 motivation reflects a confident and anxiety-free belief that mastering the L2 is well within the learner's power (Dörnyei, 2003), which will be discussed in Section 2.5.3.

However, Gardner's early model has received criticism for various reasons since the 1990s. First, his theories were not generalisable to many foreign language learning situations because his model was developed within the bilingual learning environment for English speakers to learn French in Canada, where Anglophone and Francophone communities live closely. Whereas in many EFL learning contexts, on the one hand, learners have minimal

daily contact with the target English language, so integrativeness may not mean much in many language learning environments (Dörnyei, 2009). On the other hand, English is a global phenomenon, suggesting that the distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations is not that useful. Plus, this theory did not take account of insights from mainstream motivation research or offer links with the cognitive, motivational concepts in motivational psychology, such as goal theories or self-determination theory (Dörnyei, 2009). More importantly, as a model applied to natural language acquisition or an uninstructed learning environment, Gardner's model paid no attention to the pedagogical issue in the classroom situation or the role of motivation in the complex process of L2 language teaching. For example, attitudes towards a specific language might not be sufficient to predict sustained effort and investment even if it played a role in motivation when enrolling in a language course.

2.4.2 Dörnyei's (1994) Three-level Framework of L2 Motivation

This educational shift and the subsequent motivational renaissance (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994) happened at the same time as there was a parallel shift in psychology research when the role of the social context in learning activities was highlighted, and the links between individual and social influences were discussed (McGroarty, 2011). Researchers then began to examine the motivational influence of the numerous aspects of the learning context, for example, the relevance of the teaching methods for course-related factors; the motivational impact of the teacher's personality, behaviour, and teaching style/practice for teacher-related factors; and various characteristics of the learner group, such as cohesiveness, goal-orientedness and group norms for group-related factors (Dörnyei, 2003). Dörnyei (1994) developed a classroom-oriented model in the educational context in which L2 motivation was conceptualised on three levels, known as Dörnyei's (1994) three levels framework: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level (see

Table 2.1). They correspond to the three essential constituents – L2, L2 learner, and L2 learning environment – of the L2 learning process.

The language level encompasses the integrative and instrumental motivational subsystem that draws on Gardner's socio-educational framework, as mentioned in Section 2.4.1. Gardner's construct of L2 motivation has been seen as the interplay of two components – integrative and instrumental motivations or Integrativeness and Instrumentality. The learner level involves the individual characteristics that the learners bring to the learning process and draws on cognitive theories such as the need for achievement, perceived L2 competence, self-efficacy, and causal attributions, together with self-confidence and language use anxiety. Finally, the learning situation level relates specifically to the L2 learning classroom and comprises course-specific motivational components such as interest in the course, the relevance of the course to one's needs, the expectancy of success and satisfaction; teacher-specific motivational components such as affiliative drive, authority type of the teacher and modelling processes, task presentation and feedback; and group-specific motivational components such as goal-orientedness, the norm and reward system in place, group cohesiveness and classroom goal structure.

In the course-specific motivational component, the relevance of the course to one's needs relates to the instrumentality. Previous L2 motivation studies have shown that the instrumental value for work plays an essential motivational role, especially in tertiary-level students (Fryer et al., 2014; Johnson, 2013). Many EFL studies have explored whether enhancing learners' perception of the relevance of L2 to their lives can increase their motivation to learn that language (see Dörnyei, 2003; Ushioda, 2012). Perceived relevance was found to be a predictor of uptake at GCSE in an experiment in UK secondary schools, using interventions from external speakers and lessons with external tutors talking about their experience with that language, although telling learners about the utility of learning language

had no impact on the uptake at GCSE (Taylor & Marsden, 2014). Furthermore, the perception of low relevance is considered a significant cause of learner demotivation (which will be discussed in Section 2.7) in Anglophone countries (Coleman, 2009). Lamb (2017) suggested that teaching should try to reinforce the utility of L2 and increase the relevance of L2.

Dörnyei (2001) pointed out that this model only clustered key variables concerned with L2 motivation but did not elaborate on the relationship among the factors situated on the learner, language, and learning situation levels. It is also important to note that this model does not attempt to divide motivation into three sub-types but simultaneously provides three perspectives.

Table 2. 1
Dörnyei's 1994 Three Levels Framework

LEVEL	COMPONENTS
Language level	Integrative motivational subsystem Instrumental motivational subsystem
Learner level	Need for achievement Self-confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language use anxiety • Perceived L2 competence • Causal attributions • Self-efficacy
Learning situation level	
Course-specific motivational components	Interest (in the course) components Relevance (of the course to one's needs) Expectancy (of success) Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
Teacher-specific motivational components	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher) Authority type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) Direct socialisation of motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modelling • Task Presentation • Feedback
Group-specific motivational components	Goal-orientedness Norm and reward system Group cohesiveness Classroom goal structure (cooperative, competitive or individualistic)

2.4.3 Socio-dynamic Perspectives on Motivation

Dörnyei's (1994) three levels framework described the temporal organisation of motivation and viewed motivation as a static phenomenon. Although language learning is a lengthy process and motivation does not remain constant, analysing the contextual dynamics of how L2 motivation changes over time did not receive theoretical attention until the turn of the twenty-first century (Dörnyei, 2003). After that, researchers became increasingly interested in the temporal aspect of motivation and started to pay closer attention to motivational processes. Williams and Burden's (1997) motivational framework suggested that it is important to distinguish between three motivational stages: students' decision to do something, their reasons for doing something, and the factors influencing their sustained effort, which was illustrated by Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation. That describes motivation as a sequence of three discrete action stages: the preactional, actional and postactional stages.

However, this model has problems when transferred to the educational context; firstly, it is difficult to draw clear-cut boundaries between the three different stages with a clear start and end of activity; second, learners are usually involved in many parallel tasks with different learning goals competing with each other (Dörnyei, 2005). The drawbacks of approaching motivation as a series of linear cause-effect relations were also highlighted (Dörnyei, 2010). Nevertheless, this process model acknowledges that motivational actions are not isolated but have antecedents and consequences. This model not only pushed forward the understanding of the unstable nature of motivation but also recently turned to a dynamic system perspective on motivation.

2.4.4 Dörnyei's (2009) L2 Self-system of Motivation

Gardner's integrative and instrumental motivation dimensions have been criticised for not being related to integration into the L2 community regarding the individual's self-concept

(Dörnyei, 2005). Having evaluated Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model (see Section 2.4.1), especially why it needed modifying, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed the L2 Motivational Self-system (L2MSS), which drew on Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves' theory and Higgins's (1987) self-discrepancy theory. In this sense, motivation can be seen as the desire to reduce the perceived discrepancies between the learner's actual and possible self (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). Vision has been described as the motivational power exerted by mental imagery and raised by the reality-like nature of envisaged future scenes when the outcome is realistic and plausible for learners (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013).

The L2MSS suggests that three primary sources of motivation to learn a foreign/second language are based on these three components – the learners' vision of themselves as effective L2 speakers, the social pressures coming from the learners' environments, and positive learning experiences (Dörnyei, 2013). By adding the learning experience into the possible selves' theory to present the potential influence of learners' learning environment, the L2MSS concerns the motivational impact of the various aspects of the learning situation, such as the teacher, the learning group and the curriculum. Therefore, this construct predicts and explains L2 learners' motivation in most contexts through three components: the Ideal L2 Self (the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self); the Ought-to L2 Self (one ought to meet expectations and avoid possible adverse outcomes), and the L2 Learning Experience (situated motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience). To be specific, the Ideal L2 Self represents the learner's personally valued vision of themselves as a competent user of the L2 in the future; the Ought-to L2 Self represents the learner's conception of what significant others believe they ought to be like in the future; and the L2 learning experience represents the learner's attitudes to, and experiences of, the learning process, inside and outside of classrooms (see Dörnyei, 2009). In self-determination theory (SDT, discussed in Section 2.5.1) terminology, the Ideal L2 Self can be seen as a

strongly internalised motivation that encourages a positive aspiration for the desired goal, while the Ought-to L2 Self can be seen as a more external motivation that avoids a bad end state. Close links between the Ideal L2 Self and self-efficacy beliefs have been found in empirical studies where individuals must believe in their capacity to learn and use the L2 to visualise a future L2-using self (see Iwaniec, 2014; Kormos & Kiddle, 2011).

To date, the L2MSS is the most widely applied L2 motivation theory (Boo et al., 2015), and rich empirical studies have validated it in various learning environments (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; MacIntyre et al., 2019; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). Furthermore, empirical studies in global contexts have consistently found that the Ideal L2 Self and the L2 Learning Experience are more closely associated with actual or intended learning effort than any other motivational constructs, such as Gardner's (1985) integrative or instrumental orientations (Kormos et al., 2011; Taguchi et al., 2009). Furthermore, the L2 Learning Experience was found to be a predictor of L2 motivation and, for younger learners, may even be the most important factor (see You & Dörnyei, 2016), which emphasises the role of the teacher and pedagogy as a decisive factor influence on motivation (Lamb, 2017).

Although the L2MSS has been seen as the most widely used theoretical paradigm in L2 motivation research of the current century (Boo et al., 2015), it faces various conceptual and empirical challenges. On the one hand, there have been criticisms of the L2MSS for its excessive attention to the future-oriented aspects of the self and less focus on the motivational consequences of other self-concepts and more directly related identities (Lamb, 2017). On the other hand, while studies have found reliable evidence of the relationship between the Ideal L2 Self and motivated behaviour, the Ought-to L2 has received considerably less attention. In addition, the L2 Learning Experience is also very under-theorised and under-investigated but is still often the most powerful predictor of motivated behaviour (Dörnyei, 2019).

Although there have not been many studies on L2MSS measuring motivation for CFL, two doctoral theses in the US (Liu, 2014; Xie, 2011) validated this theory, which shows it can be extended to CFL learning at the university level. For most learners in the UK, the Chinese language is not the first choice for L2 learning. Therefore, some learners' initial motivations for CFL learning might not come from internally or externally generated self-images but from successful previous foreign language learning experiences. Noticeably, the L2MSS likely includes the element of cosmopolitanism or open-mindedness, which means an open mind that values learning a foreign language and communicating with people from other countries. If individuals have a solid Ideal Self, they believe it is important to be proficient speakers, which is relevant to the current study.

2.4.5 Current Models or Approaches

The previous sections have shown that the study of L2 motivation evolved through different theoretical phases from the 1960s to the 2010s. This section presents new theoretical approaches that have emerged over the past decade. The first new approach was initiated by a dynamic turn in applied linguistics and broader social sciences at the beginning of the century to capture motivational dynamics; a complex dynamic systems perspective was adopted by L2 motivation research. The second approach developed from the L2MSS and the notion of vision, which conceptualised complex dynamic system theory (CDST) (Dörnyei et al., 2015), directed motivational currents (DMCs) (see Dörnyei et al., 2014; Muir, 2020; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013) and longer-term motivation (see Grant & Shin, 2012). A three-tier framework of personality was described as the New Big Five model (Mcadmas & Pals, 2006), including dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations, and integrative life narratives. Another new concept is unconscious motivation (see Ferguson et al., 2008), which plays a more significant role in shaping human behaviours (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). The new theoretical approaches that have emerged in L2 motivation over the past decade have been listed above,

but they will not be described with details as the space is limited. The theories/models the current study gained insights from will be illustrated in the next section with details.

2.5 Influential Theories from Mainstream Motivation Research for L2 Motivation Research

In the 1990s, a paradigm shift was led by cognitive psychologies, and several influential cognitive motivation theories were proposed in mainstream psychology: self-determination theory, expectancy-value models, attribution theory, and goal theories. In this section, these psychological motivation theories applied to L2 learning and social cognitive theories, such as self-efficacy and L2 self-confidence, will be reviewed in detail. This section aims to give a complete picture of motivation research theories and empirical studies and identify the relevant ones for the current study. The Chinese language is considered a different and challenging language for learners, requiring persistence and self-regulated learning. The adult learners in the current study take a language as an additional or informal course in UK HE and FE institutions. Therefore, to understand the nature of the CFL motivation in the informal education context in the UK, appropriate research perspectives need to be tapped into for this specific motivation study. Self-efficacy, self-determination theory, self-regulation, resilience, academic buoyancy, anxiety and linguistic confidence might emerge as the most important theories for the current study, introduced in detail below.

2.5.1 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT), initially proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2002), is one of the most influential and enduring motivational theories and has been widely applied, from education and healthcare to management and other domains concerned with the social conditions that facilitate or obstruct human success. For example, SDT has been used in education settings to understand what moves students to act and persist (Reeve, 2006). SDT is best known for the continuum from intrinsic motivation to extrinsic motivation. It was

suggested that intrinsic motivation is an important variable when exploring students' motivated engagement. Intrinsic motivation primarily involves the satisfaction of basic psychological needs for autonomy (having a choice about one's personal actions and feeling that these actions are the result of one's own will rather than external pressure or control), competence (the perception that one's behaviour or actions are effective and efficient) and relatedness (a sense of belonging, intimacy and support from others) (see Deci & Ryan, 2000). This suggests the importance of providing a sense of relatedness, belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture. In education settings, feelings of being respected and cared for by the teacher are vital for students' willingness to accept classroom values (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In classrooms, students could feel autonomous when they are given options to perform their work; they could feel competent when they are able to track their progress when developing skills or understanding the material, which is fostered by receiving feedback about their progression; relatedness is fostered when students feel both intellectually and emotionally connected to their teachers and peers in the class, which is accomplished through interactions that allow classmates to get to know each other on a more personal level. These are key insights from SDT for teachers (see Lamb, 2017).

However, extrinsic motivation is usually seen as inferior to intrinsic orientation in terms of the quality of learning engagement (Deci & Moller, 2005), although extrinsic motivation may become internally regulated and synthesised with the self over time (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Therefore, extrinsically motivated behaviours are usually initiated by significant others to whom individuals feel connected, whether a family, a peer group or a society.

While integrativeness and instrumentality are insufficient to explain the process of L2 learning engagement in the instructed learning settings, SDT is "more relevant to the analysis of classroom language learning, and more directly amenable to pedagogical influence and internal as well as external regulation" (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p. 399). Applying the

intrinsic/extrinsic continuum could be helpful for teachers to organise L2 learning goals systematically (Dörnyei, 2001), raise students' intrinsic motivation with helpful instruction and fulfil students' necessities for autonomy, competence and relatedness, so that students can personally choose meaningful activities, gain mastery of skills and be connected to and valued by others engaged in the activity (Lamb, 2017). Researchers on positive group dynamics have also addressed the principle of relatedness and found that teachers can motivate learners by deliberately fostering positive class relationships (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). Furthermore, SDT theory is useful for L2 teachers to analyse the classroom climate in terms of a dimension of contrast in promoting either control or autonomy, which has immediate practical implications for educating autonomous, self-regulated L2 learners (Dörnyei, 2001).

Conflating the concept of extrinsic/instrumental motivation and the concept of intrinsic/integrative motivation is problematic on a theoretical level and has received no sound empirical evidence. Moreover, the attempts to match self-determination theory to the socio-psychological model are not convincing; in other words, intrinsic motivation should not be mixed up with integrative orientation (Busse, 2013). For instance, some learners may have a low sense of integrativeness yet strongly derive intrinsic fulfilment in learning the L2; others may have a strong integrative orientation but only grow little intrinsic pleasure from L2 learning (Schmidt & Savage, 1994).

2.5.2 Confidence and Anxiety

The concept of self-confidence bears a resemblance to self-efficacy beliefs; however, in social psychological approaches to research L2 education, Clément (1980) proposed linguistic self-confidence as an important determinant of the motivation to learn an L2, which lies in the frequency and quality of the contact with the target community and is therefore situated in the social-psychological tradition. Clément (1980) argued that students who

experience a close connection with the L2 community might have stronger confidence in their capacity for L2 learning. A opposite opinion is that more confident learners seek intercultural exposure, which in turn can improve attitudes towards L2 and lead to positive learning behaviours (Csizér & Kormos, 2008). A more recent study suggests that the relationship is likely to be reciprocal, supporting that promoting intercultural contact could increase L2 motivation through short-term study abroad programmes or computer-mediated communication (Sampasivam & Clément, 2014). Finally, it is worth noting that teachers have valued developing student self-confidence as an effective teaching strategy in various contexts (Lamb, 2017).

As the most frequently investigated emotion in SLA, language anxiety has been studied since the mid-1980s on the orientation around the concept of an emotional reaction to language situations (see Gardner, 1985; Horwitz et al., 1986). Horwitz et al. (1986) developed the situation-specific Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), and various studies on more specific aspects of anxiety in language learning, including skill areas, classroom experience and stage of processing, were followed up (see MacIntyre et al., 2019). The negative effects of language anxiety lie in causing an increase in self-focused attention and distracting, self-deprecating thoughts (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Noticeably, language anxiety is not the only reason some learners avoid communicating; willingness to communicate (WTC) could also be affected by perceived communication competence in L2 (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003; MacIntyre et al., 1999). Perceived communication competence, personality characteristics such as anxiety, social-psychological characteristics that sustain the student's communication behaviours (MacIntyre et al., 1999), and prior experiences in communication situations (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991) all influence WTC.

To bring language anxiety into a broader model, Clément (1980, 1986) developed the concept of L2 confidence (L2C), corresponding to a lack of anxiety and positive self-

evaluation of competence. Emotions might be an essential motivation system that human beings possess (Izard, 2007), but surprisingly have been previously underappreciated in the literature on motivation for language learning for their role in motivation, energising action and guiding behaviour (MacIntyre et al., 2019).

2.5.3 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy theory was developed and popularised by Albert Bandura (1986, 1995), and it has generated a significant body of empirical studies across different cultural contexts and disciplines (e.g., Bassi et al., 2007; Graham, 2007; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Speier & Frese, 1997). In Bandura's social cognitive theory, self-evaluation plays a vital role in shaping a learner's approach to learning tasks; this is introduced in the concept of self-efficacy – one of the most important psychological constructs in human functioning (Schunk & Pajares, 2004). Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as people's belief about their capabilities to achieve or complete a task by organising the skills and strategies to accomplish it; therefore, people's decisions, aspirations, and persistence are determined by their sense of efficacy.

Self-efficacy beliefs are formed through successful performance, judgements from others, and positive emotions; these beliefs have been shown to influence a wide range of other motivational beliefs, such as expectancy beliefs and the value someone places on an activity (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (2001, p. 10) pointed out, “unless people believe that they can produce desired results and forestall detrimental ones by their actions, they have little incentive to act or persevere in the face of difficulties”. That is to say, people with a low sense of self-efficacy tend to have negative attitudes toward complex tasks, and view them as threats and obstacles, so they lose faith or give up easily, which may then lead to lower motivation. By contrast, people with a high sense of self-efficacy tend to have more

confidence and expectation and try hard to overcome difficulties to sustain their effort when facing a possible failure.

Education researchers have also found that learners' beliefs about their ability to perform specific tasks can influence their choice of activities, effort, and ultimate achievements (Mills, 2014). In the classroom setting, classroom experiences and teacher behaviours are an essential source of self-efficacy beliefs, and they may shape learners' self-efficacy with a potentially long-term impact on student academic success (Lamb, 2017). In L2 research, self-efficacy is a significant component of language learner motivation. It has been shown to predict L2 achievement in university settings (Mills et al., 2007) and school settings (Hsieh & Kang, 2010).

There are several concepts similar to self-efficacy, and theoretical clarifications are necessary. The first similar concept is learners' self-confidence (see Section 2.5.3) in their proficiency, which is related to "self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language" (Noels et al., 1996, p. 255). However, self-efficacy beliefs reflect "individual's judgments of how capable they are of performing specific activities" and "beliefs about expectations of future achievement" (Graham, 2007, p. 82), and "the product of a complex process of self-persuasion that is based on cognitive processing of diverse sources" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 16).

The second confusion lies in the interface between self-determination (see in Section 2.5.1) and self-efficacy, as both theories acknowledge "the importance of perceived competence for motivated engagement", and both theories stress "the importance of feedback received through task engagement apart from verbal persuasion" (Busse, 2013, p. 47). However, slightly differently, self-efficacy stresses the importance of mastery experience for learners' competence beliefs when engaging with learning activities. In contrast, self-

determination not only stresses the importance of mastering tasks but also stresses that tasks must be optimally challenging so learners can derive pleasure from mastering the task.

Moreover, Bandura's (2012, p. 13) definition of self-efficacy mentioned how mastery of experiences influences self-efficacy: if people experience only easy successes, they expect quick results and are easily discouraged by setbacks and failures. Resilient self-efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort. Resilience is also built by learning how to manage failure so that it is informative rather than demoralising.

Third, both self-efficacy and self-concept are concerned with the individual's perceptions of competence, but self-efficacy beliefs are dynamic, and it is more task and situation specific than self-concept (Bandura, 1997; Schunk et al., 2008); while research on self-concept usually views the self as stable (Busse, 2013). Moreover, it is a self-descriptive judgment, including the feelings of self-worth that accompany competence beliefs (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). In addition, self-efficacy beliefs are measured without comparing with others and focus on a specific ability to accomplish a task, while self-concept items focus on social comparison, including items such as compared to others in my class I am good at [...]

(Marsh, 1993).

2.5.4 Resilience and Academic Buoyancy

Resilience refers to the capacity to bounce back, withstand hardship, overcome adversity, and recover quickly from difficulties and toughness (Martin, 2013; Wolin & Wolin, 1993). A lack of resilience is relevant to chronic underachievement, self-system debilitation in the face of failure, truancy, disaffection and alienation from school, or opposition to teachers (see Martin, 2013). Martin and Marsh (2006) show that resilient learners who effectively dealt with the challenge, adversity and setbacks were high in self-efficacy, persistence and planning, but low in anxiety and uncertainty control. In the painstaking, time-consuming and difficulties-laden L2 learning process, resilience emerges as

an individual difference factor influencing how far L2 learners can overcome the intractable challenges in long-term L2 learning without early capitulation (Kim et al., 2017). Language educators nowadays appreciate the importance of improving the learners' language learning experience by equipping them with perseverance, flexibility and positive emotions to maintain and develop their motivation over the long term of language learning (Yun et al., 2018).

Drawing the insights from self-regulation, resilience and positive psychology research, academic buoyancy in L2 learning has recently become increasingly important in its position and role (Yun et al., 2018). The concept of academic buoyancy was first proposed by Martin and Marsh (2008); they defined it as the capacity to actively adapt and adjust attention, emotions and behaviours to address the typical challenges in school life and successfully respond to current and ongoing academic setbacks and challenges. A lack of buoyancy can lead to increased anxiety and reduced confidence, thereby interrupting learners' motivation and participation (Yun et al., 2018).

Like any other subject where buoyancy plays a vital role in language learning, buoyancy builds individual strength. It helps learners deal with setbacks proactively, thus coping with ups and downs, bolstering effort and commitment, overcoming hindrances on the path to success in L2 learning, and finally helps sustain and even enhance L2 motivation (cf. Martin et al., 2010). However, buoyancy has yet to be examined much in L2 learning. Buoyancy could be understood as a specific focus on a range of concepts whose interrelationships need to be further explored in language learning research (Yun et al., 2018). In Yun et al.'s (2018) study, the authors examined the relevance of academic buoyancy to L2 motivation and achievement by investigating how buoyancy exists for L2 language learning. First, they examined the typical buoyancy profiles of L2 learners and then investigated the relationship between buoyancy and its motivational predictors (self-efficacy,

self-regulation, persistence, anxiety, teacher-student relationship and the Ideal L2 Self) and its concrete L2 learning outcomes. The results showed that buoyancy was a predictor and a mediator for the two outcome variables – L2 achievement and Grade-Point Average (GPA). This study has implications for the study of the CFL by highlighting a new motivational dimension underexplored in CFL research.

2.5.5 Foreign Language Learning Emotions

Studies have differentiated learner motivation and learning emotion - motivation is more susceptible to deflation because of the way a language course progresses; emotion is less fleeting than previously envisaged and may be more trait-like with greater stability over time; however, motivation can energise and give direction, which is often missing with the emotion (Dewaele et al., 2022). However, learner motivation can be shaped by learner emotion; there is likely a reciprocal effect, which means that strong motivation is linked with active engagement in classroom activities and positive learning experiences with manageable anxiety (Dewaele et al., 2022). In other words, emotions have motivational qualities that can sustain and amplify existing motivation; positive emotions contribute to foreign language motivational processes (Dörnyei, 2020); high foreign language enjoyment can act as a buoy for sagging motivation and thus become intrinsically motivating (Dewaele et al., 2022). Furthermore, fostering learners' positive emotions may generate and forge pathways to their learning goals and establish a sense of control over motivation fluctuation and help regain lost motivation (MacIntyre et al., 2016).

The acknowledgement of learner emotions within the classroom learning experience can offer a unique opportunity for students to voice their feelings and reflect on their learning effort and also the hindrances that affect their learning progress. It is also important to raise awareness of learner motivation and emotion in teaching practices because applying individualisation of the positive learning activities in a learner-centred classroom experience

is equally vital to positive group dynamics, which fosters social relationships, interpersonal skills and empathy (Mercer, 2016). Strong positive emotions may generate more favourable intergroup, interpersonal and intrapersonal outcomes (MacIntyre & Vincze, 2017).

Foreign language enjoyment is an important aspect of positive psychology in SLA. This enjoyment is a complex emotion that captures the interlinked dimensions of challenge and perceived abilities, which reflect the human drive to succeed when facing difficult tasks; enjoyment can simply be an agreeable feeling, or it occurs as a signifier of people meeting their needs and exceeding them (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016). In the context of this study, L3 Chinese learners are likely learning another language out of pure choice and interest, and they may be particularly characterised by a desire to feel good about their choice and have fun in the learning process; thus, enjoyment and other positive emotions in Chinese learning are essential areas of interest in this study.

Oxford (2016a) put forward the theory of EMPATHICS, which is an acronym that outlines important psychological forces that help learners who enjoy the language learning experience achieve high well-being and rapid progress and explains why learners with low happiness are more likely to experience frustration, anxiety or apathy. EMPATHICS helps to explain those less-fluctuated learners who show less motivational fluctuation by their character strengths, which include wisdom, curiosity, love of learning, open-mindedness, persistence, courage, zest, as well as temperance. For example, if learners have persistence, they complete tasks with perseverance, despite obstacles and difficulties; if learners have zest, they may take pleasure in task completion, and display a sense of adventurousness in learning the new language and culture; if learners have temperance, they manifest self-regulation regarding their actions, emotions, and cognitions through the use of language learning strategies. Further research is needed on how variables of individual learner differences impact motivation fluctuation and quantify it.

Research on emotions in Chinese learning has not received a great deal of attention; unlike anxiety and other negative emotions, positive emotions such as enjoyment have rarely been discussed in relation to Chinese language learning. Research in negative emotions concerns the reduction in cognition, self-confidence, personal agency, control, willingness to communicate and the reduction in the ability to express and recognise emotions (MacIntyre et al., 2016). However, it is possible that not all negative emotions are bad for language learning. It could be argued that negative emotions may stimulate resilience in learners in a harsh situation; for example, anxiety may generate a focus that calls learners to a specific action, and sadness or disappointment may serve as a helpful wake-up call (Oxford, 2016a).

Although this study discusses learner difficulties, the focus on how to prevent demotivation and build resilience lies with a focus on human well-being and positive psychology research. This study opens up new vistas for theory and language learning and teaching; a lot of researchers have looked at why learners stopped learning languages, why they dislike language learning, and what we have done wrong with language learning and teaching, but more research is needed on regaining the motivation of a learner. This study helps to create a more comprehensive picture in this regard by highlighting some of the motivational strategies successful learners have employed.

Unfortunately, many teachers of MFL have to force their students to learn languages by telling them it is relevant in the UK and maybe other Anglophone countries. Conversely, this study looks closely at L3 learners and why and how they engage in Chinese learning, which is worth sharing with all language learners, teachers and researchers. In addition, this study provides insights into what we can learn from successful learners, especially how we can foster intrinsic motivation.

Therefore, this study hopes to propose pedagogical strategies on how to engage learners with relevant and interesting activities to enhance the positive language learning

experience, especially the enjoyment of learning, and to empower learners to become effective self-regulating language learners, especially in those challenging circumstances that generate intense negative emotions during their learning journey.

2.5.6 Plurilingualism

The concept of plurilingualism comes out of European documents, primarily the Erasmus Programme¹⁹ and work on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The European goal of multilingualism is to encourage people not just to have proficiency in another language but to be interested in multiple awareness of language and culture. The CEFR website²⁰ distinguishes between multilingualism (the coexistence of different languages at the social or individual level) and plurilingualism (the dynamic and developing linguistic repertoire of an individual user/learner). Plurilingualism is presented in the CEFR as an uneven and changing competence in which the user/learner's resources in one language or variety may be very different in nature from their resources in another. However, the fundamental point is that plurilingual people have a single, interrelated repertoire that they combine with their general competencies and various strategies in order to accomplish tasks (CEFR 2001 Section 6.1.3.2). Contrary to multilingualism, plurilingualism considers the interaction of languages in a dynamic way at the individual level rather than compartmentalising them as individual entities (Piccardo, 2013).

Plurilingualism recognises and values learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds when learning a new language and has an inclusive nature that validates and respects student identity in linguistically diverse language classrooms (Galante, 2018). This concept of respecting and being motivated by the idea of multiple levels of language and cultural awareness, together with an appreciation for the idea that multiple language usage in different

¹⁹ European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students is a European Union (EU) student exchange programme established in 1987

²⁰ <https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4>

ways is part of who you are, fits well with the conceptual framework and themes presented within this study.

Plurilingualism positively empowers language learners to maximise their linguistic resources by considering any linguistic knowledge as a valuable asset, developing higher cognitive flexibility and linguistic and cultural transfer, enhancing learners' creative thinking and cultural empathy, and fostering social and educational environments conducive to learning languages (Galante, 2018). As Section 2.2.3 mentioned above, Chinese language learning in the context of this study is more likely to be an L3, as most learners in UK HE and FE have acquired a second language at some point in their life. Therefore, plurilingualism is important for L3 Chinese learning, as it considers L1 and L2 linguistic knowledge as a springboard for learning L3 Chinese, and it empowers L3 Chinese learners to draw on their linguistic repertoire and positively affect their learner identity. In this respect plurilingualism may be more relevant for L3 Chinese learners than for those learning a language as an L2.

A number of studies have explored how multilingualism/plurilingualism can constitute a source of motivation (see Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Lasagabaster, 2017; Ushioda, 2017). Mayumi and Zheng (2023) stated that learners of two or more foreign languages could develop ideal multilingual selves, as an addition to an ideal L2 self that is specific to each foreign language being learned. This ideal multilingual self not only affects learners' motivation for learning any language but also exerts an indirect effect on learners' intended effort. It remains vague, however, without concrete goals and makes it difficult to maintain motivation for learning different languages simultaneously (Mayumi & Zheng, 2023). Therefore, when learning multiple languages, learners need to be strategic in balancing across the languages and, at the same time, maintain a solid ideal L2 self in relation

to the weakest language in order to achieve their ideal multilingual selves (Mayumi & Zheng, 2023).

2.5.7 Summary of Theories that Contribute to the Design of the study

The distinctive features of language learners with strong self-determination and self-efficacy are highlighted in learning Chinese as an L3. L3 Chinese Learners are likely to have more intrinsic motivation because they undertake Chinese mainly because of its own appeal and the personal meaning of the learning but not because of the external rewards and punishments, although they exist to some level. Research has found that foreign language learners with a high level of well-being seek and create meaning which helps them be motivated (Gregersen et al., 2016); learners with a higher level of intrinsic motivation are likely to involve and engage more in learning, display more creative thinking and problem-solving, and interact with and retain material more effectively (Ushioda, 2008). In this study, L3 Chinese learners with intrinsic motivation may experience a sense of competence and look for personal significance in the learning process. Intrinsically motivated learners are concerned about the satisfaction and pleasure in learning and a sense of optimal challenge appropriate to their competence.

Research into personal traits of protective factors in language learning found that learners with more resilience can positively adapt during significant adversity (Oxford, 2016a). These personal traits include outgoing and adaptable personalities, the ability to enlist support, achievement-oriented competence, self-efficacy, self-esteem, a sense of purpose and meaning in life, anticipation, goal-directedness, a positive outlook, talents valued by self and society, hardiness, educational aspirations, general attractiveness to others, humour, and other social, emotional and moral/spiritual qualities (Oxford, 2016a). L3 Chinese learners may be more likely to have these traits if learning Chinese is their own choice and they find enjoyment in it.

Recent studies of L2 motivation have been influenced by positive psychology, especially on emotions such as enjoyment in learning (Gregersen et al., 2016). On the other hand, foreign language anxiety is seen as the polar opposite of foreign language enjoyment, which has been studied thoroughly in English as L2 motivation, but it is still new to the Chinese language as L2 or L3 learning. Considering Chinese L3 learning may cause the learner a lot of anxiety and require a lot of confidence to overcome this, at the same time, it gives learners rewards and joy for overcoming such challenges. Successful or highly motivated L3 Chinese learners may have a higher level of confidence and self-efficacy when facing challenges, and they may be good at developing good learner strategies as well as being patient during the learning process, making more effort and persisting longer to overcome challenges; at the same time, unsuccessful learners may give up learning due to low self-efficacy and high level of anxiety.

2.6 Research into Motivation for Learning LOTEs

The focus of L2 motivation research has been seen as to be inappropriate given the nature of the contemporary multilingual world, where the dominance of focusing on global English could cause a bias in theorising language learning motivation by neglecting those languages that have no lingua franca status – languages other than English (LOTEs) (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Furthermore, there is far less research dedicated to understanding the motivation for LOTEs, even though the number of learners of those languages has declined (Lanvers & Chambers, 2019). Compared to the abundant and empirically investigated motivation research of English as a target language, the field of language learning motivation for LOTEs in an era of a globalised, multilingual and multicultural world is uncharted, insufficient and imbalanced. This brings into question whether or not it is rational and applicable to transfer the research outcomes from English into LOTEs directly (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Duff, 2017; Ushioda, 2017).

Issues may arise by conceptualising L2 motivation from research into motivation for learning English and downplaying subtle characteristics or nuanced features that differ between English and LOTEs. For example, it has been argued that “it generates a reductionist picture; it overlooks a powerful process in the 21st century: the unprecedented surge in human mobility, involving large-scale immigration” (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 456). Furthermore, in teaching practice, compared with teaching English as an international language in non-Anglophone-speaking countries, foreign language teaching in Anglophone-speaking countries requires different motivational strategies because of cultural and education traditions (Lamb, 2017). In the world of English as a global language, mastering English has been seen as a commonplace skill for both academia and business but speaking additional languages may give individuals an advantage in the global job market, shown in the report of *English Next*²¹. However, because of this, the worldwide status of Global English may discourage individuals, who already speak English, to learn any further languages (Ushioda, 2017), i.e., the globalised lingua franca may unconsciously cause damage to learn LOTEs (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). This phenomenon has even been referred to as linguistic genocide (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). Furthermore, society’s subtle and often unconscious resistance to language globalisation could lead to a marked incongruity between the efforts and resources that learners invest and the learning success they experience (see Apple et al., 2013). This disparity implies that “a prerequisite to the successful mastery of LOTEs is not only an incentive to attain the L2 in question but also the resilience required to be able to learn it in the shadow of Global English” (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 465).

While English retains its global, ubiquitous and cachet status, it is critical to understand the foundations of how, why and what drives learners to take or not take up

²¹ <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/publications/case-studies-insights-and-research/english-next>

LOTES (Duff, 2017). When the study of languages other than English is freely chosen, learners' motivation for it has been associated with highly specific and personalised reasons from empirical studies (e.g., Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Xu & Moloney, 2019). These include learners' postures toward local and international languages and identities.

International posture is defined by Yashima (2002, p. 57) as an “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and [...] openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures”.

The small amount of research on motivation for learning LOTES has complemented the research on learning English for a holistic picture of L2 motivation research. Up to now, research on motivation for LOTES has been primarily on European languages, but researchers have begun to expand these linguistic and geographical borders to include languages like Chinese. For example, Sharma (2018) examined the tension between learning Chinese versus English from the point of view of language ideologies. Language ideologies are “beliefs, feelings, and conceptions about language structure and use which often index the political, economic interests of individual speakers, ethnic and other interest groups, and nation states” (Kroskrity, 2010, p. 192). Sharma stated that a more complex picture of English co-exists with another emerging lingua franca – Mandarin Chinese, and English-Chinese bilingualism would be valued in more international communication contexts. Thus, “the ideologies and identities associated with the Chinese language as a language of the People’s Republic of China may lead to several reinterpretations” (Sharma, 2018, p. 6). Research perspectives also have been expanded from a single individual perspective into social contexts (Duff, 2017). Duff (2017) also suggests that motivation theories need to be studied, emphasising socio-political, sociocultural, economic and ideological aspects of language learning in a diverse context.

The motivation for LOTEs is likely shaped by specific personal goals, reasons or interests (Al-Hoorie, 2017) with an internally driven nature and deep-seated psychological needs (Fraschini & Caruso, 2019), which may be different from the motivation for learning English that is usually not a matter of individual choices. Moreover, learners of LOTEs may have a “desire to connect with a certain culture and community of speakers, or perhaps a broader sense of openness to other cultures and societies”, which makes it distinctive from the motivation for learning English (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 90). Although the attitudinal disposition to other cultures and communities could be dated back to the social psychology phase (see Section 2.4.1), it has re-emerged as a motivational dimension, together with pragmatic career-related goals, in research into motivation for learning Chinese and Japanese (e.g., Nakamura, 2019; Xu & Moloney, 2019).

When theorising LOTEs motivation, it needs to take into account (1) the presence of English in learners’ current linguistic repertoire; (2) the value of multilingualism and language learning from the surrounding educational and social environment; and (3) the prestige and associated economic and cultural capital of the particular language that learners value (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). The design of the CFL motivation questionnaire and the proposed characteristic structure of CFL motivation in the current study need to reflect these principles. Considering the current status of Chinese language learning and teaching in the UK, the presence of English and the environment in the UK, the values that the Chinese language and culture hold among CFL learners are all yet to be discovered.

2.7 Research into Motivation for Learning Chinese in Different Contexts

The globalised learning and teaching of English have spawned language schools, exam boards, publishers and teacher training in HE, and they also have been directed into the broad academic and intense fields of applied linguistics and SLA research (Lamb et al.,

2019). However, the existing research on the motivation for learning CFL/CSL mainly takes overseas students studying in Chinese universities in China as the target group. This matters because that CFL and CSL learners may be very different groups. Learners who study Chinese as a second language in China have very different motivations compared to people who learn Chinese as a foreign language outside China. People already in China usually plan to work and live in China in the longer term, with more instrumental motivation, which may not be the case for CFL learners. Furthermore, Gao (2013) argues that studies from 2000 to 2013 focusing only on international students studying in HE institutions in China are primarily cross-sectional, static, with a small sample, using questionnaires as the main research method. These approaches for CFL motivation research seem outdated compared to EFL motivation research because CFL motivation's complex and dynamic nature was only captured in a single research method at a particular time.

As a dominating scholar in research on motivation for learning Chinese as a second/foreign language, Ding's research (2014, 2015, 2016) mainly includes motivation types, motivation intensity and changes in motivation intensity among international students in China. Firstly, using quantitative methods, Ding (2014) analysed the motivational changes of 251 international students in Chinese universities between the start and end of the semester. The conclusions showed that the learners' motivation strength increased overall; internal interest and opportunity were essential in the increasing trends. Then Ding (2015) investigated 160 motivated Chinese learners among 251 students, identifying three factors that significantly raised the strength of motivation: the influence of Chinese politics and economy; the close relationships and cooperation between China and their native countries; and the interest in Chinese written characters. However, the motivational drive of communicating with native Chinese in the Chinese language decreased over an academic year. The author did not offer a reason for this, but it might result from the challenges that

international students face in moving beyond their comfort zones and a tendency to congregate together rather than with their host students. Ding (2016) also investigated the motivation types and motivational intensity of 580 international students who were learning Chinese in China and found five types of motivation through factor analysis: (a) career; (b) opportunity; (c) interests; (d) experience; (e) important others' influence, covering both internal and external others, and long-term and short-term motivations. However, Ding's research on students from mixed cultural backgrounds did not specify whether there was a difference between those from cultures near China and those from cultures distant from China regarding the relationships and cooperation between China and their native countries. For example, learners from the Sinosphere like Japan and Korea might find Chinese easier, especially in Chinese character learning. Also, learners from countries from the Belt and Road Initiative (a global infrastructure development strategy adopted by the Chinese government in 2013 to invest in nearly 70 countries and international organisations) or Africa might have more instrumental value in career orientations because Chinese investment in these countries provides more job opportunities. Mixing these learners with learners from alphabetic language speaking countries with distant native languages to Chinese might mix distinctive CFL motivation orientations.

From a literature search, it seems that there is a tendency for many students undertaking Master's studies in Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (TCSOL) to choose to study motivation within their dissertations. Furthermore, the Confucius Institute headquarters sent an increasing number of TCSOL students worldwide as volunteer Chinese teachers in the past ten years. Those Masters' studies have been based on their own overseas teaching experience and have used questionnaire surveys on the students at the Confucius Institute in which they taught. They have been mainly concerned with the classification of motivation and suggestions for improvement in teaching and learning. However, only two of

those dissertations (Liu, 2017; Yang, 2020) as of June 2022 concern adult UK learners from the University of Hull and Greenwich, researching students of Chinese as the main degree and non-professional learners from the Confucius Institute. Liu (2017) discussed five aspects – students’ attitudes towards Chinese and Chinese learning, integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, attitude towards the learning environment and learners’ confidence – then concluded that instrumental motivation was the dominant motivation type among the participants. Yang (2020) found a significant correlation between performance, Chinese learning duration, cultural identity and willingness to continue learning.

Research conducted outside of China is seen in Liu (2012), Wen (2013) and Zhang (2015), with all studies carried out with American university learners. Zhang (2015) argued that instrumental motivation was a more important predictor of language success than integrative motivation. It was also argued that English is still the lingua franca in today’s world, so learners of Chinese rarely consider integrating into the Chinese community as the ultimate goal. Wen (2013) found that a positive learning attitude and experience played key roles in cultivating language confidence, the degree of investment in learning and continuous learning. It was noted that instrumental motivation was a significant predictor of future Chinese learning for beginner and intermediate students. Liu (2012) adopted EV theories (see Section 2.5.2) and suggested that motivation is driven by expectations of success and the value placed on the activity. The author argued that CFL learning is a process of human capital investment and economic incentives and that language capital (i.e., economic capital, social capital and cultural capital) constitutes learners’ expectancy-value of Chinese in the learning process. Therefore, Liu concluded that expectations of success in learning Chinese are an essential factor influencing motivation for learning Chinese as a second language.

Xu and Moloney (2019) investigated motivation for learning Chinese among tertiary students in the Australian context. This study found diverse motivations in Australia in global

contexts of mobility of people, together with the economic rise of China, such as possible employment opportunities, interests in travel, and reclamation of heritage language and culture in diaspora community families. External factors such as “China’s political and economic influence” and “the perceived potential career advantages” created a favourable “milieu” (see Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), which viewed the Chinese language “as a means to an end” (Xu & Moloney p. 462). As the Chinese-speaking community has been growing in Australia, participants also indicated their desire to acquire the language skills required for job opportunities and to communicate with others in Chinese in the workplace and social settings. Indeed, participants in this study also displayed integrative orientations, demonstrating their awareness of the need to be multilingual and multiculturally competent in an increasingly globalised world.

Like America and Australia, the UK is a CFL context (see Section 1.2 in Chapter One) that explicitly supports Chinese language learning from school to university, with well-developed pedagogy and resources. In addition, the UK has the future of an expanding Chinese diaspora and cooperation between the UK and China.

2.8 Research into L2 Demotivation

Motivation research typically conceptualises a motive as an inducement or a positive force rather than a detrimental effect that de-energises the learning (Dörnyei, 2002). Demotivation is an unfortunately common phenomenon in educational contexts, but L2 demotivation only emerged in the 1990s (e.g., Chambers, 1993; Dörnyei, 1998; Oxford, 1998; Ushioda, 1998) as an object of research, and teachers have a significant responsibility in this regard (Dörnyei, 2002). Nevertheless, further research is needed to justify this important motivational factor (Dörnyei, 2002).

2.8.1 Research into Demotivation and Demotivators

The empirical investigation of learners' demotivation is another vital issue in L2 motivation research. Previous studies have found it to concern various negative influences that cancel out existing motivation (Chambers, 1993; Dörnyei, 1998; Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Ushioda, 1998) during the learning process, causing the learner to lose their willingness to invest energy into language learning (Csizér, 2017). The empirical research on L2 demotivation has emphasised that it is a product of external causes and has explored especially the role teachers play in students' decreased energy to learn. Oxford (1998) and Ushioda (1998) both identified the institutionalised learning context such as teaching methods and learning tasks as two main demotivating issues. Dörnyei (1998) concluded that the teacher is the most critical demotivating factor in students' motivation.

Several studies emerged from different contexts using various data collection methods and found that demotivation is related to the teacher or classroom-related process. For example, Dörnyei's (2001) research in Hungary discovered that teachers were by far the most cited factor among demotivated learners. Nikolov (2001) interviewed 94 low-achieving young adults in Hungary and found that teachers played a key role in shaping students' dispositions, motivation and achievements. In Japan, Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) research found that teachers, classroom characteristics, and the classroom environment were linked with demotivating instances. In the UK context, Chambers (1993) identified poor instruction-giving, poor explanations, teachers shouting, and old-fashioned teaching materials as key issues identified by students. A study on the relationship between negative aspects of teacher behaviour and college students' demotivation across the USA, China, Germany and Japan found that "incompetent, offensive, and indolent teachers" were frequent demotivators in class from learners' perceptions of teachers (Zhang, 2007, p. 211). Among the three reported demotivators, teachers' incompetence, is "a cluster of behaviours that reflect teachers' indifference to the students and/or the course (such as) confusing and/or boring lectures,

unfair testing, and information overload” (p. 211), was stated to be the most demotivating factor across the four different contexts. Lamb (2017) summarised nine demotivation studies from different contexts and showed the evidence to suggest that language learners can be demotivated by what happens in the classroom, and the teacher has been identified as the primary source of demotivation.

In Lamb’s (2017) view, these inappropriate teaching practices are the causes of learners’ demotivation but can also be seen as the basis for improving motivational teaching strategies. Dörnyei (2001) also emphasised that teaching skills in motivating learners should be considered essential for effective teaching. Since many studies have concluded that teachers were the most critical negative factor in student motivation, further research needs to study the relationship between the way teachers motivate students and their influence on student motivation (Csizér, 2017).

Besides the teacher factor, other demotivators have been identified by worldwide researchers. These vary from one context to another, for example, foreign language anxiety in the Laos context (Xaypanya et al., 2017); course content and teaching materials in Pakistan (Sher Ali & Pathan, 2017); and experience of failure and loss of interest in Japan (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009). In another EFL study in a Japanese university, six external and internal factors were summarised as (1) Teacher immediacy – how approachable and friendly teachers were; (2) A negative experience of grammar-translation method; (3) Appropriate course or materials level and pace of lesson; (4) Self-denigration – blaming oneself for past failures; (5) The low value attached to language learning; (6) Self-confidence, including the expectation of success and susceptibility to embarrassment (Falout et al., 2009).

2.8.2 The Different Approaches to Understanding Demotivation

The shift towards socio-dynamic perspectives on L2 motivation research (mentioned in Section 2.4.3) presented pictures of fluctuation in learner motivation (e.g., Kikuchi, 2017;

Waninge et al., 2014). In addition, studies that have adopted socio-dynamic approaches have investigated patterns of interaction between different elements in and outside the classroom environment over time and have helped understand the fluctuation in learner motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Remotivation research also needs attention, as the learner's motivational state changes constantly. The demotivated learner may become motivated again, called remotivation (Falout, 2012; Kim et al., 2017). Considering the widely established motivational fluctuations in early foreign language learning, recovering after a decrease or complete loss in motivation is a significant teaching difficulty and a research topic (Djigunović & Nikolov, 2019). Because of the successful establishment of links between internal factors and demotivation, the capacity to regulate emotion (Falout et al., 2009) requires researchers to refocus the demotivation studies (Thorner & Kikuchi, 2019).

Last but not least, with the increasing awareness of the importance of classroom realities, L2 researchers began to pay attention to an overlooked area of motivation – the motivational characteristics of language teachers. This is because language teacher motivation significantly impacts learners' motivational disposition and even their learning achievement, so it is an important factor in understanding the affective basis of instructed SLA (Dörnyei, 2001). Educational psychology has studied teacher motivation for decades, and language teacher motivation has received more and more attention in the last decades (Hiver et al., 2019). Many researchers of L2 motivation have teaching backgrounds and carry their memories of difficulties to motivate learners in and out of classes to research this topic. Language teacher motivation research, on the one hand, “has been located in the psychological tradition of educational research and closely linked through its theorising with L2 motivation research” (Lam et al., p. 390), such as SDT theory and self-efficacy theory; on the other hand, it has incorporated insights from language teacher identity, cognition and

education (Kubanyiova, 2020). Studies have investigated directly L2 teacher motivation in different contexts (e.g., Aydin, 2012; Karavas, 2010; Wyatt, 2013). Research evidence has suggested that demotivation and teacher motivation are closely connected: “if teachers are motivated, students are more actively involved in class activities and feel more motivated” (Bernaus et al., 2009, p. 33). As factors related to teacher or classroom experience such as “monotonous methodology, low enthusiasm for the subject, unfriendly demeanour, lack of attention to individual needs” (Lamb, 2017, p. 329) have been repeatedly listed in the potential demotivators by learners (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Kikuchi, 2013), these factors need to be considered as a symptom of an underlying lack of work motivation on the part of teachers. By contrast, inspiring teachers tend to be highly motivated, enthusiastic and approachable, with a great commitment to offering constant variety with adaptability (Lamb & Wedell, 2015).

2.8.3 Limitations of Demotivator Studies

It is not easy to generalise demotivators from one study and apply them widely, and all factors can be seen as motivating or demotivating by different learners in different contexts. One of the significant limitations of demotivator studies is that the perception of causation lacks reliability. The causation is likely influenced by cultural values, such as having different respect for authority figures; or individual self-serving biases, such as explaining negative experiences by focusing on external factors (Mezulis et al., 2004). In addition, it is unhelpful to apportion responsibility because there may be a chain of causation. For example, when systemic factors like poor working conditions are hidden behind poor teaching, it is not easy to identify what is the real cause of demotivation (Thorner & Kikuchi, 2019). Demotivator studies on negative factors may also identify underlying causes inaccurately. For example, a student’s perception of weak teaching could reflect responsibility for motivation loss onto external factors (Ushioda, 1998). The second

limitation comes from a futile seeking for demotivators because demotivation occurs naturally as a result of the disappearance of motivators, such as when exams are completed (see Falout et al., 2009; Zhang, 2007) or punishments for not doing homework are removed, or even more, an attractive alternative emerges for students (Thorner & Kikuchi, 2019).

2.8.4 Research on Demotivation for CFL Learning

Research on CFL demotivation has remained scarce. A study in Netherlands investigated the relationship among learner motivation, dropout rates, and personal factors of university students in a Chinese language course by questionnaire survey (Tsui et al., 2017). The results showed that students with high GPAs were less likely to drop out, and two types of motivation – “willingness to communicate” and “instrumentality-promotion” were positively related to the study’s success. This study explained that students with high scores on “instrumentality-promotion” were strategic learners who set goals, defined policies and managed their studies to reach the goal, which led to success. It is suggested that research on keeping students motivated and preventing them from dropping out is needed against the backdrop of motivation itself. In addition, a study in a Northern Ireland university using a questionnaire survey found that CFL learners experienced demotivation at the end of the first year before moving to the second year because they sensed the Chinese became more challenging and complicated to sustain their confidence (Li & Kane, 2017). Another study found that lack of qualified teachers, inadequate teaching and learning support materials, and limited access to Chinese textbooks are the main demotivating factors in teaching and learning CFL in Ghana (Kandambi, 2018).

2.9 Research into Motivational Teaching Strategies

Research on L2 motivation that focuses on what happens in the classroom could bring considerable educational potential, especially in two areas: “the systematic development of

motivational strategies that can be applied to generate and maintain motivation in learners” and “the formulation of self-motivational strategies that enable L2 learners themselves to take personal control of the affective conditions and experiences that shape their subjective involvement in learning” (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 23).

Researchers also considered the proactive strategic learners’ capacity to apply tactics and techniques in self-regulation research. The conceptualisation of self-regulation has brought the research on learning strategies into a broader perspective involving goal orientation, intrinsic interest, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, strategic planning, strategic tactics and operations, and effective time management (Winne & Perry, 2000; Zeidner et al., 2000). A process-oriented approach that promoted effective self-regulated learning with the emphasis on action control mechanisms was conceptualised originally by Kuhl (1985). As a subclass of self-regulatory strategies, these mechanisms involve learners’ self-motivating function. Based on Kuhl’s (1985) and Corno and Kanfer’s (1993) pioneering taxonomies, Dörnyei (2001) proposed the self-motivating strategies with five main classes: commitment control strategies, metacognitive control strategies, satiation control strategies, emotion control strategies and environmental control strategies. Motivational self-regulation or self-motivation since then has become an interesting area within motivational psychology for exploring why some learners are more successful than others in maintaining their commitment to their goals; how they use specific self-management skills to overcome environmental or emotional distraction; and how practitioners can empower learners with appropriate knowledge and skills to motivate themselves (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.9.1 From Theory to Classroom Practice

Previous sections have shown how learners’ classroom experiences affect their learning attitudes, and that willingness to learn varies in different learning contexts. How teachers react to different motivations also varies in different contexts, from persuading

students to engage in learning tasks to maximising the efficiency of the learning process (Lamb et al., 2019). In language education, teachers' influence on learner motivation has been a critical interest. Motivational language teaching strategies that are the "accumulated wisdom of best practices of the teaching profession" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 267) have been the subject of L2 research in recent decades, and the identification and evaluation of motivational language teaching strategies have received extensive research interest (Lamb, 2017). There is a growing body of research on motivating learners that has investigated the strategies teachers use to consciously generate and enhance student motivation, maintain ongoing motivated behaviours, protect it from distraction (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) and boost their learners' motivation. Research on motivational teaching strategies (hereafter MoTS) has paid attention to teachers' conscious behaviours and their impact on learners.

The following empirical studies have validated that teachers' motivational behaviours could affect learners' motivational levels. Studies have found a positive correlation between schoolteachers' motivation practice as measured by a classroom observation checklist called Motivational Orientations of Language Teaching (MOLT) and a subjective evaluation of the lesson quality (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Students' motivation in these studies was shown in classroom behaviours such as attention, active participation, volunteering, and questionnaire responses. These studies showed that student motivation increased more, or declined less, because of the positive attitudes toward the teacher and enjoyment of lessons. Their observed behaviours were also more motivated in class regarding attention, participation, and volunteering than the control group.

Studies have also provided evidence that learners believed teachers' classroom behaviours affect them; for example, learners claimed their teacher had affected their attitudes and feelings about English and changed their learning behaviours because the teacher made the subject more interesting or built linguistic self-confidence (Lamb & Wedell,

2015). However, studies also remind us that no strategy will always work for everyone. For example, some MoTS seemed to work better with higher proficiency or at the beginning or end of the course to students within Japanese university EFL classes, such as starting the class precisely on time, providing individual support for each student, bringing a variety of learning materials and providing some background knowledge/supplement information (Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014). There is, furthermore, no consensus as to which motivational strategies are more effective because of deep-seated cultural differences such as educational, contextual, and linguistic circumstances (Henry et al., 2018), “from teacher differences such as training and career stage, or from individual learner differences such as proficiency level or socioeconomic background” (Lamb et al., 2019, p. 295).

2.9.2 Dörnyei’s Motivational Teaching Strategies Framework and Studies Based on It

The most established framework for motivational teaching strategies in the current language and teaching field is Dörnyei’s (2001b) Motivational Teaching Strategies Framework. This framework was developed from Dörnyei and Csizer’s (1998) list of “Ten Commandments”, which are ten macro strategies for motivating language learners. These strategies were expanded by Dörnyei (2001b) to create a comprehensive taxonomy of 102 motivational strategies (micro-strategies); which were then grouped into 35 main strategies (macro-strategies) and organised according to the teaching process into four categories: creating the basic motivational conditions; generating initial motivation; maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation (Dörnyei, 2001b). This framework provides a catalogue of factors teachers need to consider when implementing learning activities but is not intended to function as a commonly applicable template because these strategies are not “rock-solid golden rules” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 30). Furthermore, this aligns with comments from Lamb et al. (2019) with respect to Dörnyei’s (2001b) fourth category, which he refers to as “encouraging positive self-evaluation” (p.

289). This is an essential aspect of motivation, as it helps learners deal with their past success or failure, no matter from past experiences or daily emotional events, promoting positive attributions instead of hindering future efforts, according to Lamb et al. (2019). Being self-reflective and evaluative are two key elements of self-regulated learning models (Zimmerman, 2000). Encouraging positive self-evaluation requires teachers to give sensitive and constructive feedback, use rewards appropriately, and provide a sense of satisfaction and achievement by displaying L2 knowledge and skill.

Empirical research must validate motivational strategies; otherwise, they are merely generalisations (Gardens & Tremblay, 1994). Studies based on Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy have provided validation for MoTS that language teachers and learners favour and show how strategies affect learners' behaviour. Studies have provided teachers' views on their use of MoTS regarding their importance and frequency (e.g., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013). Studies also have compared teachers' use of strategies with those of students' motivation intensity levels in EFL classes (e.g., Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014) and teachers' views about the importance of different strategies with those of students' motivation in foreign language classes (e.g., Ruesch et al., 2012). More complex studies have examined the effectiveness of MoTS regarding learners' in-class behaviour and their self-reported motivation (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Wong, 2014). Teachers were also asked to describe a classroom activity that had successfully motivated learners in an EFL study in Swedish secondary schools (Henry et al., 2018); close correspondence with Dörnyei's (2001b) MoTS was revealed, such as using authentic materials, exploring the popular culture, ensuring the relevance of the tasks, and giving chances for self-expression in L2.

Unlike studies based on Dörnyei's (2001) MoTS that provided evidence that language teachers' MoTS contributed to learner motivation, Mezei (2014) found that teachers' use of

Dörnyei's (2001b) MoTS did not directly impact learners' motivation in a study of EFL learners in Hungarian schools. However, students with a strong ideal L2 self and self-regulatory capacity were more able to benefit from the MoTS, which suggested that teachers need to pay attention to other learner qualities as well as just what they as teachers do. Lamb (2017) also made the point that "students and teachers do not always agree on whether strategies are being used, and the strategies may only serve to motivate if the students recognise and appreciate them" (p. 311).

Based on Dörnyei's (2001b) Motivational Teaching Strategies Framework, empirical evidence has been found that they can be used to sustain the motivation of learners of Mandarin. Researchers such as Lam (2020) have noted the importance of applying helpful motivational strategies in teaching the Chinese language, primarily in secondary school classes in England. Lam (2020) also applied this same framework in an Anglophone context to investigate the practices of Mandarin teachers and 15-16-year-old students' responses to them by interviewing teachers and learners and observing the classes. She found that teachers who implemented Mandarin-focused pedagogy according to the distinctive features of Mandarin Chinese could better protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence.

In a number of studies in international contexts, teachers were asked to prioritise lists of given strategies, resulting in different strategies emerging as important in different countries and educational settings (see Alrabai's 2016 study in Saudi Arabia; Cheng & Dörnyei's 2007 study in Taiwan; Guilloteaux's 2013 study in Korea; Papi & Abdollahzadeh's 2012 study in Iran; Lamb et al.'s 2016 study in Indonesia; Sugita McEown & Takeuchi's 2004 study in Japan). In addition, different teachers' pedagogical beliefs derived from the values inherent in the local educational culture and their teaching experience (Borg & Burns, 2008) would also bring about different uses of MoTS. For example, these

differences could be seen in strategies regarding learner autonomy, resources for independent language learning, comparisons, test results, and face-threatening acts (Lamb et al., 2019). Specifically, the importance of promoting learner autonomy was downplayed in Asian contexts compared to teachers in western settings (see Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013), whereas learner autonomy remained important where there were abundant resources for independent language learning in the metropolitan area compared to small towns (see Lamb et al., 2016). Teachers in the USA were opposed to using comparisons of learner performance as a motivational strategy (see Ruesch et al., 2012), whereas using test results to encourage study was favoured by the teachers in Taiwanese universities (see Hung et al., 2012).

2.9.3 Alternative Approaches to Dörnyei's Motivational Strategies

Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy is not the only foundation that studies of motivational strategies have been formulated on; another foundation is Keller's (1983) ARCS model of teaching design, which was established to allow teachers to identify strategies that help students improve their motivational levels and improve their motivational teaching materials. The ARCS model is based on the EV framework of motivation (e.g., Wigfield, 1994, see Section 2.5.2), which assumes that people will be motivated to engage in activities if they believe it brings satisfaction and has positive expectations of success.

ARCS is an acronym for four factors influencing learner motivation: attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction. Attention refers to getting and keeping learners' attention and directing it to appropriate incentives. Relevance includes adapting teaching to current and future career opportunities, showing that learning is pleasant, focusing on the learning process rather than the product, and meeting learners' needs for belonging and achievement. Confidence involves helping learners believe that a certain level of success is achievable with hard work. Finally, satisfaction can be gained by helping learners feel

satisfied with their achievements and exert control over the learning experience (Keller, 1983).

Keller's (1983) ARCS principles were used in various empirical studies. For example, attention was a prerequisite for learning, and it could be achieved by having good instruction (Rosenshine, 2012), including using new technology and audio-visual resources to increase students' interest (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). However, Maeng and Lee's (2015) study for identifying Korean EFL teachers' motivational strategies found attention was the only component of ARCS that was effectively utilised. This study also found that teachers with a higher level of English proficiency more often utilised motivational strategies and tactics; teachers with less teaching experience had more frequent use of motivational strategies, which could be explained as more experienced teachers have already established a fixed teaching practice. That interpretation is consistent with the findings from prior studies that suggested that a teacher's experience contributes the most to student learning in class for the first few years, but after that, the additional experience might make no difference (Clotfelter et al., 2006; Goe, 2007; Rice, 2003). Similarly, in Karimi and Hosseini Zade's (2019) study for EFL teachers in Iran, the length of teaching experience did not make a significant difference in the use of motivational strategies.

2.9.4 Three Dimensions of Motivational Strategies for Learning Chinese

The theories and empirical studies into motivational strategies have been introduced thoroughly above. Three research dimensions about motivating teaching and learning strategies emerged relevant for the current study; they could be outlined as teachers' conceptions of motivation, learner autonomy, and class engagement.

2.9.4.1 Teachers' Conceptions of Motivation

The teacher factor has been repeatedly listed as a potential demotivator (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Kikuchi, 2013), such as employing a monotonous methodology, having low

enthusiasm for the subject and an unfriendly demeanour and paying insufficient attention to individual needs. These classroom behaviours are often seen as a symptom of teachers lacking motivation for their work (Lamb, 2017). By contrast, highly motivated teachers are usually inspiring, energetic and committed to contributing unwavering enthusiasm, approachability and adaptability (Lamb & Wedell, 2015).

Studies have shown that the influence of the teacher and teaching practices are important external factors for learners' motivation. For example, Muñoz and Ramírez's (2015) study explored how teachers' belief about motivation and motivating practices in L2 learning was reflected in their teacher and interpersonal styles; the results showed that teachers' potential to enhance motivation is mainly centred on the good rapport they establish with their students. Their study summarised empathic teaching behaviours that include checking students' understanding, offering feedback and being attentive to their personal interests and learning needs. Other studies also argued that teachers' delivery of clear and detailed expectations and instructions, guidance, scaffolding, and constructive feedback were essential aspects of teaching style (Jang et al., 2010); they helped students perform better compared to unstructured teaching (Brophy, 2006; Everston & Weinstein, 2006).

In general education, research has shown that a teacher's enthusiasm for the subject and desire to share this passion with learners, conveyed in many indirect ways, could profoundly impact learners (Kunter et al., 2011). As Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) stated, "an increase in teacher motivation leads to improved motivational practice on their behalf, which in turn promotes student motivation, which eventually results in enhanced student performance" (p. 101). Studies also suggested that individual teachers can shape their own desired practices (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Therefore, it is important to examine language teachers' beliefs and experiences to understand what shapes teachers' learning and professional identity along with their professional path, development and teacher education

experiences; as Glas (2016) stated, “how teachers put motivational strategies into action depends on their own belief about motivation and their perceptions of the context in which they work” (p. 442).

It was important to see differences between teachers and learners in what they think about effort and ability, especially when teachers are Chinese and learners are not Chinese, because their cultural background has influenced people’s views. For example, in collectivist cultures like China, the effort is considered important, whereas in individualistic cultures, it is viewed differently. Furthermore, teachers’ different views of effort have been found in different countries, fundamentally because the role of the teacher is reviewed differently in different countries, which would influence teachers’ views of what a motivational teaching strategy is and their choices of approaches. For example, in the current study, teachers trained in China may have different views from teachers trained in England, but they are expected to understand the learners in the UK, which could be challenging and might cause problems in class (Ye & Edwards, 2017).

2.9.4.2 Learner Autonomy

Because the fact that much L2 learning takes place outside the classroom, students also need motivation that will endure in the context of out-of-class, with the “motivational self-regulation and an increased sense of ownership of the learning process through learner autonomy” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 123). Self-motivation strategies include how learners motivate themselves to stay active when their initial motivation wanes. Given that L2 learners need to sustain their commitment and effort over a long time, these strategies are critical in language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Therefore, teachers need to raise students’ awareness of self-motivation strategies and promote their usefulness when appropriate in motivational teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Autonomy refers to the strategic ability to take responsibility for independent or self-directed learning and self-regulate it with or without the support of a teacher or learning adviser (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Interpretations of autonomy vary across disciplines, but a common thread is “a sense of personal ownership and agency in relation to one’s learning, together with a capacity to make one’s own choices and decisions, where capacity denotes both freedoms, as well as metacognitive know-how” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 125). Learner autonomy is closely linked to internally driven forms of motivation, that is, “when students act authentically in accordance with their true selves, their motivation will soar” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 118). Therefore, promoting learner autonomy needs to promote intrinsic and internally regulated forms of motivation, which has been mentioned in the discussion of SDT theory (see Section 2.5.1). In L2 teaching and learning, it is vital to involve students in personally relevant learning choices and decisions, as this promotes not only willingness and ownership related to learning but also a sense of responsibility (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021).

2.9.4.3 Class Engagement

Living in an environment with all sorts of distractions, learners with a high level of L2 motivation “will not necessarily translate into actual language learning behaviours unless the person gets actively engaged in the learning process” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 127). As Section 2.2.3 mentioned, unmotivated students are usually not motivated to engage in learning behaviours and motivating them means teachers need to bring them to the action stage of learning and engage them in the learning (Thorner, 2017). The concept of engagement has been built on the principles of motivation as a “plus” element (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 128), which refers to the actual behavioural exhibition of motivation; as Henry and Thorsen (2020) stated, “unlike motivation, engagement captures ongoing behaviour” (p. 458).

Dörnyei (2019) listed five apparent aspects of the learning process – school context, syllabus, learning tasks, one’s peers, and teachers – to engage. In other words, engagement can be operationalised as a cumulative result of various key components of the participatory learning environment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Mercer and Dörnyei (2020) highlighted three main themes in learner engagement: “the power of positive emotions, empowering learners as partners in their education and active participation” (p. 207) and four prerequisites for student engagement – learner mindsets, teacher-student rapport, classroom dynamics, and culture. Mercer and Dörnyei (2020) suggested that teachers could help engage learners and sustain their cognitive, emotional, behavioural, and social involvement. In order to engage L2 learners in the contemporary classroom, teachers need to be aware of and adapt their teaching to the aspects that teachers cannot affect directly, such as contextual factors, including society, institutions and family settings; teachers also need to design engaging L2 tasks that initiate and sustain the engagement (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020).

2.10 Summary

L2 motivation research has embraced perspectives of the complex and changing global, social and virtual landscape where L2 learning and using occur. Today’s mobile, instantaneous and interconnected world has shaped our social relations, communication and language learning. It has been witnessed that attitudes and values toward English being shaped by globalisation and attributed to significant economic power. Given its economic power, Mandarin Chinese might be the next internationally important language in the future (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021) in an increasingly unstable world with political forces that require strengthening linguistic and cultural barriers to social integration (Simpson, 2019).

The main objective of this review is to introduce traditional and new approaches to L2 motivation research; to summarise the existing knowledge and understanding of the topic so far; to convey a picture of the multifaceted perspectives on L2 motivation that have shaped

the theoretical thinking of the current study; and to specify the insights gained from research approaches that informed the methods to exploring the research aims of the current study.

This chapter has reviewed motivation studies across educational-psychological theories and L2 frameworks over time and empirical studies focused on L2 learners and teachers. The knowledge researchers have drawn from those studies has helped us understand motivation and its related concepts. In addition, research into the motivational dimension of language teaching and teaching in general has built an understanding of how teaching could motivate and demotivate language learners. Previous theories, models, frameworks, and research approaches viewed above have informed the insights and research gap in the context of CFL motivation.

These gaps include (1) most of the recent research on L2 motivation has focused on English as a target language, and our understanding of CFL motivation, especially in Anglophone settings, remains little; well-known frameworks or models for CFL motivation have not been developed yet; the existing L2 motivation theories have not clearly separated young learners and adult learners as the target learners, nor does the L2 motivational strategy research have clear applicable learners; (2) researchers know little about how learner motivation evolves in the learning process and what are the causes of the rise or drop in individual learner motivation strength; researchers need to find out how pedagogical factors like teacher support, teaching method, classroom settings, course structure, and assessment have impacts on learner motivation; researchers are not sure how sociocultural, socio-political, ideological aspects in our diverse contexts influence learner choice of continuing of learning or dropping out; (3) learners' perspective on classroom practices and how their perceptions are different with teachers need to be investigated; what motivating teaching and learning strategies have positive impacts on learners' experience need to be discovered.

Therefore, the current research aims to explore the nature and the dynamics of CFL motivation at the HE and FE level in the UK and the strategies to maintain and enhance it. Therefore, three research questions emerged – Research Question 1: What is the nature of the motivations for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language? (What are the initial motivations for learning Chinese and their respective strengths? What are the structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese? Research Question 2: What are the dynamics of adult learners in the UK learning the Chinese language? (How do levels of motivation for learning Chinese change over time? What factors influence any fluctuations in motivation for learning Chinese? What are the causes, if any, of demotivation for learning Chinese?) Research Question 3: What are useful ways of generating and maintaining motivation in learning the Chinese language in the views of learners and teachers? (What teaching strategies are used in class and why? Which kinds of activities do learners find the most and the least helpful? What strategies for motivating teaching practice did learners propose? What strategies for generating motivation are used by students for out of class learning? What strategies for maintaining motivation are used by students for out of class learning?) The detail of the research methods to address these research questions will be presented in Chapter Three.

3.1 Introduction

Chapters One and Two reviewed the research gaps in adult learner motivation for learning the Chinese language in the UK and discussed the research aims for this study. Chapter Three presents how this study was planned and conducted. In this chapter, first, a rationale for using mixed methods is given, then the research design and procedures are outlined, followed by more information on the contextual background. Next, the data collection section presents the sampling, participants, and administration. Finally, the instruments designed and revised for the study are described.

This study explores the components, constructs, classifications, strengths, and fluctuations in motivation for adult learners of the Chinese language in the UK. At the same time, learning and teaching strategies are explored. Finally, after obtaining a comprehensive understanding of learning motivation and motivational strategies for Chinese as a foreign language (CFL), pedagogical implications are put forward to improve the learning and teaching of Chinese in the UK. In reviewing the research aims of this study, the research questions are reiterated, and the sub-questions are elaborated as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the nature of the motivations for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language?

(a) What are the initial motivations for learning Chinese and their respective strengths?

(b) What are the structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese?

Research Question 2: What are the dynamics of adult learners in the UK learning the Chinese language?

(a) How do levels of motivation for learning Chinese change over time?

(b) What factors influence any fluctuations in motivation for learning Chinese?

(c) What are the causes, if any, of demotivation for learning Chinese?

Research Question 3: What, in the views of learners and teachers, are useful ways of generating and maintaining motivation in learning the Chinese language?

(a) What teaching strategies are used in class and why? Which kinds of activities do learners find the most and the least helpful? What strategies for motivating teaching practice did learners propose?

(b) What strategies for generating motivation are used by students for out of class learning? What strategies for maintaining motivation are used by students for out of class learning?

3.2 Research Paradigm

The term “Paradigm”, according to Ling and Ling (2016), refers to (1) a set of concepts that reflects a world view; (2) a higher-order way of thinking that forms a pattern or a model; and (3) a categorisation of an approach or a logic that underpins research design, conduction and outcomes. A research paradigm underpins research endeavour, including the researcher’s view of reality – ontology; the intent and values of the researcher, the drivers of the research – axiology; the nature of the knowledge or understanding that can be gained from the research – epistemology; methods appropriate to conduct the research – methodology.

Ontology is the nature of reality and being (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Merricks, 2007). It is a philosophical belief system about the nature of the social world (e.g., whether it is patterned and predictable or constantly re-created by humans). Ontological questions can be explained as “What is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?” (Guba & Lincoln, 1998, p. 201).

Epistemology is the study of beliefs about the origin and acquisition of knowledge (Schraw et al., 2011). It is a philosophical belief system about how research is conducted and what is counted as knowledge. Epistemological positions determine how researchers play their roles and how they understand their relationships with their research participants (Bazeley, 2017).

Within educational research, it is presumed that ontological and epistemological beliefs work together to establish an individual's worldview (Schraw & Olafson, 2008). Similarly, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) suggest that the way researchers approach a particular research situation reflects who they are and how they view and approach the world.

Three paradigms involved in this study are positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. Positivism is a philosophical ideology that insists on acquiring factual knowledge through measurement and observation. According to Creswell (2011), scientific knowledge comes from accumulating theory-free and value-free data from observation; anything unobserved, immeasurable or unquantified is of little or no importance. Bryman and Bell (2011) defined positivism as an epistemological standpoint and advocated applying natural science methods to study the social reality and things beyond it. Knight and Turnbull (2008) argue that positivism holds that all knowledge is related to verified forms of observation and is based on scientific experimental methodology. In summary, when the research object is to examine current understandings to confirm or refute them, it falls within the positivism paradigm (Ling & Ling, 2016).

Interpretivism is a philosophical ideology that advocates the awareness that people are creative and deliberate in their actions to construct their dynamic social world. Interpretivist research is based on acknowledging the researcher's involvement in data collection and analysis, aiming to provide a subjective and coherent understanding of the problem (Ling & Ling, 2016). This approach appreciates that an event may have multiple interpretations

shaped by an individual's historical or social perspective. These perspectives need to be inspected through the eyes of the participant, not the eyes of the researcher (Cohen et al., 2011). In summary, when the research is designed to provide a perspective on or an interpretation of a subject or context, it could be seen as falling within the interpretivism paradigm (Ling & Ling, 2016).

Pragmatism is a philosophical ideology that is practical instead of idealistic in essence. Pragmatists believe there may be numerous or diverse ways to reach reality. This can be achieved through subjective, objective, or combined means and techniques (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). In summary, when the research is to develop a practical solution to a problem, it would fit in the pragmatic paradigm (Ling & Ling, 2016).

In conclusion, these three research paradigms in this study – positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism – have different worldviews that they derive from and different methodological approaches they underpin. The three approaches – quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods are discussed in the next section.

3.3 Research Rationale

There are two main forms of research approaches within the Social Sciences – quantitative and qualitative. They are umbrella terms comprising various methods and strategies for conducting research. These approaches are characterised by different philosophical belief systems and rely on different methodological practices. In other words, different philosophical ideologies have different implications for selecting research methods. For example, positivism is often related to quantitative methods, whereas interpretivism is associated with qualitative methods. The dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative research methods has been constantly debated in the L2 research field, dividing researchers across epistemological positions and methodological approaches (Riazi, 2016). These derive from two distinct world views – positivism and interpretivism, as mentioned in Section 3.2.

This dichotomy leads to two different approaches to collecting and analysing the data, but these two types of data can be combined and merged within mixed methods to produce a complete portrait of the social world. Thus, these two types of data can be in a supplementary or complementary form to the interplay (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). By quantifying and qualitating the data in the same study, one can increase its strengths while eliminating the weaknesses, improving validity through triangulation, as well as gaining an elaborate and comprehensive understanding of a complex phenomenon from different angles (Dörnyei, 2007). In other words, the compatibility of different research paradigms allows the researcher to collect multiple data, resulting in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses (Johnson & Turner, 2003). Therefore, to expand the scope and depth of this study, the author adopted mixed methods by collecting both quantitative and qualitative data from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations in this study.

Different possibilities exist for integrating qualitative and quantitative research components into one study (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). While sophisticated statistical procedures examine the interrelationships of the variables measured from the survey and observation scheme, subsequent interviews aim to discover individual preferences with detailed explanations and illustrations of the obtained patterns (Blatchford, 2005).

The individualistic and societal perspectives are another dimension that explores the relationship between the individual and the surrounding social world. The former focuses on the individual's mental processes and the resulting attitudes, beliefs and values, and the latter focuses on social-cultural norms, acculturation processes and intergroup relations (Brannen, 2005). Given the nature of multi-faced L2 learning motivation as an interdisciplinary research topic, the researcher seeks to link the two paradigms to understand individuals in society (Abrams & Hogg, 1999). In this sense, a mixed-method design can operationalise the theoretical transcendence of the micro and macro perspectives (Dörnyei, 2007).

Motivation is a multidimensional construct of a dynamically changing nature. It is, therefore, difficult to observe and measure the various internal, contextual and temporal processes in a properly objective and direct way (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Traditional motivation research methods have relied mainly on gathering self-report data to access the L2 learners' own perspectives regarding how much they agree or disagree, how important they rate or how certain they are that statements reflect their attitudes, intentions or behaviours (Dörnyei et al., 2006). Psychometric instruments have been applied to minimise the inherent subjectivity of such data.

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner (1985) contains several multi-item Likert, multiple-choice and semantic differential scales to operationalise attitudinal-motivational constituents with language anxiety and parental encouragement. Since then, statistical analyses such as factor analytical, correlational, regression analysis and path analysis methods have been used to study the relationships between motivation and other variables (e.g., language aptitude or L2 proficiency). Quantitative psychometric measurement has, therefore, been a robust tradition in L2 motivation research (see Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012).

However, quantitative methods typically rely on a superficial snapshot measure at an arbitrary time. Moreover, they seek to generalise based on statistically representative patterns in the data and are not sensitive to the particularities of evolving motivational experiences or individual-contextual interactions (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). With the critique of the limitations of quantitative methods, qualitative methods have gradually appeared on the scene over the last decade. Unstructured or semi-structured interview methods with categorising, transcribing and thematic analysis have been adopted to elicit in-depth self-report data on motivation and motivational experience (Gibbs, 2007), to address the dynamic and situated

complexity of L2 motivation and also mirror a general trend in SLA research (see Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012).

Another research method adopted by this study is one of the classroom-based research methods – classroom observation. Observations are defined as “methods of generating data which involve the researcher immersing him or herself in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on” (Mason, 1996, p. 60). In L2 research, Long (1980) described that “research on second language learning and teaching, all or part of whose data are derived from the observation or measurement of the classroom performance of teachers and students” (p. 3). There are three categories of classroom-based research – naturalistic classroom research, experimental classroom research and action research (Bailey, 2004). Classroom observation falls into the first category – naturalistic classroom research. In naturalistic classroom research, L2 researchers primarily seek to observe and describe learning and teaching in intact classes and gain detailed information on existing phenomena without intervening in the learning process (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

In motivation research, classroom observation can be adopted to obtain a more valid picture of the motivational characteristics of the sample. For example, classroom behaviours such as enthusiasm for learning, desire to display knowledge, outperform others, please the teacher and seek attention or praise may reflect various underlying motivational factors (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Therefore, it may be appropriate to seek to produce statistically significant results by observing different classes in various settings to increase the sample size. However, another option is to obtain valuable quantitative data – by conducting a longitudinal observation in a reduced number of classes (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Given the changing dynamic nature of motivation, having longitudinal data from the same

samples might be more cogent to record the motivation fluctuation after each lesson and depict an entire dynamic motivation perspective.

In order to obtain both cross-sectional and longitudinal data on CFL motivation, a large-scale survey, multiple interviews, and classroom observation with a smaller sample over a term were planned and conducted in this study. The survey results were regarded as quantitative data, and the interviews were regarded as qualitative data, with classroom observation being a mix of both. By mixing quantitative and qualitative methods, the researcher aims to capture more of the complexity of the issues (see Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). As Ushioda and Dörnyei (2013) pointed out, the investigation of contextual factors and individual-contextual interactions may require the triangulation of multiple forms of data from different perspectives to obtain a rich holistic analysis of motivation rather than relying on a single set of self-report measures. The triangulation design is the most common and well-known approach to mixing methods (Creswell et al., 2003); the purpose of this design is “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic” (Morse, 1991, p. 122). Using this design, the researcher could bring together the differing strengths of quantitative methods, like large sample size and generalisation, with those of qualitative methods like details and in-depth (Patton, 2001). In this study, quantitative statistical results and qualitative findings were directly compared, and quantitative results were validated or expanded with qualitative data (Creswell et al., 2003).

Other issues considered by the author were the priority, weight and sequence that were given to the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis in the research process and how these data can be connected and integrated to provide comprehensive results for research questions. Creswell et al. (2003) put forward the mixed-methods sequential explanatory design, consisting of two distinct phases: quantitative and qualitative. Using a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design, the researcher first collected and analysed the

quantitative data; then, the qualitative data were collected and analysed second in the sequence to explain and elaborate on the quantitative results gained in the first phase.

Ivankova et al. (2006, p. 5) justified this research design as: “the quantitative data and their subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problem; the qualitative data and their analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants’ views in more depth”. This study adopted two mixed-methods sequential explanatory designs: questionnaire survey with follow-up interviews, classroom observation with follow-up interviews and triangulation was achieved.

In summary, by considering all the research rationales mentioned above, mixed-methods sequential explanatory and triangulation designs were implemented in this study, and a part of the data collection was conducted on a longitudinal basis. Details of how these methods were used will be given in Section 3.4 on research design and procedures.

3.4 Research Design and Procedures

This study adopted mixed-methods sequential explanatory designs and sequentially conducted quantitative and qualitative research from May 2019 to October 2020. In the pilot and main studies, the research design was either a questionnaire survey followed by interviews or classroom observation followed by interviews. The times of data collection, numbers of participants and locations for each research process are chronologically shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3. 1
The Research Schedule

Actions	Time of data collection	Numbers of participants	Location
Pilot Questionnaire Survey	May 2019	35	A university in Southeast England
Pilot Survey Follow-up Interview	May 2019	8	A university in Southeast England
Pilot Classroom Observation	May 2019	10	A Chinese weekend/community school in Southeast England
Pilot Classroom Observation Follow-up Interview	May 2019	2	A Chinese weekend/community school in Southeast England
Main Classroom Observation	October to December 2019	32	A university in Southeast England
Main Classroom Observation Follow-up Interview	October to December 2019	12	A university in Southeast England
Local Questionnaire Survey (Time 1 + Time 2)	January 2020 and June 2020	50 + 26	A university in Southeast England Online via Online Surveys
National Questionnaire Survey	April to June 2020	85	Online via Online Surveys
National Survey Follow-up Interview	September to October 2020	18	Online via Microsoft Teams or Skype
Additional Interview with Teachers	September 2019 to October 2020	5	Several UK university campuses
Additional Interview with Students	September 2019 to July 2020	9	Several UK university campuses

After obtaining ethical approval in April 2019, the pilot study was conducted in May 2019. The pilot questionnaire survey was administered in a university language centre in Southeast England, with 35 participants from three levels of IWLP (see Section 3.5.1.1) Chinese courses at the end of the spring term of the academic year of 2018/19. Eight participants were selected from the questionnaire survey who participated in the follow-up interviews. The pilot classroom observation was conducted in two Chinese courses for adult learners in a Chinese weekend/community school in Southeast England. In addition, two teachers from these two courses were interviewed after the observation.

The first part of the main study started with classroom observation in two IWLP Chinese courses at a university in Southeast England. The procedure, observation period,

amount of lesson time (hours), number of learners interviewed, and location are listed in Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2
Classroom Observation

Class	Observation period	Amount of lesson time (hours)	Learners interviewed	Procedure	Location
Chinese Level One	From Week 2 in October to Week 9 in December	Seven (apart from Week 6 as it was the enhancement week when no actual teaching happened)	Eight	1. Interview the teacher before the first lesson 2. Observe the lessons 3. Interview learners during the last week of the term	At the university campus
Chinese Level Two	From Week 2 in October to week 10 in December	Eight (without Week 6)	Five	4. Interview the teacher again after the last lesson	

The second part of the main study started with administrating the questionnaire at a university in Southeast England. This was termed the “local survey” and a part of the longitudinal data (Table 3.3). After analysing the first pilot questionnaire responses, the questionnaire was revised, and all the categories of motivational factors were shuffled. This revised questionnaire, designated as the “Time 1 local survey”, was administrated to students in three levels of IWLP Chinese courses before the first week in the spring term in the academic year of 2019/20, with 50 responses returned. Then the same questionnaire was administered again at the end of the summer term in the academic year of 2019/20 in order to identify the changes in motivation over two terms, and it was designated as the “Time 2 local survey”, with 26 responses collected. Note that these participants had already learned Chinese for a semester from October to December and then had a Christmas break before participating in the Time 1 survey so that they could respond to the demotivation elements according to their learning experience in the first semester.

The third part of the main study started with sending the same questionnaire to students in 65 universities across the UK at the end of the spring term of the academic year of 2019/20, and 15 of these sent it to their students in Chinese courses. It formed “the national survey”. The questionnaire format used here was the same as in the local survey. Follow-up interviews were conducted online with 18 participants selected from the national questionnaire responses.

Table 3.3
Questionnaire Surveys

Survey	Participants from	Time	Numbers of responses
Time 1 Local Survey	A university in Southeast England	Before the first week in the spring term in the academic year of 2019/20	50
Time 2 Local Survey	A university in Southeast England	At the end of the summer term in the academic year of 2019/20	26
National Survey	15 universities across the UK	At the end of the summer term in the academic year of 2019/20	85

Several additional interviews with both teachers and students were conducted alongside the national survey after the author met with some teachers and learners in teacher training workshops and Chinese language education/linguistic conferences in England. Those participants provided extra diverse perspectives that supplemented the main study.

More information on data collected from the entire procedure is shown in Table 3.4. In addition, the total number of participants, sampling, procedure, and research questions addressed in each research approach are listed in detail.

Table 3. 4

Number of Participants, Sampling, Procedures and Research Questions for Each Research Method

Data Type	Approach	Participants N	Sampling	Procedure	Research Questions
Quantitative Data	Pilot, local and national survey	196	Convenience and purposeful sampling	1. Contact programme directors 2. Obtain informed consent 3. Send the survey link	RQ1 RQ2 RQ3
	Classroom Observation	32	Convenience sampling	1. Contact the teachers 2. Obtain informed consent from all parties. 3. Visit and observe classes	RQ3
Qualitative Data	Interview with participants from the survey	26	Purposeful sampling	1. Email participants who volunteered 2. Obtain informed consent 3. Meet the interviewees in person or online	RQ1 RQ2 RQ3
	Interview with participants from the classroom obser vation	13	Purposeful sampling	1. Obtain informed consent 2. Interview the teachers 3. Select students in each class 4. Interview the students	RQ1 RQ3

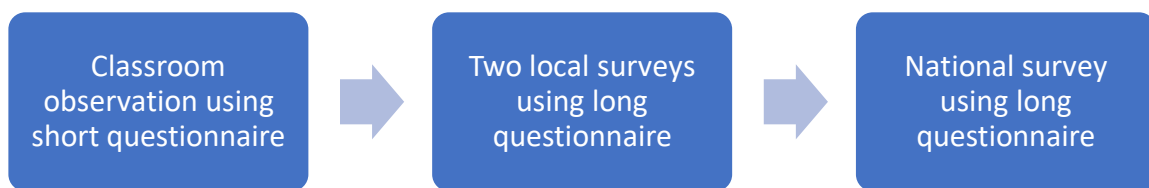
Note that in later chapters, the different sets of data are reported in an order that different from the order in which the data were collected. During the actual data collection, classroom observation data were collected first, in order to track any motivation fluctuation during a whole semester. Such data were therefore collected throughout the first semester. The second part of the data collection was also longitudinal at a local level – two surveys with the long questionnaire administered at the start and the end of the second semester.

The data collection for the national survey and post-class survey were separate sections; thus, the data analysis for using EFA with the national survey data and using t-test analysis for the post-class surveys are also separate – the findings from the former section will be reported in Chapter Five Section 5.3; the findings from the latter section will be

reported in Chapter Six. The findings from the observation data collection will be reported in Section 6.2.2.1 Observation Scheme Data and 6.2.2.2 Post-Lesson Questionnaire Data.

By having this comprehensive research design and data collection, the researcher aimed to gain complete picture that captured different aspects of learner motivation. The timeline for the data collection is clarified within the flow chart shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3. 1
Data Collection Flow Chart



If this study is replicated in other Anglophone countries on a nationwide basis, this long questionnaire might be a tool for portraying a full picture of factors that potentially influence CFL motivation; if this study is replicated in an instructed context focusing on learner motivation fluctuation in class, the short questionnaire that was used after each class may be a tool to capture participant's overall temporary feeling.

3.5 Quantitative Data Collection

3.5.1. Sampling

3.5.1.1 Sampling for the Pilot Survey

The pilot study was conducted at a university in Southeast England. Convenience or opportunity sampling was used because of resource limitations. At the same time, participants enrolled in the Chinese courses in that institution did meet the criteria for inclusion in the study. These criteria include participants are adults; participants are learning CFL in UK higher education institutions; participants are not learning CFL as the main degree study but as an optional course alongside different main degree subjects.

The Department of Languages and Cultures at this university offers ten different foreign languages, including Chinese Mandarin, within its IWLP. All undergraduate and postgraduate taught students could learn a language either as part of their degree for 20 credits or as a non-credit bearing course. Postgraduate research students, Erasmus and Study Abroad students, and university staff can also join these courses with payment of a subsidised fee to enrol on a class as a non-credit bearing module. Modules start in the autumn term and involve three contact hours each week (excluding Week 6 of the autumn and spring terms), including revision classes during the summer term.

In the academic year of 2018/19, when the pilot study was conducted, a total of 1025 students were enrolled on courses across all languages, comprising 49% from the UK, 20% from the EU and 31% were international students. There were 88% of students taking credit-bearing courses. The student body was 87% undergraduate, 7% postgraduate and 6% staff. Among all undergraduates, 23% were year-one students, 28% were year-two students, 28% were year-three students, and 8% were study-abroad students. The five most popular main degree studies for IWLP students were management, law, maths & computing, psychology, literature & languages. In that year, the distribution of languages being studied was Spanish (18%), French (15%), Japanese (15%), Italian (10%), British Sign Language (10%), Chinese (10%) and German (7%), provided by the director of the IWLP at this university.

Around a hundred students signed up for the Chinese Mandarin courses in 2018/19. According to their linguistic abilities, they were placed into four levels (level one, level one fast track, level two and three). The student profile (where they were from and what level they were studying at) in the Chinese courses can be estimated from the distribution of all IWLP students in 2018/19, detailed in the previous paragraph. The sample of the Chinese learners in this university, to a certain extent, represents the population of Chinese learners across the UK university language centres. This is because the Chinese courses these

universities offer are similar to the majority of Chinese courses that other UK universities offer in terms of their curricula, recipients, placements, assessments, and textbook choices.

3.5.1.2 Sampling for the Local Survey

Convenience or opportunity sampling was also applied in the local survey. For example, within the same institution where the pilot survey was conducted, students in two Chinese classes from the next academic year (2019/20) volunteered to participate in the local survey at the beginning of the spring term. Some participated in the second part of the local survey at the end of the summer term. As in the pilot study, these learners from the IWLP Chinese courses at the same university represent a group of learners in a UK university language centre who take Chinese as a year-long module. Fewer participants from the Time 2 survey than those from the Time 1 survey also reflected the drop-out issue among the learners.

3.5.1.3 Sampling for the National Survey

Convenience or opportunity sampling was applied here as well. The main criterion for this sampling was to generate as much diversity as possible regarding university location and the learners' ages, main degree studies, experiences, and levels of Chinese proficiency. The researcher investigated 15 UK universities that offer Chinese language courses as non-degree modules in the national survey data collection phase. After collecting publicly available contact information from these universities' websites, the researcher initially emailed the cover letter to either the director or the administrator of the programme, introducing the purpose of the study and asking for consent to email the questionnaire link to students enrolled on Chinese courses in the academic year of 2019/20. Out of 65 universities contacted by the researcher, 15 universities across England and Wales kindly participated and agreed to send the link to students. Among these 15 universities, there were two from London, four from the South of England, seven from the North of England and two from

Wales. The distribution of these participating universities helped to avoid ending up with a biased sample. However, as the number of students to whom the link was sent is unknown, it is not possible to calculate a response rate.

3.5.1.4 Sampling for the Classroom Observation

Classroom observation adopted convenience or opportunity sampling as well. Before the data collection period started, the researcher selected two universities within a short travel distance. The researcher contacted two Chinese teachers from these two universities and discussed informally visiting their weekly Chinese language classes throughout the term. Both showed interest in participation and willingness to discuss with their line managers. Informed consent for the observation was then sought from teachers and students in the two universities across three classes in total. Full consent was obtained from all students in two classes in one university, giving one Chinese Level One and one Chinese Level Two class to observe.

3.5.2. Participants

Participants in this study included learners of Chinese in IWLPs modules alongside their main degrees in universities, evening classes offered by the Confucius Institute (Chinese courses at some universities are provided by the Confucius Institute), and learners from weekend classes offered by Chinese community schools. It is worth noting that it excluded university students with Chinese area studies as their main degree studies. The reason for this is that the motivation of the latter group might be more stable as they are already strongly committed to full-time language study.

The study sought participants broadly representative of the UK population of adult learners of Chinese. Consequently, participants were diverse in age, nationality, native language, Chinese language proficiency, experience in China and main degree study or career, see Table 3.5.

Table 3. 5
Participants in the Questionnaire Survey

Survey	Numbers of participants	Gender	Age	Language proficiency level ²²
Pilot	35	Female (61.3%)	19-38	A1 (43.3%)
		Male (38.7%)	Mean=23.2	A2 (26.7%)
		Other (1.2%)		B1 (13.3%)
				B2 (10%)
				C1 (6.7%)
Local survey	50	Female (56%)	18-58	Level One (64%)
		Male (42%)	Mean=21.32	Level Two (36%)
		Other (2%)		
National Survey	85	Female (58.8%)	18-84	Beginner (65.9%)
		Male (40%)	Mean=28.97	Intermediate (28.2%)
		Other (1.2%)		Advanced (4.7%)

In the pilot and local survey, all participants were from one local university but diverse main degree subjects in this university. In the national survey, participants were geographically scattered across the whole country. The distribution of nationalities of participants is shown in Figure 3.1. Again, British participants are a little less than half, with the other half participants from worldwide. The distribution of the native languages of participants is shown in Figure 3.2. English only or English with another language made up 59%.

²² There are three types of different proficiency scales used here. In the first pilot survey, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was used; it describes language ability on a six-point scale, from A1 for beginners up to C2 for those who have mastered a language. In the local survey, students were grouped into two levels in the second pilot – Level One and Level Two by the university’s placement tests. In the national survey, participants were grouped into Beginner, Intermediate and Advanced levels, corresponding to the three general levels identified by the CEFR for A1 to C2: Basic User, Independent User and Proficient User.

Figure 3. 2
The Distribution of Nationalities of Participants (frequencies)

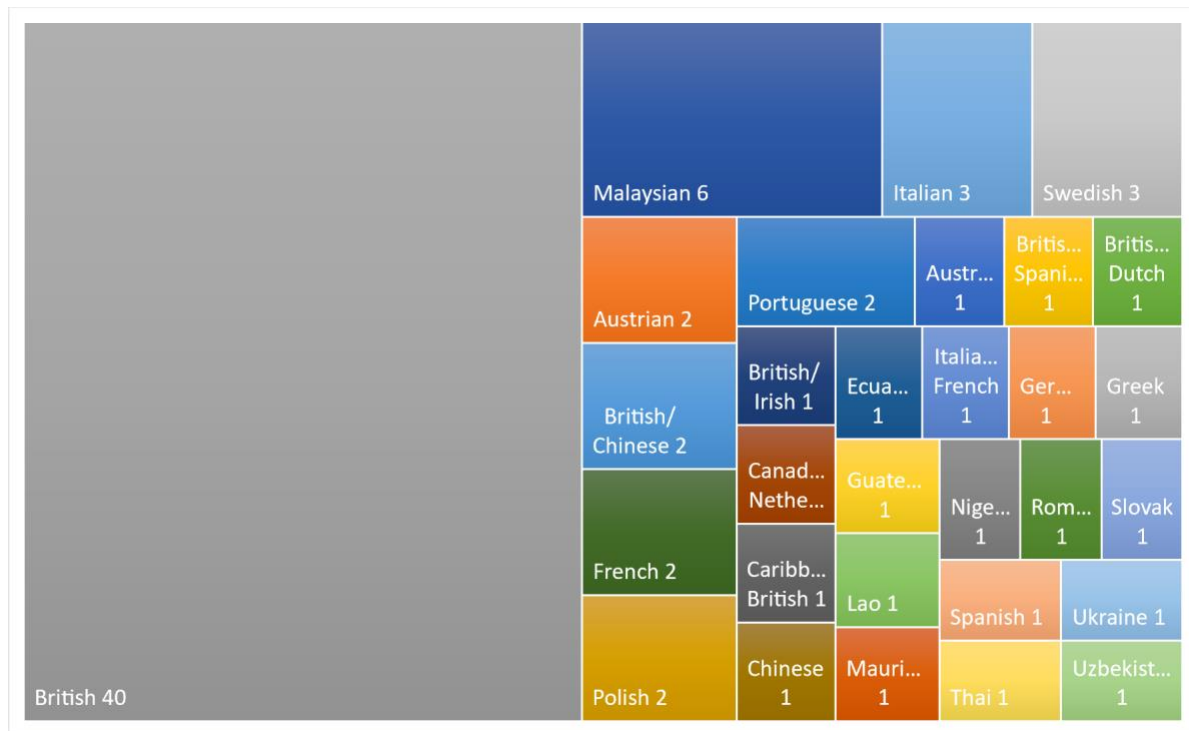
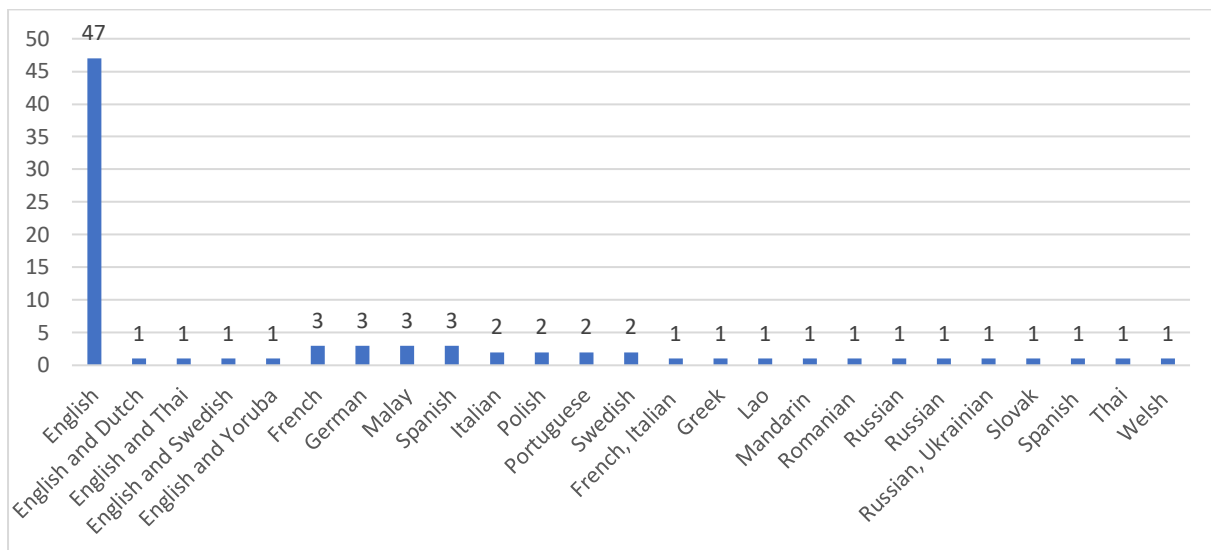


Figure 3. 3
The Native Languages of Participants (frequencies)



In terms of other foreign languages that participants spoke in addition to Chinese, French was mentioned by 17 participants; Spanish by 13 participants; German – by 10; Italian – by 6; Japanese – by 4; Malay – by 3. Arabic, Bahasa, Dutch, Greek, Korean, and

Thai were mentioned twice. Other languages like Bulgarian, Catalan, Chinese Hakka, Hindi, Latin, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Tatar, Tamil, Uzbek, Urdu, and Welsh were mentioned once.

Out of 85 responses in the national survey, seven participants were raised in a family where Chinese is spoken, indicating that 8% of participants were Chinese heritage learners. In addition, 14 participants learnt Chinese in school, which indicates that 16.5% of participants learnt Chinese at the school level in different forms of learning and for various lengths and levels. Thirty-nine participants (45.9%) had travelled to China: 20 people had travelled to Beijing, and 18 people had travelled to Shanghai. Other cities mentioned more than once include Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Hongkong, Chengdu, Hangzhou, Suzhou, Nanjing, Qingdao, Xi'an, Chongqing, and Lijiang. Travelling to China was mainly for holidays, visiting family, work/business reasons, and study abroad programmes.

3.5.3. Administration

3.5.3.1 Administration for the Pilot Survey

The first pilot questionnaire was conducted in May 2019 via the Online Surveys (formerly Bristol Online Surveys). After obtaining consent from the programme director and the Chinese course coordinator, the link to the questionnaire was sent out to all students enrolled on Chinese courses by the course coordinator. Over two weeks, 35 responses were returned. The demographic summary of these participants is shown in Appendix G.

3.5.3.2 Administration for the Local Survey

After analysing and amending the first pilot questionnaire results, the local survey questionnaire was administrated and analysed, initially as a forerunner to the national survey. The local questionnaire survey was conducted in January 2020 and was administered to students in three actual classes in hard copy. The researcher handed out the questionnaire papers to students before the first lesson of the spring term. Students completed the

questionnaire in 15 minutes. There were 50 responses collected from three classes (two classes from level one and one class from level two). Learners' responses (coded as Time 1) were then added manually to those collated via the Online Surveys.

As this amended questionnaire was judged to be valid and reliable (see Section 3.7.2), this questionnaire was administrated again to the same group of learners to look at motivation changes over time. Six months later, in June 2020, this questionnaire was sent out to the same group of learners via the Online Survey link. Learners' responses were coded as Time 2. There were 26 responses returned for the Time 2 survey. It should be noted that different teachers taught students at Time 1 and Time 2.

3.5.3.3 Administration for the National Survey

The same questionnaire was used for the national and local surveys. The link to the online questionnaire was emailed to students by administrators or directors of 15 universities' language departments. Eighty-five responses were received from April to June 2020. It needs to be noted that this period was during the global pandemic, meaning that the number of participants was lower than had been hoped for. Nevertheless, it was considered large enough to carry out statistical analysis.

3.5.3.4 Administration for the Classroom Observation

The researcher visited two classes on a weekly basis, for seven to eight weeks, for two hours per lesson. During the classes, the researcher herself was sitting at the back of the classroom and taking notes using the observation scheme (see Section 3.7.3), with the minimum distraction caused to students, without participating in any class activities. There was no audio or video recording device used during the observation process. After each lesson, the researcher handed out the post-lesson questionnaire (see Section 3.7.3) to each student and collected it. There was no other communication between the researcher and the teacher or learners after the lesson. The research kept a neutral and uninvolved role

throughout the term. The communication with students only happened in the interview stage towards the end of the term outside the class. The communication with teachers only happened in the interview before the term started and after the term ended.

The two local questionnaires were administered at the start and the end of the second semester of the academic year (January to June). The classroom observation, with the follow-up interview, is considered another data collection exercise, which has a more qualitative perspective, and it lasted from October to December. They were treated as separate and independent quantitative data collection operations. There is over a month of holiday (December to January) between the two data collections. Although it may appear that these two activities were arranged back to front, with the observation first and then the survey second, the fact is that the observation and survey are separate entities for two individual sets of data collection and therefore, the order is not necessarily relevant.

3.6 Qualitative Data Collection

3.6.1 Main Interview with Participants from the Classroom Observation

A pilot interview was conducted before the main qualitative data collection, as seen in Appendix F. Main interview were conducted in two stages, which were after the classroom observation and after the national survey (see Section 3.6.2) When conducting observations in a classroom context, data collection forms include field notes (detailed freehand notes of the phenomena under investigation), observation schemes (straightforward checklists and tallies of overt behaviours or schemes that require observers to judge the meanings or functions of particular behaviours), and audio or video recording of the lesson. The recording is useful for the researcher to review the lesson; however, conducting recordings in a classroom setting is not entirely unproblematic (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Therefore, only field notes and the observation scheme were adopted in this study as two data collection methods.

Audio or video recording of classes was avoided because of its ethical implications and potential impact on student and teacher behaviour. Hence data from the classroom observation were, collected via the observation scheme and the post-lesson questionnaire and supplemented by interviews with learners and the teacher after the class.

During the last two weeks of the autumn term in which the classroom observations were conducted, 13 participants from two observed classes were invited to be interviewed. Table 3.6 shows the gender, nationality, year and main degree and other foreign languages of the participants interviewed after the classroom observations.

Table 3.6
Participants Interviewed after the Classroom Observation

Class	Pseudonym	Gender	Nationality	Year and Main degree	Other Foreign Languages
One	Kate	F	British/Singaporean	Postgraduate in Real Estate	English German
	Colin	M	Brazilian	First-year in Business	French Spanish
	Darren	M	Japanese	First-year in Finance	French German Spanish
	Kent	M	Malaysian	First-year in Accounting	French Italian Russian
	James	M	British	First-year in Business	English German
	Peter	M	Thai	First-year in Management	English
	Fanny	F	British	University Staff	French German
	Cynthia	F	British	University Staff	Japanese Korean
Two	Jane	F	British/Chinese	Third-year in Business	Chinese Hakka Italian
	Susan	F	British/Chinese	Third-year in English Literature	English Greek
	John	M	Philippine	Second-year in Business	Spanish
	Clarissa	F	British	Second-year in History	English French Spanish
	Clement	F	French	Third-year in English and Linguistics	French German

3.6.2 Main Interview with Participants from the National Survey

Participants in the interviews that followed the nation survey were recruited at a national level. Participants were asked in the national survey to volunteer for a follow-up interview. Eighteen participants did so: 10 from three universities in the Northwest of

England, two from one university in the East Midlands, two from a university in Wales, one each from a university in the East, Northeast and Southeast of England, and one participant from a university in London. Table 3.7 lists the age, gender, nationality, native language, year and main degree, level of the Chinese course, credit-bearing or not of the Chinese course and other foreign languages of the interview participants recruited from the national survey.

Table 3.7
Participants Interviewed after the National Survey

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	Nationality	Native Language	Year and Main degree	Level of Chinese course	Credit-bearing or not	Other foreign languages
Belinda	20	F	Italian	Italian	Second Physics	Beginner	Yes	English German
Samuel	24	M	British	English	PhD Environmental Science	Advanced	No	French Spanish
Janis	84	F	British	English	NA	Beginner	No	French German Spanish
Amanda	70	F	British	English	NA	Intermediate	No	French Italian Russian
Stuart	20	M	Slovak	Slovak	First Biochemistry and genetics	Beginner	Yes	English German
Caroline	35	F	Guatemalan	Spanish	First Pharmacy	Beginner	No	English
Tim	61	M	British	English	NA	Beginner	No	French German
Kai	22	O	British/ Norwegian	English	Second Japanese	Intermediate	Yes	Japanese Korean
Chung	65	F	British/ Chinese	English	NA	Beginner	No	Chinese Hakka Italian
Mathias	27	M	Russian	Russian	Postgraduate Chemistry	Beginner	No	English Greek
Linda	24	F	American	English	Postgraduate Environment	Beginner	No	Spanish
Violet	63	F	British	Welsh	NA	Beginner	No	English French Spanish
Quentin	20	M	Dutch/ Canadian	Dutch English	Third Mathematics	Intermediate	No	French German
Samantha	22	F	British/ Indian	English	Third International Business	Beginner	Yes	Spanish French Hindi
Anita	48	F	British	English	PhD English Literature	Beginner	No	Spanish Catalan, some Italian, some French

Florence	19	F	British	English	Second TESOL with Korean	Beginner	No	German Korean
Jasmine	28	F	British/ Chinese	English	NA	Intermediate	No	French
Ruby	20	F	British/ Dutch	English	Third Film and Television studies	Beginner	Yes	Dutch Spanish

3.6.3 Main Interview with Teachers

One teacher from the main classroom observation was interviewed twice – before the course started and after the course ended. To make the teacher participants as diverse as possible and collect more motivational strategies from different teaching perspectives, another eight teachers from various institutions in the UK were interviewed. They were all native Chinese speakers with more than five years of teaching experience with adult learner in the UK. The information for these nine teachers is shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3. 8
Interview Participants of Teachers

Pseudonym	Gender	Teaching Experience	Type of Institution the participant teaches	Academic Qualification	Study Area of Most Advanced Qualification
Mei	F	10 years	Chinese community school	Bachelor's	International Business Trade
Ling	F	6 years	Chinese community school	Bachelor's	Communication Technology
Hua	F	11 years	University language centre	PGCE	Modern Languages (Mandarin)
Huan	F	15 years	University lifelong learning centre	PhD	Linguistics
Niu	F	5 years	Private language school	Bachelor's	English Studies
Ju	F	13 years	University Chinese studies	PhD	Translation Studies
Yu	F	5 years	University Chinese studies	Master's	Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages
Delin	F	8 years	University language centre	Master's	Education
Rong	F	10 years	University language centre	Master's	Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Hu*	F	16 years	University language centre	Master's	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
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*: the teacher whom the researcher observed

3.6.4 Interview with Additional Learners

An extra group of learners of Chinese in the UK were interviewed to supplement the qualitative study. They were adult British learners from various social backgrounds but who had committed to learning Chinese for various reasons for over four years. The researcher met them on different occasions, such as at conferences and workshops related to Chinese learning and teaching in England and invited them for an interview. They were all keen to participate and provided diverse perspectives to this study. The information on these eight learners is shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9
Interview Participants of Additional Learners

Pseudonym	Gender	Learning Experience	Type of Institution the participant learns	Profession	Main Story
Anasa	F	4 years	Confucius Institute	Business-woman	Doing business in China
David	M	4 years	Confucius Institute	Professor in music	Practising with Chinese students
Roger	M	25 years	Autodidact	Book writer	Studying Chinese poetry
Ryan	M	9 years	Secondary school and University Chinese Area Study	University student	Speaking with Chinese customers in luxury stores
Mari	F	8 years	Secondary school and University Chinese Area Study	University student	Multilingual in Asian languages
Althea	F	9 years	Secondary school and University Chinese Area Study	University student	Lived in China with an ambassador father
Viola	F	4 years	University lifelong learning centre	Lecturer	Studying Chinese language pedagogy
Stuart	M	8 years	University Chinese Area Study and University in China	Youtuber	Introducing Chinese culture on Youtuber

3.7 Instruments

3.7.1 Questionnaires

3.7.1.1 Questionnaire Design for the Pilot Study

A multi-item Likert scale questionnaire was used for this study to collect individual self-report motivation orientation and its determinants. The idea behind the survey is to gain insights into the characteristics, opinions, attitudes, feelings, knowledge and intended behaviours, and various background information and biodata of the target group of people that can be described and inferred from an overall population. A Likert Scale is a closed-ended item composed of a characteristic statement accompanied by five or six response options for respondents to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree. Multi-item scales have more than one item for each identified content area aiming at the same target but drawing upon slightly different aspects to avoid the fallibility of single items (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012).

This study adapted questionnaires from previous studies to measure different variables related to motivation. The central motivational frameworks used in the questionnaire are Gardner's (1985) attitude and motivation theory, Dörnyei's (1994) framework of L2 motivation, Dörnyei's (2009) L2MSS framework, and Martin and Marsh's (2008) academic buoyancy theory. The clusters of motivational factors used in this study were selected from Papi and Teimouri's (2014) Grouped Items. Some of the items were altered by a single word, substituting "English" with "Chinese", as in this example: "Studying English [changed into Chinese in this study] can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job and/or making money". Some items were largely rewritten. For example, "Do you like the music of English-speaking countries?" was changed to "I think that it is important to learn Chinese in order to understand more

about the culture and arts of its speakers” because music is not something for which the Chinese are very well-known to the western world.

The questions about academic buoyancy were adapted from the questionnaire used in Yun et al. (2018) with some simplification of wording; the questions about teachers’ emotional and academic support and classroom mutual respect were adapted from Joe et al. (2017); the questions about mother tongue, foreign language spoken, and the learners’ level of proficiency in Chinese were adapted from Csillagh (2015); the questions about learners’ previous Chinese learning experiences in terms of length and type were adapted from Saito et al. (2018). To assess specific Chinese language learning motivation, the researcher referred to Xie’s (2011) and Liu’s (2014) studies in American university learning settings. When writing new items, informal qualitative exploratory data were gathered from potential participants in casual chats and occasional classroom observations. The majority of the items were taken from established questionnaires, however.

In Section A, there were 76 question items adapted from previous research. Each of the statements in this section described a specific aspect that impacted the participant’s motivation for learning Chinese, which ranged from “completely untrue” to “completely true”, with four degrees of “mostly untrue, partly untrue, partly true and mostly true” between the two bipolar ends. These items were categorised into 14 potential motivational factors. In each factor, three to 12 items were included as a subdomain of the target factor. These 14 factors were: “Cultural Interest; Attitude Towards China; Interest in Foreign Languages; Instrumentality; Lack of Ethnocentrism; Lack of Chinese Anxiety; Attitude to Learning Chinese; Milieu; L2 Self-Confidence; Intended Learning Effort; Motivated Behaviours; Strategic Self-Regulation and Buoyancy; Teacher-Student Relationship; Teacher Support”.

In the last section, participants’ personal information and Chinese learning experience were collected, including age, gender, nationality, institution, year at university, main degree

study, native language, other foreign languages, family background, previous Chinese learning experience, current efforts outside the class, China travel experience and proficiency level.

3.7.1.2 Questionnaire Design for the Local and the National Study

After analysing the pilot study questionnaire (see Appendix G), several concerning issues came to light. First of all, the length of the questionnaire caused a few cases of incompleteness. Second, giving the name for each motivation category seemed to lead participants to rate the same degree for all the items in the same category, which could cause validity issues. Third, the wording of some questions needed to be improved. Therefore, the second version of the questionnaire was designed based on these issues discovered in the pilot study. It had all the items scattered compared to the items that were grouped in the first questionnaire. Moreover, several repeated questions were deleted, and the wording of the questions was clarified and simplified.

The final questionnaire had three parts (see Appendix A). The first part consisted of 54 items representing factors that influence motivations, which were revised from the pilot questionnaire; part two had 20 items representing self-regulating capacity for Chinese characters learning, which were identical to the pilot questionnaire; part three included questions related to personal information and learning experience, which were also identical to the pilot questionnaire. To make the first part of the questionnaire structure clear to follow, Table H lists the 54 questionnaire items that relate to different categories, shown in Appendix H: The Questionnaire Structure of 54 Items in 14 Categories.

In addition, the potential causes of fluctuation or demotivation that emerged from the interviews were added to the questionnaire. The most frequently mentioned was time constraints – students had to spend more time on their main degree studies, and less time and effort were put into the Chinese module. Participants also mentioned that the organisation

management of the course was not supportive enough, such as they did not have regular office hours; they did not receive replies to their requests from the module convenor; they missed some classes; new timetables clashed with their other modules and so on. Finally, a question was asked whether learners experienced demotivation, and seven choices were given for common demotivation reasons.

The format of some questions was improved as well. For example, question 35 was originally designed to ask participants to fill in the hours of their time for studying/practising Chinese outside the classroom in an average week and list the things they do. However, it was difficult to conduct further analysis with the various answers that participants gave; moreover, from the results of the first pilot study, the range of weekly time spent on studying Chinese for class requirements was 1-10 hours, and the range of the weekly time spent on outside class requirements ranged from 1-15 hours. Hence the researcher adopted aggregates of “<1h, 1-3h, 3-5h, >5h” for the multiple answers. In addition, outside class practice activities could be divided into three types: watching movies and other videos, communicating with native speakers, repeating writing characters and learning through Apps. Other answers included having a tutor, study groups, reading Chinese novels, listening to music, using textbooks, etc. Therefore, a single-choice question was used for 35a about the studying time, and a multiple-choice question was used for 35b about the activities to replace the original completion form. The online survey link and the copy of the questionnaire are shown in Appendix A.

3.7.2 Interview Protocols

3.7.2.1 Interview Protocol Design for the Learner Participants from the National Survey

The original interview protocol can be found in Appendix B. After the pilot study, all the questions were congregated into six groups. Each group of questions aimed to answer a part of a research question. The groups of questions and the purpose of each group are listed

below in Table 3.10. After asking about their foreign language learning experiences, more details about their motivation fluctuation were requested, and they were encouraged to be more open about their unsatisfactory experiences.

Table 3. 10

The Groups of Learner Interview Questions for the National Survey

Group of questions	Purpose
When, how and why did you start learning Chinese? Did you enjoy it? What was the best and worst part of it? Did you like the teaching approach?	To summarise the reasons for learning Chinese; to understand the value of learning Chinese in students' eyes; to understand the learning experience (class hours, class type); and the overall reaction to the teacher and lessons.
Were there any differences between the Chinese and other foreign language classes you had before? For example, was the teaching style different?	To identify the characteristics of the Chinese language compared with other foreign languages; to identify the characteristics of the Chinese language classes and Chinese teaching pedagogy compared with other foreign languages classes and teaching pedagogy.
What were the biggest challenges of learning Chinese? Have you experienced a fluctuation in your motivation? How did you keep yourself resilient?	To explore the difficulties in learning Chinese from the characteristics of the language itself; to summarise the reasons for motivation fluctuation and demotivation as well as the coping strategies.
Do you see yourself as a successful language learner? What characteristics do successful learners need to have?	To find out the students' understandings of successful language learners from the perspective of the L2 Motivational Self System; to explore learners' reflection on their learning and evaluation of themselves as L2 learners.
Has learning and speaking Chinese changed your life? Did you have a better understanding of China, Chinese people and Chinese culture?	To explore the influence of language learning on cultural-related attitudes.
Do you think there will be more and more learners of Chinese in the UK in the future? Could you give some suggestions for future Chinese teaching and learning in the UK?	To collect views on the future development trend of the Chinese language; to collect suggestions for learners, teachers and institutions.

3.7.2.2 Interview Protocol Design for the Learner Participants from the Classroom Observation

The interview protocol designed for the classroom observation was congregated into eight groups after the pilot study. Each group of questions aimed to answer a part of a research question. The groups of questions and the purpose of each group are listed below in Table 3.11. These questions differed from those asked in the learner interviews from the national survey because the interviews from the classroom observation focused on learners' classroom learning experiences, their opinions of the teaching approach, and the teachers' suggestions.

Table 3. 11
The Groups of Interview Questions in the Classroom Observation

Group of Questions	Purpose
Why did you choose to learn Chinese? (culture interest or career prospect?)	To understand the reasons for and the value of learning Chinese in students' eyes and the integrative or instrumental motivation for learning Chinese.
Has learning Chinese so far changed anything in your life? Have you planned anything related to Chinese in the future?	To explore the influence of language learning on individuals; to explore language learning from the perspectives of the Ideal Self and the Vision.
Do you think Chinese is a difficult language? What challenges did you encounter, and what were your coping strategies?)	To explore the difficulties in learning Chinese from the characteristics of the language itself; to summarise the coping strategies.
What did you like the most about the Chinese class?	To find out students' positive learning experiences.
What did you dislike the most about the Chinese class?	To find out students' negative learning experiences.
Do you like the teacher's teaching style?	To find out students' attitudes toward the Chinese teaching pedagogy and its uniqueness.
Did your teacher give you anything like special support or help?	To find out teachers' motivational teaching practices.
What suggestions can you give your teacher and other Chinese teachers to enhance students' motivation?	To collect suggestions for learners, teachers and institutions.

3.7.2.3 Interview Protocol Design for the Teacher Participants

A semi-structured interview protocol for teachers was designed for this research. The teacher interview protocol explored their previous Chinese teaching experience, their understanding of their students' motivations and learning difficulties, and their successful experience in motivating the students (see Appendix B). At the end of the interview, the interviewees were asked to rank the importance of a list of teaching strategies for motivating students, and they could add more of them and give reasons (see Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Muñoz & Ramirez, 2015). In addition, there were tailored questions for each teacher based on the types of courses and students he/she taught and the institution in which he/she worked. Finally, more direct questions about the teachers' previous experiences were asked to explore those impact on their conceptions of motivational practices.

3.7.3 Classroom Observation Scheme

The L2 motivation research mainly relies on self-report questionnaires (Dörnyei & Guilleaumeaux, 2008). The novel feature of this study was to incorporate a classroom observation component. For this reason, a classroom observation instrument, the Motivation Orientation in Chinese Language Class (MOCLC, see Appendix C), was specifically developed for this investigation in order to explore the nature of the teachers' motivational teaching practice as well as the level of the students' motivated behaviour by comparing the amount of time and variety of strategies used in class with students' post-lesson motivational state.

When adapting Dörnyei and Guilleaumeaux (2008)'s Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) and developing the MOCLC, the principle was to design a valid approach to answer Research Question 2 – (b) and (c). These questions needed to be tackled by examining empirically how teachers' motivational teaching practice in class affects their students' motivated learning behaviours as reflected in classroom discourses and behaviours.

The MOCLC followed the real-time coding principle of MOLT scheme but with some adjustments. The MOCLC retained the sections of “Teacher’s Discourse” and “Teacher’s Activity Design” included in Dörnyei and Guilloteau’s (2008) MOLT. The students’ motivated learning behaviours, including “Classroom Setting”, “Alertness”, “Active Participation” and “Passive Participation”, were moved to the left side of the observation schedule.

In the pilot study, Dörnyei and Guilloteau’s (2008) MOLT was used, but it turned out that the structure of this schedule was somewhat difficult to use in a real-time class situation. The researcher then cleaned up, re-arranged, and changed some wordings. The newly designed MOCLC was tested with two YouTube videos called “ESL Class Learn English Speaking for Beginners American English in Real Life Unit 7” and “1010 Chinese Language Class Luoyi Cai”, and the revised schedule worked well with both. Two raters checked the inter-rater reliability – the author and a peer of the author – to assure the consistency of the rating system implementation; a good agreement was found between the two rating forms.

3.7.4 Post-Lesson Questionnaire for Each Class

The timing for conducting questionnaire surveys can affect the results (Chu, 2019). Alongside the main survey for capturing the cross-sectional motivation during the learning process, a short survey after each lesson was administrated as one of the approaches to depicting the dynamic nature of language learning motivation. It can be seen as a self-reported approach, which involves participants being asked to report the strength of their present motivation or current factors that motivate them at different time points, in this study, on a weekly basis. The differences and fluctuating trends can be examined from week to week. Consequently, the researcher can compare participants’ post-lesson feedback with the teaching strategies recorded in the classroom observation scheme for each class from a longitudinal view. Using the self-report approach provided relatively more valid information

since participants were not recalling their memories but reporting their thoughts at that particular moment when they were asked to answer the questions (Chu, 2019).

The weekly questionnaire was designed to be short (taking one minute to fill in), straightforward and easy to answer so that participants would have a higher level of willingness and accuracy in filling it in after each lesson. The questionnaire comprised a 10-point Likert scale with five items – motivation, confidence, enjoyment, desire to review (the wish to study after this lesson) and support students received, and two open questions about the most interesting and the least interesting thing happened in class. It asked students to circle a level between 1-10 which best matched how they felt (1 is lowest and 10 is highest) by considering their engagement and the class atmosphere at the end of each lesson.

3.8 Summary

If researchers are interested in what motivates learners or what reasons learners give for being demotivated, discovering the teacher's impact on students through questionnaires and interviews is not sufficient. For example, noting down students' opinions on the teacher being boring does not help researchers or practitioners understand why and how demotivation happens, but class observations may present a complete picture. Therefore, questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations were adopted in the current study, as discussed above. In addition, just taking a snapshot via a questionnaire or an interview does not provide a full picture of motivation dynamics; a longitudinal approach was thus taken to track the motivation fluctuations in the current study. This chapter explains why and how mixed methods were adopted, and triangulation was achieved in the current study, then illustrates the data collection process and instrument design. The quantitative and qualitative data analysis process, ethical issues, and limitations will be reported in the next chapter.

This study brings the value of longitudinal observation method design to language learning motivation research. A detailed picture of how motivation, emotion and good learner

strategies are involved throughout the Chinese learning experience can be drawn from rich observation data. The design in this study includes both the quantitative survey and qualitative interview to maximise the validity of the data by giving a triangulated picture. The longitudinal survey shows how different motivational factors evolve over time, whereas the interview probes more deeply the causes of any motivation fluctuation. The combination of longitudinal quantitative and qualitative data helps create a particular type of profile of successful learners who overcome motivational fluctuations and continue learning Chinese and unsuccessful learners who are overcome by negative experiences and drop out of learning. Because motivation levels ebb and flow all the time, within a lesson, throughout a semester, or in far longer periods (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), a longitudinal research design is especially valuable.

While a majority of motivation studies are based on cross-sectional designs, the close observation of longitudinal patterns allows researchers to capture the dynamic process of the CFL learning experience in a more granular view and establish how motivations are related to different learner-internal and learner-external variables in the classroom, (Dewaele et al., 2022).

4.1 Introduction

The last chapter describes the research design and procedures of the current study, and this chapter reports the process of quantitative analysis in Section 4.2 and qualitative data analysis in Section 4.3. The validity and reliability of the methods are discussed in Section 4.4. Ethical issues are considered in Section 4.5. At the end of the chapter, limitations are presented, followed by a summary of the methodology elaborated in Chapters Three and Four.

4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

4.2.2 Quantitative Data Analysis for the Local Study

Initially, a second pilot study was originally planned to test the reliability of the revised questionnaire after analysing the pilot study data (see Appendix G). However, the responses from the second pilot study showed good reliability with .92 Cronbach alpha coefficient. Therefore, the second version of the questionnaire was retained and used again in the national survey (see Appendix A). Henceforth, the data collected from the second pilot study was called the local study.

Fifty participants participated in the local study. These 50 responses collected from the link on Online Surveys were initially processed in Microsoft Excel. First, numbers 6 to 1 were allocated to ratings from “Absolutely true” to “Not true at all”. Then the negatively worded items were reverse coded. Then demographic data were recoded into numerical form; for example, “your nationality” entered as text (British, Non-British) became either “1” or “2”. This allowed the participants to be divided into groups for variables such as other languages spoken and previous contact with Chinese for subsequent statistical analysis.

In order to find out if the motivation level is affected by learner's individual differences such as gender, age, Chinese proficiency level, native language, foreign language learning experience, home language, previous Chinese learning experience and China travel experience, eight independent-sample t-tests were conducted to see whether there were statistically significant differences in different groups. However, no significant differences were found in any of these independent-sample t-tests. Therefore, learners' individual differences might not be the factors that influence their motivation level. Thus, in the data analysis for the national survey, these individual differences were not explored further.

Factor analysis (FA) was also attempted for the local study. However, because of the small sample size and non-positive definite (NPD) correlation matrix, the requirement of the correlation matrix of coefficients was not achievable. Thus, FA was not adopted for the local study, but it would still be considered for use in the national study.

4.2.3 Quantitative Data Analysis for the National Study

4.2.3.1 Data Preparation

All the 85 Questionnaire responses were processed the same way for the local study. Following the preliminary coding and process of the data, all the subsequent data analysis procedures were guided by Pallant's (2020) SPSS Survival Manual. Finally, all the data were exported from Excel into SPSS 26.0 software. No missing data or outliers were found.

4.2.3.2 Normality Tests

The next step was to choose which further statistical analysis would be applied; furthermore, normality tests were conducted to check whether data distribution met the assumption of normality or not. For example, to assess the normality of the distribution of the average score of all the variables, a non-significant Shapiro-Wilk test ($p = .37$) was taken to indicate the normal distribution of the variables. In the same test, other plots also supported the normality of distribution. For example, the Histogram appeared as a reasonable bell

curve; the Normal P-P Plot was plotted close to a diagonal line; the Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot was obtained by plotting the actual deviation of the scores grouped around the straight line. Therefore, the research chose parametric statistical tests for subsequent data analysis, including correlation, multiple regression, paired t-test and factor analysis.

4.2.3.3 Reliability Analysis

To check the internal consistency of the questionnaire items in the national study, the researcher checked the reliability of the whole scale. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of the overall variables was .79, which showed good reliability (Pallant, 2020).

4.2.3.4 Descriptive Statistics

In order to examine the strength of motivation, all the variables were analysed by calculating descriptive statistics of mean, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation. These were then used to answer the research question RQ 1 - (a): “What are the initial motivations for learning Chinese and their respective strengths?” and RQ 2 - (a): “How do levels of motivation for learning the Chinese language change over time?”

4.2.4 Quantitative Data Analysis for the Merged Study

The questionnaires used in the local and national studies were identical; thus, the responses received from the two surveys were merged into a bigger data set. In other words, this merged study has 50 responses from the local survey and 85 responses from the national survey, with a total of 135 participants.

4.2.4.1 Data Preparation

The distribution of gender, age, language proficiency level, nationality and the native language of participants is shown in Table 4.1. These data were analysed by SPSS 26.0 and the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) 26.0. The reliability of the whole scale was checked with the internal consistency of the items in the questionnaire. The Cronbach Alpha

Coefficient of the overall variables was .759, which showed this scale’s good reliability (Pallant, 2020).

Table 4. 1

The Profile of 135 Participants

Gender	Age	Language proficiency level	Nationality	Native language
Female (57.5%)	18-84	Beginner (52.6%)	British (42.0%)	English Only (46.4%)
Male (41.0%)	Mean=25	Intermediate (29.3%)	British Dual (6.1%)	English and others
Other (1.5%)	.97	Advanced (18.1%)	Non-British (51.9%)	(9.6%) Non-English (44%)

4.2.4.2 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis can describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) is one of the common correlation coefficients that indicate the strength of the relationship (Pallant, 2020). The positive or negative interrelationship between variables can be presented by the coefficient “ r ” from -1 to 1. A high coefficient indicates a strong relationship. For example, when the “ r ” value is $> .60$, it reflects a large relationship between two variables; when the “ r ” value is $> .40$, it reflects a medium relationship between two variables; when the “ r ” value is $> .25$, it reflects a small relationship between two variables (Plonksy & Oswald, 2014, p. 889).

The relationships among the variables were analysed by Pearson’s Correlation to answer further RQ 1 - (b): What are the structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese? In other words, the correlation analysis was adopted to look into the relationship between the factors extracted from Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA, see Section 4.2.4.4).

4.2.4.3 Multiple Regression analysis

Following correlation analysis, multiple regression was used to more sophisticatedly explore the relationship between several variables. It analysed how well a set of variables could predict a particular outcome and determine which variable in a set of variables was the best predictor of an outcome (Pallant, 2020).

Based on the correlation analysis results, one factor with the strongest coefficients (r) with other factors was then selected as the outcome variable for regression analysis. Finally, the regression analysis examined whether other factors predicted this outcome variable.

4.2.4.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Factor Analysis (FA) summarises a large set of variables into a smaller set of factors or components. The word “factor” in FA means the group or clump of related variables, dimensions or internal attributes; as Watkins (2018) stated, “in the social and behavioural sciences, factors are assumed to be unobservable characteristics of people, which are manifested in differences in the scores attained by those people on the measured variables” (p.220).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is one of a family of multivariate statistical methods, and it has become a fundamental tool in developing and validating psychological theories and measurements. EFA is used to gather information, identify underlying factors and explore the interrelationships among a set of variables. As Pallant (2020) argues, EFA is often used to attempt to produce a smaller number of linear combinations of the original variables in a way that captures most of the variability in the pattern of correlations.

According to Watkins (2018), identifying the relationships between constructs and their indicator variables is significant since that knowledge allows unambiguous “mapping of theoretical constructs onto empirical phenomena” (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000, p. 155, as cited in Watkins, 2018) and, consequently, meaningful testing of theories. In this study, to find the

underlying factor structure of all the motivation-related variables, EFA was attempted to identify a small set of factors that represented the underlying relationships among 54 items in the questionnaire.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is another common FA method used within the L2 field. PCA relies on a different mathematical model and could be used for a similar purpose – data reduction – as EFA. However, Haig (2005, p. 321) argues that “EFA should always be used in preference to principal components analysis when the underlying common causal structure of a domain is being investigated”. Harrington (2009) also argues that results from an EFA might be a stronger foundation for further FA than results from a PCA.

In EFA, Maximum Likelihood (ML) is the most commonly used estimation method. The purpose of ML is to find the parameter values that most likely make the observed data, or, conversely, maximise the probability of the parameters given the data (Brown, 2015). Therefore, in this study, EFA with ML was adopted. It was used to answer RQ 1 - (b): What are the structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese?

When conducting EFA, certain requirements need to be considered. For example, Kline (2011) states that an ideal sample-size-to-parameters ratio would be 20:1; however, a less ideal ratio of 10:1 could be considered safe. According to this, the sample of 135 participants in this study could ideally produce 6.8 to 13.6 factors. Thus, the number of factors in this study could range from seven to 14.

4.2.5 Quantitative Data Analysis for the Longitudinal Study

As stated in Section 3.5.3.2, the questionnaire used in the local university’s study was administered again to the same group of learners six months later. The data collected for the local Time 1 and Time 2 surveys were compared to identify any motivation fluctuation. The 26 responses from the Time 2 survey were checked one by one for demographic information, including age, nationality, main degree study, year in university, level of the Chinese course

and other foreign languages. Another researcher checked the way of matching Time 1 and Time 2 answers within the same institution for accuracy. Among the 50 participants from the Time 1 survey, 21 completed the Time 2 survey.

4.2.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

For these 21 responses from the Time 2 survey, the researcher repeated the data process procedures outlined in Section 4.2.2. Then the descriptive statistical analysis was conducted to compare with the results of the Time 1 survey in order to answer Research Question 2 to explore the fluctuation of motivations over time.

4.2.5.2 Paired-Sample T-test Analysis

The paired-sample t-test compares the mean scores for the same group of people on two occasions (Pallant, 2020). It examines the same target group using the same scale at Time 1 and Time 2, and then analyses whether there is a statistically significant difference in the mean score for Time 1 and Time 2. In this study, the survey was conducted within the same group of learners at the beginning of the second term and the end of the third term in an academic year. A paired-sample t-test was used in this study to identify the differences between the motivation strength at the middle and the end of the one-year learning process in order to explore the dynamic nature of motivation. The findings answered Research Question 2 - (a): “How do levels of motivation for learning Chinese change over time?”

4.2.6 Quantitative Data Analysis for the Classroom Observation

4.2.6.1 Data from the Classroom Observation Scheme

The design of the classroom observation scheme and post-lesson questionnaire was intended to find out how teachers’ motivational strategies affected the students’ classroom motivation in terms of their level of attention, participation, and volunteering, as well as the relationship between the students’ self-reported motivation, their actual classroom behaviour, and the teacher’s classroom practices, in a longitudinal basis. A correlational analysis was

conducted to achieve these research objectives. The correlations between the measures related to the teacher and the students were computed to establish links between the teacher's motivational practice and the students' motivational behaviour, which will be explained in Section 4.2.6.3.

When processing the observational data, the researcher added the tally marks that indicated the number of minutes during which a specific behaviour or activity occurred for each variable in the observation scheme. The 11 variables – “Social Chat”, “Sign Posting”, “Stating Communicative Purpose/Utility of Activity”, “Establishing Relevance”, “Promoting Integrative Values”, “Promoting Instrumental Values”, “Arouse Curiosity or Attention”, “Scaffolding”, “Promoting Cooperation”, “Promoting Autonomy”, and “Referential Questions” – were classified into the category of “Teacher Discourse” and the average length (minutes) of “Teacher Discourse” was calculated. The other seven variables – “Tangible Reward”, “Personalisation”, “Creative/Interesting/Fantasy”, “Intellectual Challenge”, “Tangible Task Product”, “Individual Competition”, “Team Competition” – were classified into the category of “Teacher Activity Design” and the average length (minutes) of “Teacher Activity Design” was calculated. Finally, “Teacher Discourse” and “Teacher Activity Design” were combined as “Teacher Motivational Behaviour”. The internal consistency for this composite scale was checked. In the six lessons for Chinese Level One and the seven lessons for Chinese Level Two, the coefficients of Cronbach's Alpha were both above .7 ($\alpha = .734$ for Level One Class; $\alpha = .819$ for Level Two Class), which indicates good reliability for the scale of ‘Teacher Motivational Behaviour’ in the two classes.

4.2.6.2 Data from the Post-lesson Questionnaire

The post-lesson questionnaire contained five Likert-scale items and two open questions. The average score for items – enjoyment, support, confidence, desire to review and motivation – was named “Average for Student Positivity” and was calculated for all learners

in each class. The coefficients of Cronbach's Alpha were above .7 ($\alpha = .726$ for Level Two Class; $\alpha = .854$ for Level Two Class), indicating good reliability for the "Average for Student Positivity" scale in the two classes. Levels of "Average for Student Positivity" and each sub-
aspect were plotted in two-line charts for the two classes to show the trend throughout the term. The answers to the open questions were also noted for analysis and further exploration in the interview.

4.2.6.3 Correlation Analysis

This classroom observation in the current study aimed to analyse the factors related to learners' motivated behaviour that leads to learning outcomes. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) addressed two factors that were theoretically expected to have a bearing on the students' motivated classroom behaviour – (a) the self-report index of their course-related motivation measured by a questionnaire and (b) the teacher's motivational influence measured by a composite teacher instructional behaviour factor. Inspired by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's research design, two factors in the current study were taken into considerations: (a) "Average for Student Positivity" measured by the student post-lesson questionnaire, and (b) "Teacher Motivational Behaviour" measured by the observation scheme. A strong association between teacher behaviour and student positivity was expected. Thus, a correlation analysis was conducted to confirm this prediction.

It is known that correlation does not indicate causation, "only experimental studies can produce unambiguous causation" (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 70); therefore, it cannot be claimed that teachers' motivational practices increase learners' motivation. Therefore, even though it is important to determine whether teacher behaviour influences student motivation, the researcher could not name the 'Student Positivity' as the dependent variable and the 'Teacher Motivational Behaviour' as the independent variable and carry out further statistical analysis. However, a significant positive correlation that emerged in the

investigation can indicate that “language teachers can make a real difference in their students’ motivational disposition by applying various motivational techniques and strategies” (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 71-72).

4.3 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data collected for this study include: (1) the pilot interview; (2) the interview followed by the classroom observation; (3) the interview followed by the national survey; (4) the interview with teachers and (5) the interview with additional learners. All of the above interviews were analysed using the following procedures.

4.3.1. Preparing Data

Interviews were fully audio-recorded and transcribed, and the transcripts were checked against the recording for accuracy. The transcripts were then sent to interviewees for possible correction and amendment, of which there was little. Finally, the transcriptions were read thoroughly to familiarise the researcher with the entire text and identify a coherent and distinct theme (Miyahara, 2015). This enhances the validity and ensures the findings accurately reflect the original data.

Using Computer-Assisted (or aided) Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) has many advantages for classifying information, examining relationships, and combining analysis with searching and modelling the data. In addition, NVivo, as one of the CAQDAS, enables researchers to identify trends and cross-check the information in multiple ways using its search engine, query and memo functions to build up reams of evidence to support research findings (Gibson & Brown, 2009). Therefore, NVivo was chosen for analysing the interview data in this study. After the initial transcribing process, all the transcriptions were uploaded in NVivo 12.

4.3.2. Deciding Between a Deductive or Inductive Approach

A deductive approach involves reading the relevant literature and seeking to answer a research question arising from that literature; in contrast, an inductive approach involves collecting and analysing data and then looking to see how well the findings fit with the existing literature on the topics covered” (Harding, 2018, p. 24). In terms of collecting data, deductive research starts by setting a research question based on the existing literature; inductive research starts with data collection and analysis and only builds general truths by considering the relationship between the findings and existing knowledge at a later point. In terms of coding data, a deductive approach is a top-down approach where the researcher brings a number of topics, concepts and ideas to code and interpret the data, whereas an inductive approach is a bottom-up approach driven by what is in the data. However, in reality, it is often used as a combination of both approaches in coding and analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

In the qualitative analysis in the current study, especially in interviews with learners, a mixed research process with inductive and deductive aspects was used in the following steps. Before the qualitative data were collected, interview protocols were drafted (see Appendix B). After the initial qualitative data were collected, transcribed and read through carefully, thematic analysis (see Section 4.3.3) was chosen to search for themes in the responses. The initial analysis started with summaries of interviews and the constant comparative method, then a simple initial finding of similarities and differences in the data, and then searching for more complex conceptual initial findings. Once the initial data analysis was complete, key findings from the research were identified with a comprehensive view, and validity to ensure they accurately reflected the data was checked, which will be explained in Section 4.4 in this chapter. After that, to what extent these findings could be considered to represent a body of

theory was considered. The literature on this topic was then analysed to determine the existing theory best fits the findings. In the end, the research findings were produced.

4.3.3. Conducting Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis occupies an important position in qualitative research. Thematic analysis is a systematic and flexible method for identifying, classifying, and offering insight into patterns of meaning (themes) linked to broader theoretical or conceptual issues within a dataset (Braun & Clarke, 2012). It can be seen as “a method that works both to reflect reality and to unpick or unravel the surface of reality” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.81). Gibson and Brown (2009, p.128-129) suggest there are three sets of aims for thematic analysis:

- (1) Examining commonalities – assembling all the material across a dataset with something in common.
- (2) Examining differences – identifying differences across the dataset and examining their relevance to the issues and themes being considered.
- (3) Examining relationships – examining how different parts of the analysis fit together and contribute to understanding different issues and themes.

While conducting thematic analysis, the author bore in mind the need to have “a clear understanding of where the researcher stands in relation to these possible options, a rationale for making the choices they do, and the consistent application of those choices throughout the analysis” (Braun & Clarke, 2012, p. 59). Procedures for conducting thematic analysis were followed using Braun and Clarke’s (2006, 2012) guide below.

4.3.3.1. Phase 1: Familiarising with Data

The author immersed herself in the data to become familiar with the depth and breadth of the content by repeated reading, searching for patterns and taking notes to lay a bedrock for the rest of the analysis. The author also generated an initial list of ideas about what was in the data and what was interesting about them.

4.3.3.2. Phase 2: Generating Initial Codes

This phase produced initial codes from the data. The aim of coding is to highlight specific features of certain data extracts and label them to be identified and retrieved easily (Dönyei, 2007). Codes identify and provide a label for a data feature potentially relevant to the research question. The coding process involved organising the data into relevant and meaningful groups (Tuckett, 2005), and it was a thorough, inclusive and comprehensive process. After all the data were initially coded and collated, a long list of the different codes across the dataset was identified.

4.3.3.3. Phase 3: Searching for Themes

A theme captures something important concerning the research question and represents some patterned response or meaning within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). This phase analysed the data at the broader level of themes by considering how codes may be combined and form a series of overarching themes. It involved organising the various codes into potential themes and sorting all the relevant coded data extracts. These themes were where the interpretative analysis of the data appears and in respect of which findings of the phenomenon. Several salient content categories emerged through multiple revisits to the data, and various data segments were linked to broader topics (Dönyei, 2007).

4.3.3.4. Phase 4: Reviewing Themes

This phase includes two levels of revision and refinement of the themes. All the collated data extracts for each theme at the first level were read through and considered for a coherent pattern. Some relocating, creating and discarding the data extracts were made to form a coherent pattern. At the second level, the validity of individual themes in the dataset was considered. The purpose of rereading the dataset was to code the additional data within themes that had been missed earlier. Efforts were made to ensure themes were internally coherent, consistent, and distinctive.

4.3.3.5. Phase 5: Defining and Naming Themes

This phase further refined the themes by identifying each theme's story and considering how it fits the broader story that the overall data tells regarding the research questions. While refining the themes, whether or not a theme contains any sub-themes were identified. Sub-themes were considered for giving structures to a large and complex theme and demonstrating the hierarchy of meaning within the data. Finally, a detailed analysis was written for each individual theme in order to tell a well-organised and convincing story about the topics.

4.3.3.6. Phase 6: Producing the Report

When a set of fully accomplished themes was produced, this phase involved writing a final analysis and reporting the complicated and compelling stories from the data in a way that proves the value and validity of the analysis. The findings will be reported in Chapter Five, and the discussion of the findings will be reported in Chapter Eight.

4.4 Validity and Reliability

Quality criteria are the foremost issue in any disciplined research. It is also known as validity and reliability, credibility or trustworthiness. Reliability concerns the extent to which research instruments and procedures produce consistent data (Dörnyei, 2007). Validity is defined by Jupp (2006, p.311) as “the extent to which conclusions drawn from research provide an accurate description of what happened or a correct explanation of what happens and why”. In quantitative research, validity has two parallel concepts – research validity and measurement validity. The former refers to the soundness of the whole research process and the generalisability of the results beyond the sample. The latter indicates the meaningfulness and appropriateness of interpreting the research outcomes. Validity should be considered as the trustworthiness of the research in every aspect of methodology and methods (Harding, 2008). In qualitative research, validity is proposed to form four components that make

trustworthiness, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985) – credibility (the truth value), transferability (the applicability of the results to other contexts), dependability (consistency of the findings) and confirmability (the neutrality of the findings).

It has been suggested that quantitative research credibility depends on instrument construction (Rose et al., 2019). However, in qualitative research, in fact, “the researcher is the instrument” (Patton, 2001, p. 14), just as Brinkmann (2014) stated, “the person of the researcher as the research instrument is actually a virtue of interviewing and [...] due to its dialogically – may be the most valid research instrument to study qualitative, discursive, and conversational aspects of the social world” (p. 1008).

In quantitative research, reliability is often measured by the internal consistency coefficient of a scale. As shown in Section 4.2.3.3, Cronbach’s Alpha of $>.7$ suggests a reliable questionnaire instrument. Content validity of a quantitative instrument refers to the extent to which it examines the relevant domains of the concepts being investigated (Punch, 1998). The study ensured this by reviewing the relevant L2 motivation research literature.

Qualitative research produces findings arriving from real-world settings where the “phenomenon of interest unfolds naturally” (Patton, 2001, p.39) and seeks illumination, understanding and extrapolation to similar situations (Hoepfl, 1997). Thereby, when conducting qualitative research in this study, validity was checked throughout all the phases above to ensure the findings were consistent with the data by reading through the transcripts repeatedly and reviewing codes and themes generated and updated (Harding, 2008).

Reliability in the interview was improved by maintaining uniformity with the forms and order of questions to collect more consistent data from different interviewees. In the interview data analysis, the reliability was improved by the author’s reflexive and the inter-reliability check within qualitative research. Reflexivity was achieved by acknowledging both the researcher and social influences in the research, informing the researcher and the research (Rose et al.,

2019). The inter-reliability check was done by the intercoder reliability (ICR, see O'Connor & Joffe, 2020), which involved inviting a peer of the researcher to code 10% of the interview data; and results achieved a 95% agreement between two independent coders regarding how the same data should be coded.

In order to improve the credibility of the study and to check the consistency of the results obtained by different data collection methods, data triangulation was carried out in this study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The questionnaire was designed to understand Chinese learning motivation and experience, while the interview provided in-depth insights into learners' motivation and experience. As another research method, classroom observation collected classroom-based data to capture the learning behaviours and motivational strategies in a natural classroom environment. At least two data sources among all three sources (questionnaire, interview and classroom observation) were used with the same group of participants, so data triangulation was performed to achieve consistency of results. These rich data sources were intended to generate comprehensive, robust and well-developed findings and results.

4.5 Ethical Issues

The research instruments in the current study – questionnaires, interview protocols and classroom observation schedule with post-lesson questionnaires, together with the information sheets and consent forms for participants as well as the ethical approval form, were examined and approved by the Ethics Committee of the Institute of Education, the University of Reading (see Appendix D).

Before both the pilot and main studies, all participants, including students, teachers and the institutions involved, were given the information sheets and consent forms (see Appendix E), with explanations of the purpose and procedure of the study and advised that participation was voluntary and confidential.

The participants did not include children or vulnerable people, and the questions were not of a sensitive personal nature. All participants were assured of anonymity, told they could withdraw from the study at any time and that there would be no identifiers linked with them or their teachers. Additionally, all students who participated in the study were reassured that their participation or non-participation in the survey, interview and classroom observation would in no way affect any course grades or learning outcomes. Moreover, student responses were not shared with their teachers; information from teachers or students was not shared with the university or college.

Murphy (1992) suggests that the observer should ensure their role remains neutral and unobtrusive and remember their role is not to judge, assess, criticise or offer advice to the students or the teacher. Thus, the following observation etiquette was kept in the researcher's mind throughout the classroom data collection period. First, class observations were non-judgemental, and teachers were reassured about that aspect. Second, the researcher minimised disruption to regular routines, as students and the teacher became used to the researcher's presence throughout the term. Third, the researcher sat out of direct sight of the teacher and class. Fourth, the researcher did not intervene in lessons in any way. These guidelines on observation etiquette were crucial for maintaining smooth relations among the researcher, teacher, and learners. Finally, after scheduled observations had been completed, the researcher expressed her gratitude to the institution's teacher, students, and director for their cooperation. This was also for fostering good relationships between the institution and future researchers.

4.6 Limitations

It should be noted that an observer sitting in the classroom could be obtrusive and distract learners from the lesson even if the observer did not act distractingly. Learners' observed behaviours may not be their characteristic or typical learning behaviours. The

presence of the observer may cause learners to alter their behaviour subtly. This common phenomenon in education research is called the Hawthorne Effect; it refers to a type of reactivity in which individuals modify an aspect of their behaviour in response to their awareness of being observed (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

4.7 Summary

Questionnaires and interviews are two common research methods in L2 motivation studies. Quantitative psychometric measurement has an established tradition, and statistical analyses have often been used to study the relationships between motivation and other variables existing in L2 motivation research. Using interviews as a research method allowed the author to carry forward one of the supreme strengths of qualitative research: “the ability to ask questions that are meaningful to participants and to likewise receive responses in participants’ own words and native cognitive constructs” (Guest et al., 2011, p. 13). In the qualitative research, the participants’ perceptions, feelings, and lived experiences were paramount and were chosen to be the objects of this study. Open-ended questions and interviews with participants allowed them to talk about their Chinese learning motivations and experiences in their own words, which made up for the constraints of the fixed-response questionnaire in the quantitative part.

The current study not only assimilated the traditions of combining questionnaires and interviews but also involved longitudinal research, which was essential given the changing dynamic nature of learning motivation, to record motivation fluctuations throughout an entire term and depict a complete dynamic motivation perspective. Adding classroom observation data to the survey data was one of the innovative points in this study. However, challenges involved in conducting classroom-based research and collecting classroom observation data included obtaining informed consent from the institution director, the teacher and all students in the class, keeping an eye on everything that happened in class, and recording everything

without audio recording. However, it was worthwhile collecting longitudinal observation data, which allowed researchers and teachers to understand better the multitude of factors involved in instruction and learning in different contexts, thereby enhancing insights into how languages are learnt and taught (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Furthermore, with a large-scale survey and multiple interviews, various data from cross-sectional and longitudinal studies provided more cogent findings.

In summary, the current study used mixed methods, including surveys, learner and teacher interviews, and classroom observations, to explore the nature and dynamics of the motivation for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language and teachers' and learners' views on the useful ways of generating and maintaining motivation. By mixing quantitative and qualitative methods, the researcher captured more of the complexity of the issues (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). Encouragingly, the quantitative and qualitative findings were largely in harmony, which will be reported in Chapters Five through Seven. This indicates the trustworthiness of the data and the adequacy of the phenomena under investigation.

5.1 Introduction

The rationale for the data analysis methods and the procedures for analysing data have been elaborated in Chapter Four, and this chapter reports the findings of the first research questions about the nature of the motivations of adult learners in the UK to learn Chinese. As described in Chapter Four, the quantitative data from the questionnaire and the qualitative data from the interviews were analysed separately. However, in this chapter, the quantitative and qualitative data findings are merged to provide as complete an answer as possible to the research questions.

Table 5.1 provides a review of the structure of the first research question and corresponding data analysis methods. Two sub-questions are answered successively in the next two sections of this chapter, followed by a conclusion at the end, drawing them together. The second and third research questions will be answered in Chapter Six and Chapter Seven.

Table 5. 1
Data Analysis Used for the First Research Question

Research Question	Sub Questions	Data Analysis Used
Research Question 1: What is the nature of the motivations for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language?	RQ 1 - (a): What are the initial motivations for learning Chinese and their respective strengths?	Descriptive Analysis Thematic Analysis
	RQ 1 - (b): What are the structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese?	Exploratory Factor Analysis Correlation Analysis Multiple Regression

The first set of questions aims to understand the big picture of the nature of the motivations for learning Chinese by summarising the initial motivation types and structural characteristics of motivational factors and offering a conceptualisation of the motivation to learn Chinese. In sub-question (a), the results of quantitative data analysis of the

questionnaire data using descriptive statistics are reported first, followed by the results of qualitative data analysis from thematic analysis of the interviews. In sub-question (b), only quantitative results from the questionnaire are reported. At the end of this section, a concluding remark is given to summarise the answers to Research Question 1.

5.2 Findings for Research Question 1 - (a): What are the initial motivations for learning Chinese and their respective strengths?

The cornerstone of this research was understanding learners' initial motivations for learning Chinese and recognising their strengths. Proposing initial motivation types and rationalising them became the first step in reporting the research findings. First, the quantitative section presents the descriptive analysis results to propose four types of initial motivation and their strengths. Then, in the qualitative section, the main and subthemes drawn from the interviews are presented next. Finally, the two merged data sets were combined to provide a comprehensive motivation profile for learning Chinese.

5.2.1 Key Quantitative Findings (I): Four Initial Types of Motivation

Participants from the national survey were asked to rate 54 related items about motivation by giving the degree to which they agreed, from “not true at all” to “absolutely true”. Table 5.2 shows the eight questionnaire items with the highest mean scores. This indicates the overall relevance the respondents attached to each of these items. In the respondents' eyes, the two most relevant motivational elements of learning Chinese from the top three in the list related the appreciation of other cultures and an open-minded attitude. Another element from the top three was the teacher being respectful to students. Items concerning how learners see China and the Chinese language as important worldwide also received a high rating. The value of speaking Chinese was seen as important as well. In summary, two items showed that learners had a cosmopolitan view (items 2.3, 1.6); one item showed that learners felt they were respected by the teacher (item 2.1); three items were

about having a positive attitude towards China and Chinese (item 2.14, 1.7, 2.9) and two items were about having instrumental motivation (item 3.7, 2.13). Four initial types of motivation from the questionnaire could be summarised: (1) being cosmopolitan; (2) having a respectful teacher; (3) viewing China positively; (4) instrumentality.

Table 5. 2
Descriptive Statistics for Items with Highest Mean Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
2.3.I am interested in the values and customs of other cultures*	135	2	6	5.68	.64
1.6. I appreciate the values and customs of other cultures.	135	2	6	5.57	.73
2.1. My Chinese teacher respects us as learners.	135	3	6	5.57	.69
2.14. I think that China has an important role to play in the world.	135	1	6	5.44	.88
3.7. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak its language.	135	2	6	5.43	.93
1.7. I believe Chinese will be an internationally important language one day.	135	1	6	5.31	1.04
2.13. I think that being able to speak Chinese would help me to become a more knowledgeable person.	135	1	6	5.29	1.02
2.9. I think Chinese is a relevant language in the world today.	135	1	6	5.25	1.06

*: the original statement in the questionnaire was reverse worded

5.2.2 Key Quantitative Findings (II): The Strengths of Four Initial Types of Motivation

In order to compare the strength of four motivation types outlined in Section 5.2.1, the mean score for each type was calculated and ranked in Table 5.3. Being cosmopolitan was the strongest motivation type, reflected in the interview where the five most mentioned themes were related to learners being cosmopolitan. Having a respectful teacher was reflected

in the interview as the sixth most mentioned theme. Instrumentality and Viewing China positively were also reflected in the five most mentioned themes, shown in Section 5.2.3.

Table 5.3
Ranked Four Initial Types of Motivation

Four initial types of motivation	Items	Mean
Being cosmopolitan	2.3.I have an interest in the values and customs of other cultures.* 1.6. I appreciate the values and customs of other cultures.	5.63
Having a respectful teacher	2.1. My Chinese teacher respects us as learners.	5.57
Instrumentality	3.7. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak its language. 2.13. I think that being able to speak Chinese would help me to become a more knowledgeable person.	5.36
Viewing China positively	2.14. I think that China has an important role to play in the world. 1.7. I believe Chinese will be an internationally important language one day. 2.9. I think Chinese is a relevant language in the world today.	5.33

*: the original statement in the questionnaire was reverse worded

5.2.3 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Appreciation of the Value of Learning Languages and Cultures

Four initial types of motivation were summarised from the questionnaire survey as outlined above, and they were reflected in the interview with learners of Chinese. When answers to “Why did you start learning Chinese?” were coded into themes, the most frequent themes that emerged were “appreciating the value of other languages and cultures” (mentioned by n=13 respondents), “having an open mind for the world” (mentioned by n=12 respondents) and “being respectful of different countries” (mentioned by n=11 respondents). Eight respondents mentioned “being able to talk to different people”, and seven mentioned “being able to travel”. Participants who loved to be integrated into different cultures tended to

have an open mind for the world and a cosmopolitan view. They appreciated the value of learning languages and cultures, so they would like to be able to talk to people from different countries and travel around the world. In this case, knowing about the Chinese language and culture, which helped them talk to Chinese people and travel to China, appeared to be the biggest reason for the participants to start learning Chinese.

When participants realised that China was a very different country and its cultural differences needed to be appreciated, they tended to generate initial motivation for exploring the culture and learning the language. Violet's following quotation summarises views about "being respectful of different countries": *"I don't think it's the language that is the most important. It's the appreciation of the culture and the way things are done differently in a different country, and you just have to accept that's the case"*. Many participants started learning Chinese because they would love to be able to talk to people, as Jasmine said: *"because you're able to talk to different people, you would be more integrative and respectful of different countries"*. These views suggested that the reasons for learning Chinese might be composite and various, but most participants had the willingness and the desire to learn about the culture and the people behind the language.

One of the ways that people appreciate different cultures found in this study was to travel to different countries and experience how a different language is spoken. Two-thirds of the participants from the interview had been to China. For people who had travelled to China before and would like to go there again, their desires to communicate in Chinese were even stronger. Tim explained that his motivation for learning Chinese had grown since he came back from China, and his confidence level in spoken Chinese had motivated him to revisit China; as he put it: *"I would take my wife to see my friends in Shanghai, now I feel confident if I go to a hotel if I'm in a train station if I need to ask questions"*.

Experiencing an authentic Chinese culture would also motivate learners to speak the language. For example, Violet travelled to China to visit her son, who worked as an English-Chinese interpreter and a lecturer in translation study in Shanghai for many years. Her wish to speak Chinese on the trip to China was her motivation for learning Chinese, and she believed if she could speak Chinese, she would be able to experience more authentic Chinese culture when she was there, as she said: *“I was only able to say Nihao for a long time and then the conversation stopped there. Also, it would be nice to order food in Chinese because we don’t tend to go to tourist restaurants; we tend to go to local cafes with no English menus”*.

Eight interviewees who were native English speakers mentioned the appreciation of the value of learning foreign languages in a world where English is the lingua franca. However, they pointed out that speaking English should not be an excuse for not learning other languages because being monolingual can put people in the danger of *“getting missed out”* as Violet said: *“you shouldn’t just assume that because English is spoken in so many places so other people will speak English”*. It was suggested that British learners of Chinese generally had a cosmopolitan view and were aware of the importance of languages other than English.

Three participants stated another value of learning different languages and cultures – the cognitive benefit, as Florence said: *“learning a new language can help with brain function when you are older and can stop dementia in some people, so why wouldn’t you want to learn a little bit more, keep yourself healthy, keep your minds working well”*. Indeed, this was what Violet did: *“I think it’s been good for my brain since I have retired, it is the first thing since I stopped working actually using my brain. So that’s been useful, definitely a good thing to have”*.

The value of learning another language can be divided into integrative value and instrumental value. Learners who hold integrative value have “a favourable attitude toward the target language community, possibly a wish to integrate and adapt to a new target culture through the use of the language” (Gardner, 1985, p. 54). On the other hand, learners who hold instrumental value are learning another language for perceived utility (Gardner et al., 1983), and they learn with the purpose of pragmatic gains instead of social implication with the target language community (Gardner, 2010). However, integrative and instrumental motivation is sometimes hard to tell apart; for example, a learner who wants to order food in a Chinese restaurant could be seen as both.

The instrumental motivation was identified in the questionnaire results, and it was also highlighted in the interview. One-third of the participants stated a practical or pragmatic reason for Chinese language learning: to develop a language skill for a future career. In this study, the interviewees mentioned instrumental motivations for language learning included enhancing competitiveness in career opportunities and having more opportunities to work in other countries. Only one participant mentioned one of the classic instrumental motivations – passing exams – as Tim said: “*I would like to do some qualifications in Chinese next year, like passing HSK (Chinese Proficiency Test)*”. Participants from universities did not mention passing university exams or getting good grades, but they used the word “*useful*” as a skill they were acquiring at university. For example, Ruby was a student of film study, and she believed speaking Chinese would help her be able to go and make films in China. Samantha studied international business and human resource management and believed that speaking Chinese would be very useful for her future career.

Other than being useful for a future career, the instrumentality of learning Chinese was perceived in another way – knowing Chinese was also helpful for learning other Asian languages – as they share the same origin within the Sinosphere; as Florence explained:

“Chinese characters come in handy with both Korean or Japanese languages, especially for learning kanji and hanja”.

These views on appreciating the value of learning languages and cultures suggested that many learners of Chinese in the UK were cosmopolitans who wished to embrace different cultures. They respected cultural differences and were willing to travel; they had an open mind to talk to different people and valued both the integrative and instrumental importance of learning foreign languages. All the benefits of learning languages and cultures became part of their initial motivation for starting the Chinese language learning journey.

Learners in the UK generally had a mixture of both instrumental and integrative motivation for learning Chinese. Their position on a continuum between instrumentality and integrativeness seemed to vary according to different stages of life or different learning needs. In addition, learners of Chinese in the same class often had different attitudes towards the amount of effort they needed to make, and they often had different learning styles. Some would work hard on reading and writing skills, whereas some would appreciate the importance of improving listening and speaking. This variety showed the complexity and individualisation of the profiles of L2 motivation.

5.2.4 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Having Chinese Contacts

Participants from the interview that took place after the national survey fell into two age groups – half of them were university students, and the other half were from the general public. Among university students, Chinese courses as elective modules were taken by students across various main degrees, from science, medicine, and engineering to business, history, languages and linguistics. Among the general public, learners’ ages and social backgrounds vary widely. Both groups shared a characteristic– having Chinese contacts. These contacts could be classified into three main categories – having a business partnership with Chinese organisations; having Chinese housemates or neighbours; and having Chinese

family or relatives. The majority of people who signed up for Chinese courses had at least one source of Chinese contacts; some even had multiple Chinese contacts.

One-fifth of participants from the interview had different types of business contacts with Chinese, either educational institutions or business organisations. With growing numbers of international partnership programmes set up between UK and China educational institutions, more and more people from the UK started working in China as English teachers but became learners of Chinese sooner or later. For example, Anita went to China as an examiner for an English language certificate there. That trip ignited her initial motivation for learning Chinese, as she said: *“last year, 2019, I went to do some examining in China on my first visit, and I wanted just to learn a little bit of Chinese if I could learn any phrases or words”*.

Other than participants from higher education institutions, participants from business and international trade also mentioned their Chinese contact. For example, Tim worked as a buying manager in China, and he started his Chinese learning journey while visiting factories in China. He believed speaking the local language was the core of making emotional connections with local people and showing respect for language and culture was the key to intercultural communication in the business environment; as he said: *“I started learning Chinese because of my business connections because my work took me all over China; I visited many factories in many regions of China. It was good to be able to speak some Chinese to “laoban” (boss). It was more polite to do introductions in Chinese”*.

Compared to the general public group, university learner participants are unlikely to be in business contact with China, but they are likely associated with Chinese in their main courses or their personal lives at universities. Five university students mentioned that they started learning Chinese because it would benefit their main degree subject studies, especially arts and humanities and social science students. Learning Chinese history at universities was

mentioned twice. The Chinese language course was also popular with university students who studied languages and linguistics. For example, Florence studied Korean as her main degree and chose Chinese as an elective module because *“I wanted to try to see what the links were between them. I am very interested in how language works and linguistics and how people want to learn”*. Two students from business school mentioned the benefit of learning Chinese to understanding the Chinese market. One student from environmental science had an exchange study in China. These cases indicated that another initial motivation for learning Chinese for university students lay in the benefit of their main degree studies.

Apart from the more instrumental Chinese contacts above, a more integrative Chinese contact has been seen in participants. Having personal relationships with Chinese people was mentioned by eight participants. Three participants were Chinese heritage learners. For example, Jasmine said her mother was Cantonese but has not used it for a very long time as she was brought up in the UK and did not speak Mandarin or read Chinese characters. In that case, Jasmine was not able to learn Chinese from her mother, and she signed up for the course because: *“I started learning it because I want to try and talk to my family. For learning Mandarin, it has a meaning, it’s family, it’s close to my heart”*. Chung was another example: her family came to England in the 1950s and came to England in 1962 when she was seven years old, but she has only gone through the British education system because: *“At the time I was growing up in the Chinese community in Manchester, they did not have a Chinese school”*. However, since she retired, she said, *“I decided that I wanted to try and learn to read and write Chinese. Mandarin course was one of the courses available at university; even that was difficult for me to get into the city because I live about 20 miles away from this”*, Chuang said.

Three participants mentioned they had classmates whose girlfriends or boyfriends were Chinese, so they had the motivation to impress them or communicate with their

families. Two participants themselves had a Chinese boyfriend or girlfriend, and one of them visited her boyfriend's hometown in China; both were keen on making progress, especially in listening and speaking skills. According to these participants, having Chinese family and personal relationships would give the learning more meaning and make the learning outcome more rewarding.

Having children who chose to live in China would motivate parents to learn Chinese as well, in terms of both speaking the language while visiting and understanding the new cultural paradigm in the family. For example, Violet had a son who moved to China, and she had visited him three times. She started learning Chinese when she returned from the third trip as she said: *“my son lived in Lijiang in Yunnan and married a Chinese girl. I retired a while ago and got more time, and I decided it would be rather nice to try and learn Chinese so I can speak Chinese to my daughter-in-law”*.

Taking another example, Cynthia also had a son living in China for many years. Learning Chinese became an immediate need for her since she started visiting her son in China so she could communicate with Chinese people who did not speak English. The vulnerable feeling of being lost all the time from not speaking the Chinese language she had when she was in China motivated her to start learning Chinese, as she said, *“...and my third motivation was my son lives in China and his partner, his wife is Chinese, and I've been to China a few times now, and I've noticed how lost and vulnerable you can feel when you have no language at all”*. Having connections with Chinese people, especially in a close family relationship, seemed to be one of the popular reasons for learning Chinese. For those learners, being able to communicate with Chinese people was, on the one hand, integrating into the Chinese culture was, on the other hand, in terms of their motivation for learning Chinese.

Having Chinese friends was another reason within personal relationships that motivated people to learn the Chinese language. It could also be seen from the interviews that

more and more Chinese students were studying in the UK, and they could be housemates or neighbours of English students. Some British students were willing to make friends with these Chinese students, as Florence said: *“My roommate was from Beijing, and I wanted to be able to talk to him a little bit more because he was really nervous about speaking English”*. The experience of making friends with native Chinese speakers could be a reason for learning Chinese, and these friends may become their language exchange partners involved in their Chinese learning journey. Taking an example of a university student who had a Chinese housemate, Florence built up a friendship with a shy Chinese student by discussing Chinese cooking and history alongside their language practice as she said:

I lived with a Chinese roommate, and he would cook with me and tell me about all his mom’s recipes and tell me specifically about things that he loved about China, which I think was really good because I took a Chinese history class, but that’s very objective. Whereas as I got his personal opinion and I got to speak to some of his family over the phone, and they were really lovely, and they invited me to come, to go back with him.

To sum up from those personal experiences that the participants had, having Chinese contacts, either in a business partnership or interpersonal relationship, either from work or family and friends, was the second most common reason for people in the UK to learn the Chinese language.

5.2.5 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Having Positive Views of China

Further to appreciating the value of different cultures, participants from this study also appreciated specific aspects of Chinese culture. One interviewee realised that Chinese culture was a broad term, and it contained a variety of subcultures, as Violet said: *“It’s (China) such a big country, you know, you get lumped as China, but there is so much difference between the provinces, which a lot of people don’t realise that, especially the food is so different”*. Nearly a third of the interviewees mentioned that Chinese food was one of their initial cultural interests. Being able to recognise Chinese characters generated an initial

motivation for people who enjoyed Chinese food because it meant they could order in Chinese restaurants and buy Chinese groceries more easily; as Violet said: *“It would be useful to be able to read some of the characters. I can just pick up a jar or other food we like. When we buy our favourite Laoganma (a brand of chilli sources), we can just say, oh, it’s that one, I do know that character”*.

One-fifth of the participants mentioned Chinese films as one of their initial cultural interests. Participants like Florence had the opportunity to engage with Chinese culture from childhood and acquired a taste for Chinese cultural products as they grew up; as she said:

Since I was young, my family have been really into old Chinese martial arts films, and I have always heard them. I thought they were really interesting languages because they didn’t sound like anything I’d ever heard before. I like Wen Ye Martial Arts and House of Flying Daggers. For TV shows, I watch Idol Producer and Go fighting. I have always enjoyed watching Chinese TV and films and listening to Chinese music.

The participants did not mention any interest in modern Chinese films, but a new social media platform – TikTok – was mentioned by two participants, which indicated that Chinese pop culture might have started a new trend. Anita’s experience is an example:

People don’t realise there’s a lot of educational stuff on that; there is so much to learn. In a way, even though that [videos] is very short, it is quite good for language learning because it repeats, repeats, and you could watch it several times, and you get it. Also, it’s really interesting to see somebody in a remote village somewhere in China cooking a recipe. I showed that to my parents as well. It has also motivated me to learn more about the culture and the language.

Mathias also mentioned his experience of using TikTok, which was important for accelerating his Chinese learning and creating opportunities for his own business: *“since I started learning Chinese, my brain is trying to find different ways to accelerate my learning*

and get me immersed in the culture remotely, like downloading TikTok, that's what languages are supposed to do, like open up your world and create opportunities”.

Other participants mentioned they were attracted to Chinese culture with different opportunities. For example, people who had been doing business with Chinese people were more interested in the working environment; people who had been interested in Japanese animation and Korean pop music tended to be interested in Chinese pop culture; people who had been exposed to Taoism or Buddhism were interested in Chinese philosophy. Having various interests in different divisions of Chinese cultures – classic or modern; traditional or popular; working or entertainment Chinese culture – could all lead to the choice of learning the Chinese language.

Apart from having initial cultural interests, most participants had positive views of China. Taking Anita as an example, she travelled to China and had a positive experience there, increasing her interest in authentic Chinese culture and motivating her to learn the language. Through cultural immersion, Anita engaged with the language at a fundamental and practical level allowing her to see the culture from the perspective of a native person as she said:

Growing up in the UK, a lot of the stuff in the media is very negative about China, and you only hear the negative things. When I went to China, I was so surprised at how much I liked it; the culture is so interesting and vibrant. I've been a bit obsessed with China since I went to China. I've had lots of arguments with my friends; if anybody criticises China, I was like, you don't know China, you've got to go there and see by yourself.

Violet also had an exciting China travel experience, which allowed her to see how people in China live their ordinary lives differently, and she built an emotional connection with Chinese people. Similar to Anita, this cultural immersion inspired Violet's language learning desire and willingness to understand more about the language, as she said: *“it's just nice to meet ordinary, everyday people, rather than a tourist guide. When we go to Lijiang*

and stay at friends' houses, it's nice to see how people live. You learn more about the culture from those experiences than in language classes.

Participants like Anita and Viola represented a portion of learners of Chinese who had a positive cultural experience first, then started the formal language learning in class. Their positive views of China from the previous travel experience generated motivation for language learning and enabled them with more cultural awareness.

In short, by exploring the participants' personal reasons for signing up for Chinese courses, it was suggested that having initial cultural interests and having travel experience with cultural immersion could lead to positive views of China. These positive views further generated the motivation for learning the Chinese language. In return, the language learning experience may continue to develop their cultural interests and encourage their travels to China.

5.2.6 Key Qualitative Findings (IV): Having Interests and Previous Experience in Foreign Language Learning

The majority of learners from the interview have learnt more than three languages throughout their formal and informal education. They might not be fluent in all of them, but as the language learning experience built up, their linguistic confidence and growth mindsets were developed, which created a more comfortable mental environment for them to take a different Asian language, which can be seen as part their initial motivation for CFL.

All participants from this study had more than one previous foreign language learning experience and were generally interested in language learning. Three of them were from linguistic and language backgrounds, including French study, Italian study and East Asian study. For example, Violet said: *"I have always enjoyed languages, and I just find it interesting, how things are put together and how the grammar is different"*. This finding echoed the first finding that learners appreciated the values of learning languages and cultures. These values varied from learner to learner, but one of the shared values was that

the participants gained an intrinsic enjoyment from learning Chinese. Anita explained it thus: *“I’ve studied linguistics as well. I am good at looking for the patterns of languages and am quite interested in the different structures. I also want to know how people speak, not just using textbooks, but the colloquial language or funny things people say”*.

Most participants had learnt at least one modern foreign language at school, mainly French. Interviewees indicated that previous language learning experiences helped them be more confident in learning Chinese. Tim’s French learning experience was an example: *“when I learnt French, it taught me how to acquire a language better. I think once you have the experience of learning a language, then learning another language becomes easier”*.

Participants also compared different teaching styles from school to the Chinese learning experience at university language centres, which will be discussed in the next chapter. Previous language learning experiences increased participants’ metalinguistic awareness and metacognitive strategies, which benefited their Chinese learning.

In brief, participants with linguistic backgrounds believed they had certain advantages in learning Chinese. For example, they tended to be more confident, resilient and tolerant of mistakes. In addition, they could apply various learning strategies from previous language courses and improve their Chinese learning.

5.2.7 Key Qualitative Findings (V): Having Unique Life Experiences

Several participants had unique life experiences, which generated their unique motivations for learning Chinese. For example, Quentin had an international background and mixed cultural exposures when he was growing up. He wanted to speak more languages than his parents did; therefore, he chose the Chinese language as he thought it was a challenging language; he explained: *“my background is quite international. In my family, there’s a big tradition of language learning, both my parents speak five, but I am the first to speak Mandarin”*.

Caroline was an archaeologist from Guatemala, and she explained where her interest in the Chinese writing system came from: *“In Guatemala, you have the Maya area there, and the Mayans have their own language and their own writing, in hieroglyphs. So learning Chinese reminds me a little bit of when I had to learn how to do the Maya writing”*.

Kai is half Norwegian and half English, and she started learning Chinese after she acquired a high level of Japanese. Her uncle lived in Japan and Korea when she was young, which impacted her Asian cultural interests. She explained her opinions on European and Asian culture: *“I don’t feel like there are many cultures in Europe. I don’t want to be mean about it, but I feel it’s very different between Asia and Europe. I’d like to be an interpreter in Asia, so I’d like to try and learn as many Asian languages as I can”*.

Being a Chinese heritage learner in the UK is also a unique life experience. One of the Chinese heritage learners from the interview said she only started learning Chinese when she grew up because she was bullied by being Chinese at school, and her parents did not want them to learn Chinese then. But nowadays, she accepted her Chinese identity and was proud of being different because of the change in the ethos. This provided a snapshot of a popular choice of learning Chinese among adult Chinese heritage learners.

For the younger generation with cosmopolitan views and multi-cultural growing up backgrounds, learning many languages and being multilingual have been more and more common. Moreover, with the economic growth in Asia, many learners had Asian living or travelling experiences, which could be their drives and advantages to learn Chinese.

5.2.8 Key Qualitative Findings (VI): Having a Supportive Teacher and a Sympathetic Approach

Four participants started their learning Chinese journey by teaching themselves using online or mobile learning Apps. After a while – usually a couple of months – they realised it was not the best way, and they moved to an instructed learning environment. These participants preferred the class learning experience compared to their self-learning

experience. As Jasmine said: *“(Learning in class) ...you can ask questions to delve deeper into the meanings, and it helps you understand. And you have other learners in the same class with you, and you can learn from them”*. When they started learning with a teacher in a positive class environment, their motivation for learning Chinese was boosted, and they continued learning Chinese for at least one year. The majority of interviewees described their teachers positively, such as being enthusiastic, supportive, encouraging, helpful and patient. The following quotation from Violet summed up these views: *“she (the teacher) was very enthusiastic in class. She was very helpful, super supportive and always willing to help if I’m stuck. She is a lovely person. She was really good”*.

Most participants had a positive evaluation of their Chinese teachers’ approaches. Three of them described the approach as *“very sympathetic”*. Take Tim as an example: *“I have had other language teachers, but I find the Chinese approach very sympathetic. They understand that being Western and trying to learn Chinese characters at my age is quite challenging. So they’ve been very supportive and encouraging”*.

It was important for learners to know that their teachers understood their difficulties in learning Chinese, especially in characters and tones, and recognised the efforts they had put into. The differences between the Chinese and most Western language systems were well recognised by these teachers; as Tim said: *“I think they understand that it’s quite hard and it takes a long time”*. The interviewees suggested that teachers’ empathy could help them better understand students’ learning processes, enable them to use the best strategy, and emotionally connect with them.

Apart from having a sympathetic and empathetic teaching approach, participants also commented on the effectiveness of the teaching in terms of giving students prompt feedback and having structured learning materials available for students; as Violet said: *“she was very supportive; we emailed work to her, she’d always email it back for us to have time to read it.*

Again, very well-structured slides. She'd always leave the slides for you to look at afterwards so you could do your homework and review it".

More quotations about how participants described their supportive teachers, and their sympathetic and effective approaches are shown in Appendix H. Therefore, after learners developed an initial motivation for learning Chinese elsewhere by themselves, having a supportive teacher in a supportive classroom environment was vital for them to stay in the course and continue to learn. Furthermore, from the description of Chinese classes that the participants had, it was also suggested that building up a positive relationship with learners and adopting sympathetic approaches was also important for teachers to help motivate their students.

5.2.9 A Summary of Key Qualitative Findings

In summary, four initial types of motivation were found from the questionnaire survey: being cosmopolitan, having a respectful teacher viewing China positively and instrumentality. Being cosmopolitan was found to be the strongest, reflected in the five most mentioned themes related to learners being cosmopolitan. These five themes were (1) appreciation of the value of learning languages and cultures; (2) having Chinese contacts; (3) having positive views of China; (4) having interests and previous experience of foreign language learning; (5) having unique life experiences; and (6) having a supportive teacher and a sympathetic approach. These six themes demonstrated a complex and diverse picture of motivations for learning the Chinese language.

The other interesting finding from the interviews was that instrumental and integrative motivation to learn Chinese co-existed for many learners. The reasons for learning Chinese were usually composite. Most learners had more than one reason for learning Chinese, including speaking to important Chinese people in life, job opportunities, food, travel, culture, and connecting to a part of the world. In addition, many participants indicated that

they had both instrumental and integrative motivation. Interviewees were asked “what are your goals for learning Chinese?”; the most prominent theme from the coding was “being able to communicate”. More than two-thirds of interviewees mentioned communication purposes, and this purpose was often related to their China travel experience.

According to the participants’ learning goals, there were different levels of being able to communicate and integrate into Chinese culture. These different goals also brought different levels of learning needs and different learning efforts. For example, some learners set themselves a big goal of speaking authentic Chinese with a deep understanding of the culture behind the language, rather than being satisfied with a smattering of the knowledge. Instead, other participants set themselves an achievable goal, where they found that basic communication skills could make them comfortably talking with native Chinese people.

Some learners indicated that they never had the desire to read and write in Chinese characters, so they just wanted to learn a few words like pidgin Chinese because of the similarity to English that would make it easier for them to learn, especially for the older generation, which shows diverse learning needs in the UK. Therefore, they required the teaching focus to be basic conversational daily Chinese, so they could have a few conversations with Chinese people they know in their neighbourhood. For those learners, the biggest motivation for learning Chinese was about international connections, sharing appreciation, building relationships with people and enriching their lives.

Findings also suggested that, in general, participants in the study have positive attitudes towards the future of Chinese learning and teaching in the UK because there is a growing appetite for China nowadays. Participants in the study suggested that many young adults tend to choose a different part of the world to explore and experience something in a gap year because of the global power shift. The stunning landscape, rich and varied cultural history, and diverse regions and ethnicities were exciting for them to go and explore.

Participants also noticed the growth in popularity of learning Chinese from the school age since Chinese became an available option for GCSE and A-level exams. They believed that if it were a more regular available subject at school, then more people would at least try it out, even if they might not stick with it to a university level, but might pick up essential conversational Chinese, and they may find it easy to learn at a younger age and find it a useful to many sectors later in their lives.

5.2.10 Learner Profiles with Different Fluctuation Patterns

One of the important questions this study explored is, what kind of learners of Chinese can stay highly motivated, resilient and strategic, and able to overcome various challenges in the learning process? Is it those who get constant positive feedback, a sense of accomplishment, and a sense of reward? Is it those who always have the opportunity to use Chinese in their daily life? Is it those with long-term plans related to the Chinese that sustain their long-term learning? Drawing on the rich qualitative data, the following paragraph summarises some comments and insights that indicated who fluctuated least and who fluctuated most and suggests how to identify potentially a less fluctuated from a more fluctuated as a learner profile. These core factors could reveal potential “greater” vs “lesser” fluctuations in motivation.

First, learners with a lesser degree of fluctuation were very aware of their emotions, and they managed these emotions more effectively. Positive emotions countered the harmful effects of negative emotions and provided learners with more resilience throughout the long-term learning journey. Enjoyment in foreign language learning gave learners more buoyancy and confidence in tackling challenges. Second, learners with a lesser degree of fluctuation had more foreign language learning experience and had established the personal meaning of this learning for them. They were either already cosmopolitan or had been developing in this direction by learning another language to reinforce their plurilingual postures. Third, learners

with a lesser degree of fluctuation had more awareness and willingness to communicate with native speakers or integrate into the target culture. When they built up personal relationships by using the language, their language skills continued to improve, which would then improve their interpersonal skills and intercultural communication competence. The summary notes drawn from the above qualitative data may be used as a signal for teachers to spot some learners' tendency to be easy "fluctuators" or learners who fluctuate less.

5.3 Findings for Research Question 1 - (b): What are the structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese?

The second part of Research Question 1 proposes structural characteristics of motivation for learning Chinese by using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Then correlation and regression analysis would further explore the relationship among these factors.

5.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis with Maximum Likelihood Extraction

In order to delve into the features of the underlying structure of CFL motivation, all 54 items measuring CFL motivation were analysed with EFA. These items were subjected to the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method using SPSS 26.0. This study adopted the ML method instead of the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) method in Section 4.2.4.4 in Chapter Four. Before performing ML, the suitability of the data for EFA was checked by closely looking at the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Pallant, 2010). Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin value was .78, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974), and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Barlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Maximum likelihood analysis revealed the presence of 14 components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 23.1%, 7.9%, 6.4%, 4.9%, 3.9%, 3.5%, 3.0%, 2.9%,

2.8%, 2.5%, 2.4%, 2.1%, 2.1%, and 2.0% of variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the seventh component. Using Catell's (1966) scree test, it was decided to retain seven components for further investigation. This was further supported by the results of Parallel Analysis, which showed only seven components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (54 variables \times 135 respondents).

The seven-component solution explained a total of 52.73% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 23.08%, Component 2 contributing 7.90%, Component 3 contributing 6.40%, Component 4 contributing 4.87%, Component 5 contributing 3.94%, Component 6 contributing 3.51%, Component 7 contributing 3.04%. Oblimin rotation was performed to aid in the interpretation of these seven components. The rotated solution revealed the presence of a simple structure (Thurstone, 1947), with seven components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only seven components. Table 5.4 shows the pattern matrix, the structure matrix and the communalities for maximum likelihood analysis for the seven-factor solution of CFL motivation.

Table 5.4
Pattern Matrix Likelihood Analysis of Seven Solutions of CFL Motivation

Item	Patten coefficients						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.7	1.005						
2.9	0.637						
2.14	0.416						
1.1		0.946					
3.6		0.379					
1.3		0.305					
3.8			0.674				
3.15			0.648				
3.14			0.585				
2.1			0.536				
3.12				0.721			
1.15				0.665			

3.13	0.664	
2.10	0.585	
2.16	0.564	
1.8	0.45	
1.6		0.533
2.3		0.51
3.4		0.501
1.3		0.391
2.15		0.338
1.5		0.321
3.3		0.675
3.7		0.608
3.10		0.56
2.18		0.38
2.4		0.305
3.17		0.791
3.16		0.668

Table 5.5 shows these seven factors extracted from the questionnaire items on CFL motivation with their factor loadings. The first factor, named as “Perceived Value”, indicates learners’ perceptions of China and Chinese culture and the perceived benefits of learning the Chinese language. The second factor, “Attitude”, indicates learners’ determination, desire, anticipation and enthusiasm for learning Chinese. The third factor, “Teacher Support”, shows learners’ and teachers’ rapport, respect and trust. The fourth factor, “Confidence”, implies how difficult, nervous and uneasy learners felt about learning Chinese. The fifth factor, “Cultural Engagement”, indicates learners’ cosmopolitan views and engagement with Chinese culture. The sixth factor, “Intention”, shows the intended efforts that learners would make for future learning opportunities. Finally, the seventh factor, “Milieu”, denotes how learners view Chinese learning within the environment.

Table 5. 5
Factor Analysis for Maximum Likelihood Analysis of Seven Factors of CFL Motivation

Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
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Perceived Value		Attitude		Teaching Support		Confidence		Cultural Engagement		Intention		Milieu	
Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading	Item	Factor loading
1.7	1.005	1.1	.946	3.8	.674	3.12	.721	1.6	.533	3.3	.675	3.17	.791
2.9	.637	3.6	.379	3.15	.648	1.15	.665	2.3	.510	3.7	.608	3.16	.668
2.14	.416	1.3	.305	3.14	.585	3.13	.664	3.4	.501	3.10	.560		
				2.1	.536	2.10	.585	2.15	.338	2.18	.380		
						2.16	.564	1.5	.321	2.4	.305		
						1.8	.450						
Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue		Eigenvalue	
23.080		7.903		6.397		4.865		3.935		3.508		3.041	

5.3.2 A Proposed Seven-factor Structure for CFL

The above factor analysis provided an original structure of CFL motivation characteristics, and further adjustment was made to give a full picture of the questionnaire data. The rationale for this adjustment was that the number of items in each factor within this initial analysis varied from two to six across these seven factors, with only 28 out of 54 items in the questionnaire shown in seven factors. Factor 7 only had two items. Therefore, manual allocation of more items from the 54-item questionnaire was undertaken to propose a new structure for CFL motivation. For example, in Factor 1, besides retaining the original three factors (1.7; 2.9; 2.14), four extra items (2.15; 2.13; 1.9; 2.4) from the questionnaire related to Perceived Value were grouped into Factor 1. After combining with the original three items, these seven items were tested for internal consistency, and the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was .815, which indicates good reliability (Pallant, 2020). Pearson's Correlation was run within these items, and many statistically high positive correlations were found. The correlation and reliability analysis results showed that the new items could be added to the factor to generate a new scale. The same procedures were run for Factor 2 to Factor 7. Five factors had good Cronbach's Alpha coefficients above .7, and two factors had Cronbach's Alpha coefficients close to .7, indicating good reliability (Pallant, 2020). The details of each

factor are shown in Appendix I, including Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients and numbers of item. Table 5.6 presents the descriptive statistics of seven factors; Perceived Value has the highest means score (M=5.18) and Confidence has the lowest mean score (M=3.13); Cultural Engagement (M=5.15) and Attitude (M=5.04) are high as well, but Milieu (M=4,23) is low.

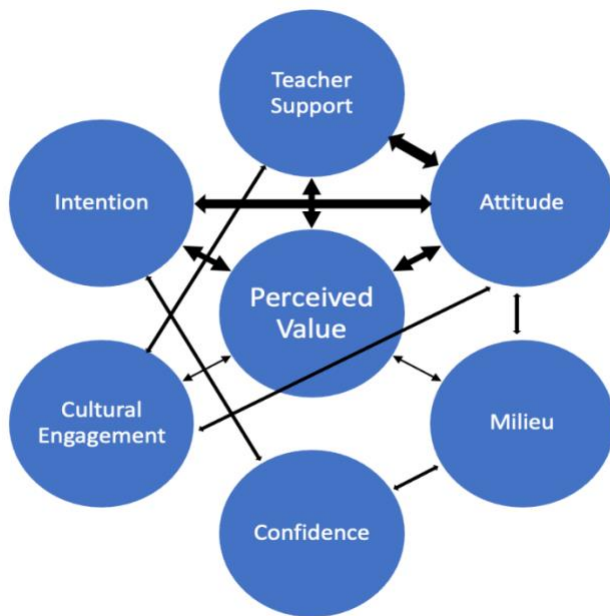
Table 5. 6
Descriptive Statistics of Seven-factor CFL Motivation

Variables	Cronbach’s Alpha	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Deviation
Perceived Value	.815	5.18	1.29	6.00	0.73
Cultural Engagement	.623	5.15	3.67	6.00	0.54
Attitude	.779	5.04	1.80	6.00	0.72
Confidence	.803	3.13	1.00	5.17	0.97
Intention	.718	4.71	2.57	6.00	0.74
Teacher Support	.885	4.74	2.33	6.00	0.73
Milieu	.620	4.23	1.00	6.00	1.11

From the findings from Research Question 1 - (b), seven factors emerged as CFL motivation characteristics via the statistical analysis techniques of EFA and ML (see Section 5.3.1). These were: “Perceived Value” (learners’ perceptions of China and Chinese culture as well as the perceived benefits of learning Chinese), “Attitude” (learners’ determination, desire, anticipation and enthusiasm for learning Chinese), “Teaching Support” (the rapport, respect and trust between learners and teachers), “Confidence” (how difficult, nervous and uneasy learners felt about learning Chinese), “Cultural Engagement” (learners’ cosmopolitan views and engagement with Chinese culture), “Intention” (the intended efforts that learners would make for future learning opportunities) and “Milieu” (how learners view Chinese learning within the environment). The model is shown in Figure 5.1. The strong and weak relationships are presented using thick and thin arrows, respectively.

Figure 5. 0.1

Seven-factor Model of CFL Motivation



5.3.3 Correlation Analysis for Seven-factor CFL Motivation

In the EFA, “Perceived Value” emerged as the first factor with the largest eigenvalue (see Table 5.5). According to DeVellis (2012) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2012), the eigenvalue exhibits how large an amount of information can be captured by a factor. In other words, the largest value denotes that the largest amount of variance in motivation can be explained by “Perceived Value”. Given this, “Perceived Value” is a relatively dominant component of CFL learners’ motivation, suggesting that higher “Perceived Value” levels in learning CFL contribute to stronger motivation.

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between motivational factors, especially “Perceived Value”, and other factors. As presented in Table 5.7, many significant, positive and strong relationships were found, such as between “Attitude”, “Cultural Engagement”, and “Intention”. Concerning the relationship between the “Perceived Value” factor and others, the strongest relationship was

with “Attitude” ($r = .647^{**}$). By contrast, “Confidence” had no significant relationship with “Perceived Value”.

Table 5.7
Correlations among Motivational Factors

	Perceived Value	Attitude	Teaching Support	Confidence	Cultural Engagement	Intention	Milieu
Perceived Value	1						
Attitude	.647**	1					
Teaching Support	.381**	.551**	1				
Confidence	-.159	-.001	-.013	1			
Cultural Engagement	.529**	.608**	.467**	-.041	1		
Intention	.486**	.628**	.317**	.172*	.481**	1	
Milieu	.268**	.071	.186*	.095	.153	-.048	1

** : Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* : Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.3.4 Regression Analysis for Seven-factor CFL Motivation

To investigate the influence of other motivational factors on “Perceived Value”, the first step was to examine whether there were significant correlations between “Perceived Value” and other motivational factors (Table 5.7).

In the second step, a multiple regression analysis was carried out to explore what predicts “Perceived Value”. “Perceived Value” was entered as the dependent variable, and the six other motivational variables were entered as independent variables. As shown in Table 5.8, “Attitude”, “Intention”, and “Milieu” proved to be significant positive predictors for “Perceived Value”, whereas “Confidence” proved to be a significant negative predictor for Perceived Value. “Confidence” here indicated learners with high confidence or low anxiety in learning CFL. Higher “Confidence” predicts lower “Perceived Value”, which is

surprising. The possible scenario is when learners attach much value to learning Chinese and take the learning seriously with higher expectations of themselves, their anxiety level rises, and their confidence level drops accordingly. Among the three significant positive factors, “Attitude” exhibited the stronger effect, while “Intention” had the smallest impact.

Table 5. 8
Multiple Regression for the Effect of Motivational Variables on Perceived Value

R ²	Adjusted R ²	F	Durbin-Watson	t	Beta	VIF
.542	.521	25.245***	1. 883	1. 4.727	1. .440***	1.
				2. -.516	2. -.038	2.
				3. -3.420	3. -.213***	
				4. 1.668	4. .132	
				5. 2.539	5. .207**	
				6. 4.061	6. .254***	

*: p < 0.05; **: p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001

Predictors: 1. Attitude, 2. Teaching Support, 3. Confidence, 4. Cultural Engagement, 5. Intention, 6. Milieu

5.4 Concluding Remarks on Research Question 1: What is the nature of the motivations for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language?

To understand the nature of the motivations for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language, the findings from different data analyses of three sub-questions – initial motivation types, structural characteristics and tripartite construct of motivation – were reported in Sections 5.2 and 5.3. Chapter Eight, the Discussion, will offer an interpretation of these findings and their significance. The following chapter will explore the dynamic nature of learners’ motivations.

For the first sub-question, four initial types of motivation and their strengths were reported based on a descriptive analysis, giving the following ranking from high to low: being cosmopolitan; having a respectful teacher; instrumentality; and viewing China positively. These quantitative findings were reflected in the qualitative findings, as the most important themes that emerged from the interviews were as follows: appreciation of the value of learning languages and cultures; having Chinese contacts; having positive views on China;

having an interest in and previous experience with foreign language learning; having unique life experiences; and having a supportive teacher with a sympathetic approach. By combining these two sources of findings, the profile of people who had instrumental, integrative, or mixed motivations for learning Chinese can be summarised as cosmopolitan individuals who have foreign language learning experiences and then developed an interest in Chinese culture and positive views on China from Chinese contacts or travel experiences, and potentially encountered a supportive teacher in their Chinese learning journey.

From the results provided for the second sub-question, seven characteristics of motivation for learning CFL or a seven-factor construction of CFL motivation, including “Perceived Value”, “Attitude”, “Teacher Support”, “Confidence”, “Cultural Engagement”, “Intention”, and “Milieu”, were structured through exploratory factor analysis. “Perceived Value” was the dominant component, suggesting that higher levels of “Perceived Value” contribute to stronger motivation for learning Chinese. This component was also strongly related to “Attitude”, “Cultural Engagement”, and “Intention”. In addition, “Perceived Value” could be positively predicted by “Intention” and “Milieu” and negatively predicted by “Confidence”. As reported in Section 5.3.5, this negative relationship was unexpected, but a possible explanation could relate to the pressure learners face from attaching too much value to the learning and worrying about whether they can learn well.

To be clear, as the national survey and post-class survey were separate sections of the data collection in this study, and their questionnaires were designed independently, therefore, the EFA data were not directly connected to the longitudinal data collection instrument design, and these seven factors that emerged from the EFA did not feed into the interview questions and classroom observation scheme or post-class survey questions, as explained in Section 3.4 in Chapter Three. However, the key factors identified in the quantitative data, especially in the EFA results, were found to be related to qualitative and longitudinal

findings. First, these seven factors were all flagged up in the qualitative data and presented in Section 5.2. An important overarching profile of learners of Chinese was synthesised from the quantitative and qualitative findings, which will be discussed in detail in Chapter Eight Section 8.3.1. Second, these seven factors overlapped with those dimensions in the post-class survey; several features showed a longitudinal pattern, such as teacher support, confidence, and class engagement/enjoyment, which will be reported in Chapter Six Section 6.2.2.2 in detail.

6.1 Introduction

The second set of research questions aims to understand the dynamics of adult learners' motivation to learn Chinese by describing the change in levels of motivation, identifying the factors that influence fluctuations in motivation, and analysing the cause of demotivation. This section reports the results of both the quantitative data analysis from the descriptive statistics, paired-sample t-tests, and correlation analysis, and the qualitative data analysis from the thematic analysis of interviews and open-ended questions in the questionnaire, as shown in Table 6.1. Three sub-questions are answered accordingly, with a concluding remark at the end.

Table 6. 1
Data Analysis Used for the Second Research Question

Research Question	Sub Questions	Data Analysis Used
Research Question 2: What are the dynamics of the motivations for adult learners in the UK learning the Chinese Language?	RQ 2 - (a): How do levels of motivation for learning Chinese change over time?	Descriptive Analysis Paired-sample t-test
	RQ 2 - (b): What are the factors influencing these fluctuations in the motivation for learning Chinese?	Descriptive Analysis Correlation Analysis Thematic Analysis
	RQ 2 - (c): What are the causes, if any, of demotivation for learning Chinese?	Thematic Analysis

6.2 Findings for Research Question 2 - (a): How do levels of motivation for learning Chinese change over time?

To identify how levels of motivation change over a period of time, the findings of two sets of longitudinal data – surveys at different points of time and classroom observations through a term – are reported in this section. Section 6.2.1 reports the data from two

questionnaire surveys, and Section 6.2.2 reports the data from six classroom observations for class one and seven classroom observations for class two.

6.2.1. Findings from the Two Local Surveys

This section identifies how the seven motivational factors identified in Chapter Five and overall motivation strength changed over time by analysing quantitative data from the survey with descriptive analysis and paired-sample t-tests.

Table 6.2 shows the descriptive statistics and paired-sample t-test results from the Time 1 and Time 2 local surveys from 21 participants who completed both surveys. The seven factors identified in Section 5.3 in Chapter Five were used in this analysis. By calculating the average mean scores across those seven factors, “Motivation Strength” was produced as an overall factor indicating the total strength of motivation for learning Chinese. Taking the median value as 3.5 (the value separating the higher half from the lower half of the data sample), both of the surveys showed moderately positive mean scores in “Perceived Value”, “Attitude”, “Teaching Support”, “Cultural Engagement”, “Intention” and “Milieu”. The only factor that showed negative (below the median value) mean scores at both times was “Confidence”.

Table 6. 2*Descriptive Statistics and Paired T-test of Time 1 and Time 2 Local Survey*

		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	t statistic and df	Mean 2 - Mean 1
Motivation Strength	Time 1	3.48	5.41	4.63	.45	t (20) = -1.323	.11
	Time 2	4.13	5.50	4.74	.41		
Perceived Value	Time 1	4.57	5.86	5.22	.47	t (20) = .364	-.03
	Time 2	3.71	6.00	5.19	.56		
Attitude	Time 1	3.80	6.00	5.09	.53	t (20) = .444	-.06
	Time 2	3.40	6.00	5.03	.67		
Teaching Support	Time 1	3.76	5.68	4.82	.54	t (20) = -2.961**	.43
	Time 2	4.30	5.91	5.26	.47		
Confidence	Time 1	1.33	5.00	3.24	.99	t (20) = .260	-.04
	Time 2	1.17	5.00	3.20	1.01		
Cultural Engagement	Time 1	3.83	5.83	5.13	.49	t (20) = -.549	.06
	Time 2	4.00	5.83	5.19	.54		
Intention	Time 1	3.71	5.86	4.59	.60	t (20) = -1.512	.19
	Time 2	3.43	5.856	4.78	.720		
Milieu	Time 1	1.00	6.00	4.33	1.37	t (20) = -.965	.19
	Time 2	1.33	6.00	4.52	1.10		

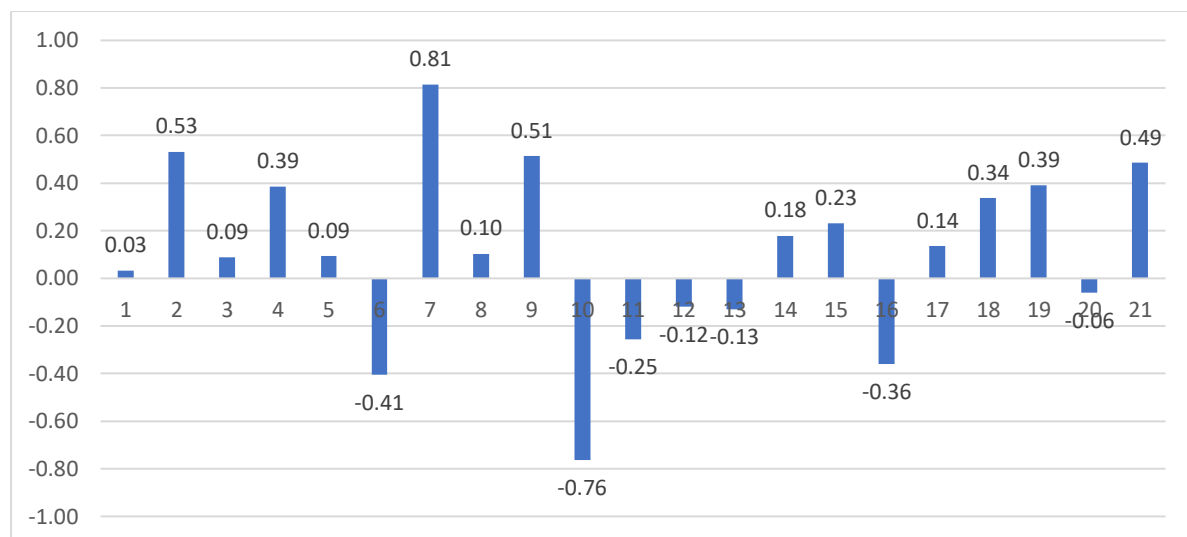
**: $p < .01$

Paired-sample t-tests were conducted to compare Time 1 and Time 2 responses, representing motivation at the mid-point and towards the end of students' first year of learning Chinese. Table 6.2 shows that the difference between the two times was significant for the "Teacher Support" factor. More specifically, there was a statistically significant increase in "Teacher Support" from Time 1 to Time 2. The mean change in the "Teacher Support" (Time 2 deduct Time 1) score was .43 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -.74 to -.13. Plonksy and Oswald (2014, p. 889) gave benchmarks for d values – considering a d value of .60 as generally small, 1.00 as a medium, and 1.40 as large. Cohen's d (.869) for "Teacher Support" indicated a small to medium effect size. By contrast, the mean score of "Motivation Strength", "Perceived Value", "Attitude", "Confidence", "Cultural Engagement", "Intention", and "Milieu" did not show a statistically significant increase or decrease from Time 1 to Time 2, which meant that learners had a fairly stable motivation

strength from the middle to the end of the learning process, apart from the perception of the teacher’s support.

Participants’ overall motivation for learning Chinese is represented through the variable “Motivation Strength”. Figure 6.1 shows the “Motivation Strength” change from Time 1 to Time 2. Among the 21 participants, seven respondents showed decreased “Motivation Strength”, and 14 respondents increased their “Motivation Strength”.

Figure 6. 1
Changes in Participants’ Motivation Strength (n = 21)



By looking into the details of how each factor changed over time among these 21 participants, Table 6.3 shows the increase or decrease for each factor among all these participants. More than half of the participants had an increased level, and less than half had a decreased level in all seven factors.

Table 6. 3
Numbers of Participants with Increase or Decrease for Each Factor

	Perceived Value	Attitude	Teacher Support	Confidence	Cultural Engagement	Intention	Milieu
Number of participants who had an increased level	14	13	17	12	16	15	13

Number of participants who had a decreased level	7	8	4	9	5	6	8
The overall trend for all participants from Time 1 to Time 2	decrease	decrease	increase	decrease	increase	increase	increase

6.2.2. Findings from the Classroom Observations

The data collected for classroom observation included observation schemes, learners’ post-lesson questionnaires, researcher’s field notes and post-lesson evaluations of the class with notes. The following two sections present the data of the observation schemes and post-lesson questionnaires. The field notes and evaluations notes were used as additional materials for the researcher to record the observation schemes, and they were not analysed directly or presented because of the limited space in this thesis.

6.2.2.1 Observation Scheme Data

The researcher observed two classes with one teacher throughout a term, but the two classes had a different number of lessons – Chinese Level One had six lessons, and Chinese Level Two had seven lessons. The quantitative data from classroom observations included the teacher’s motivational strategies use in class and the learners’ post-lesson questionnaires for each lesson, as outlined in Section 3.7.3 and 3.7.4 in Chapter Three.

In each lesson, the researcher recorded the number of one-minute instances in which the teacher used each motivational strategy during a 50-minute lesson, as shown in Table 6.4 and Table 6.5. Motivational strategies included what the teacher said to the class (termed as “Teacher Discourse” in Table 6.4) and selected activities (termed as “Teacher Activity Design” in Table 6.4), as explained in Section 3.7.3 in Chapter Three. For example, number “1” in the row of “Social chat” and in the column of L1 (Lesson 1) indicate that the teacher did social chat in that class for one minute.

Table 6. 4*Teacher Discourse and Teacher Activity Design Observed in Each Lesson in Class One*

		L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6
Teacher	Social chat	1	2	4	1	1	0
Discourse	Sign posting	0	0	2	0	1	2
	Stating communitive purpose / Utility of activity	0	3	2	1	2	0
	Establishing relevance	0	0	2	2	0	2
	Promoting integrative values	0	0	2	2	4	0
	Promoting instrumental values	4	0	3	5	0	2
	Arouse curiosity or attention	10	2	2	4	8	1
	Scaffolding	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Promoting co-operation	0	0	0	0	4	1
	Promoting autonomy	4	0	0	2	0	2
	Referential questions	9	2	3	6	8	2
	Total	28	9	20	22	28	12
Teacher	Tangible reward	0	0	0	0	0	0
Activity	Personalisation	9	2	2	8	8	6
Design	Creative/Interesting/Fantasy	7	6	2	4	8	0
	Intellectual challenge	4	0	2	0	0	0
	Tangible task product	2	0	4	3	4	2
	Individual competition	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Team competition	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	22	8	10	15	20	8

Table 6. 5*Teacher Discourse and Teacher Activity Design Observed in Each Lesson in Class Two*

		L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7
Teacher	Social chat	3	5	2	3	2	2	3
Discourse	Sign posting	0	2	0	2	0	2	1
	Stating communitive purpose / Utility of activity	3	2	1	2	1	1	1
	Establishing relevance	2	2	1	1	2	1	3
	Promoting integrative values	3	4	0	2	2	2	2
	Promoting instrumental values	2	2	1	0	1	1	1
	Arouse curiosity or attention	2	6	2	4	1	1	1
	Scaffolding	0	2	3	6	1	1	1
	Promoting co-operation	0	0	0	2	3	0	3

	Promoting autonomy	3	6	0	2	2	2	3
	Referential questions	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Total	19	31	10	25	15	11	20
Teacher	Tangible reward	0	3	0	3	3	0	2
Activity	Personalisation	6	7	2	7	5	0	4
Design	Creative/Interesting/Fantasy	7	6	3	3	4	2	3
	Intellectual challenge	4	5	2	0	4	3	2
	Tangible task product	2	3	5	4	3	0	5
	Individual competition	0	5	0	2	0	3	4
	Team competition	0	0	0	0	6	0	0
	Total	19	29	12	19	25	8	20

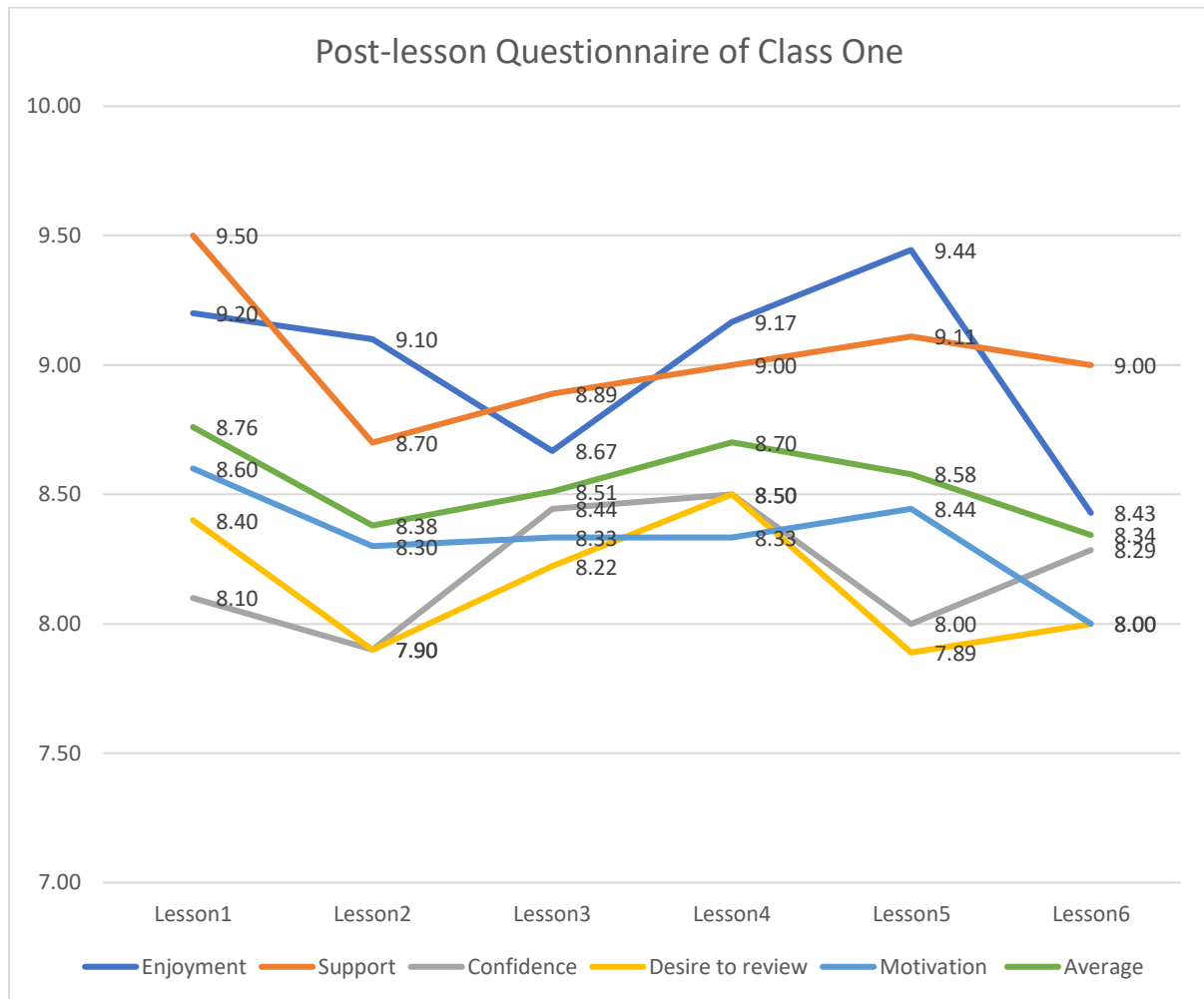
6.2.2.2 Post-Lesson Questionnaire Data

Learners' post-lesson questionnaires were analysed and reported as part of longitudinal classroom observation data. Learners completed a questionnaire after each lesson throughout the term, responding to items that asked about their motivation level, confidence level, enjoyment in the class, desire to review after the class, and support received in class (see Section 3.7.4 in Chapter Three). The mean score for these five dimensions was labelled as "Average for Student Positivity" (hereinafter referred to as "Average"). "Average", together with the five dimensions – "Motivation", "Confidence", "Enjoyment", "Desire to review" and "Support" – are presented in line charts, as shown in Figure 6.2 (Level One Class) and Figure 6.3 (Level Two Class).

6.2.2.2.1 Level One Class

In the Level One Class, "Desire to review" and "Confidence" emerged as the lowest among the five dimensions in the questionnaire across most lessons; "Enjoyment" and 'Support' were the highest throughout the observation period; "Motivation" was between these two points, but in Lesson 4 and Lesson 6, it was the lowest among the five dimensions. All five dimensions fluctuated over the term, and each had at least two bends in the line, indicating an increase or a decrease more than twice, as shown in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6. 2
Changes in Five Dimensions in Learners’ Post-lesson Questionnaire in Level One Class

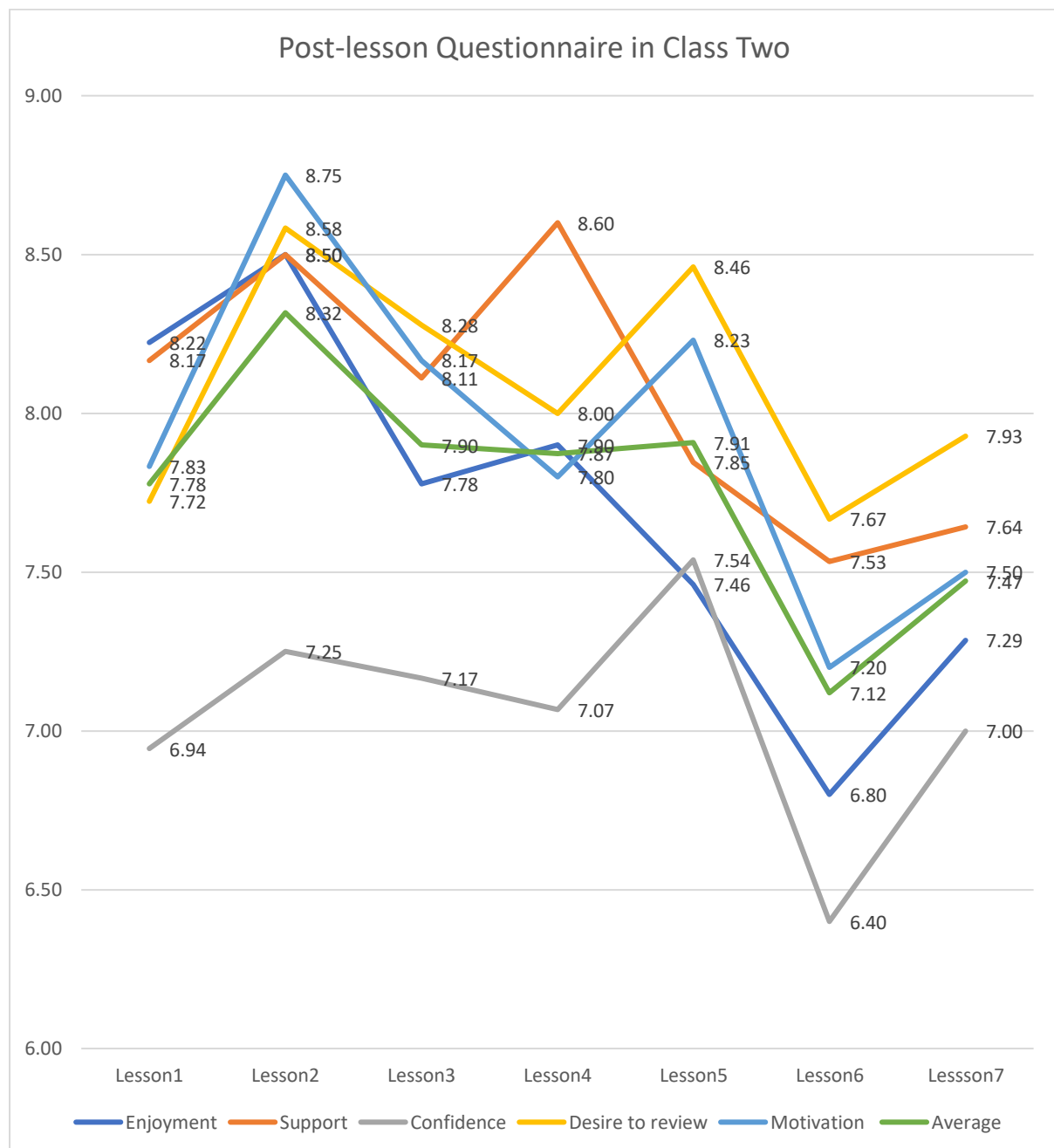


6.2.2.2.1 Level Two Class

Figure 6.3 shows that in the Level Two Class, “Confidence” appeared the lowest among the questionnaire’s five dimensions, but the “Desire to learn” appeared the highest. “Enjoyment” dropped rapidly over the term; “Support” appeared relatively high and stable; “Motivation” appeared in a big range of 7.2 to 8.75. However, in Lesson 2, it was the highest, but in Lesson 4, it was the second lowest among the five dimensions. The five dimensions in the questionnaire all had fluctuations over the term, and each had at least three bends in the line, indicating an increase or decrease more than three times. In other words, there was a greater degree of fluctuation than in the Level One Class.

Furthermore, absolute values for the dimensions were generally lower. For example, the highest value in Level One Class is 9.50, and in Level Two Class is 8.75; the lowest value in Level One Class is 7.89, and in Level Two Class is 6.40. In addition, confidence levels seem much lower in the Level Two Class than in the Level One Class.

Figure 6.3
Changes in Five Dimensions in Learner's Post-lesson Questionnaire in Level Two Class



In those two observed classes, there was quite a big difference, Class Two (Intermediate class) dropped or had a greater degree of fluctuation than Class One (Beginner class). The reasons for this could be explained from both the learner and teaching perspectives. The relationships between teaching activities and learner motivation also varied in these two classes, with stronger correlations in Class Two. This implies that learner fluctuations vary across proficiency levels and in different types of classes.

First, students with different proficiency levels had learned Chinese for different lengths. In the beginner class, students may still have been enjoying a kind of ‘honeymoon period’ of learning a fresh language with excitement; they may have had unrealistic or at least unadjusted expectations about their achievements. However, in the intermediate level class, students had been learning the language for over a year, and they may have already experienced some difficulties with the introduction of more complex grammar and characters. This may have had a negative impact on their self-efficacy, self-confidence, and ideal L2 self, as seen in the lowest rating on “confidence” from this group shown in Figure 6.3. In the meantime, teachers may also have had higher expectations of students at this level, all of which may have made some students feel hard and frustrated.

Second, when students have more learning experience, their expectations of teachers may increase; as they are no longer a novice in Chinese language learning, they may be more critical of the teaching they receive. Furthermore, it could be argued that students are more able to reflect openly on their learning as they develop experience and gain a broader perspective of their own educational journey.

Third, as students continue their involvement in learning Chinese for a longer period, they may begin to experience fatigue, and negative emotions involved in learning may begin to accumulate. At the same time, when teachers are teaching non-beginners, they may not try their best to motivate students to keep them interested in learning for longer periods; they

may assume students should work hard and rely on themselves more than beginners.

Therefore, students may receive less motivating teaching methods and experience fewer engaging classes, as suggested by the fluctuating rating on “enjoyment” from this group in Figure 6.3. In summary, this study analysed and discovered that higher-proficiency learners show greater fluctuation than lower-proficiency learners, as can be seen from Figure 6.2 and 6.3.

6.3 Findings for Research Question 2 - (b): What are the factors influencing these fluctuations in the motivation for learning Chinese?

Having observed the changes in the level of motivation in the last section, the second part of Research Question 2 focused on the reason behind these changes. This section aims to identify the factors related to the motivation fluctuation in learners’ learning experience by further analysing the quantitative classroom observation data in Section 6.3.1 and the qualitative interview data in Section 6.3.2. The observation data reflected teacher-related factors findings in the interview, where teachers positively or negatively impact learners’ motivation fluctuation. In addition, non-teacher-related factors are reported in Section 6.3.3.

6.3.1 Findings from the Classroom Observation

6.3.1.1 Key Quantitative Findings (I): The Relationship between Teacher’s Behaviour and Students’ Motivation

As described in Section 3.3 Chapter Three, having the quantitative data from classroom observation schedules and post-lesson questionnaires enabled the researcher to find out how teachers’ motivational strategies were related to the students’ classroom motivation as well as the relationship between the students’ self-reported motivation, their actual classroom behaviour and the teacher’s classroom practice in a longitudinal basis.

Correlation analysis was conducted to confirm the prediction that two factors – teachers’

motivational strategies use and students' motivation in class – were associated. Spearman correlation was conducted because the data was non-parametric (Pallant, 2020).

In the Level One class, five dimensions from the questionnaire did not significantly correlate with the total score of “Teacher Activity Design” or “Teacher Discourse”. In individual items, using the benchmarks of Plonsky and Oswald (2014), a significant but medium positive correlation (Spearman's rho = .311*) was found between “Creative/Interesting/Fantasy” and “Enjoyment”. Within six learner factors, “Motivation” significantly correlated with the other four factors: “Enjoyment” (Spearman's rho = .846**); “Desire to learn” (Spearman's rho = .693**); “Confidence” (Spearman's rho = .515**); and “Support” (Spearman's rho = .485**).

In the Level Two class, a significant but small positive correlation (Spearman's rho = .214*) was found between “Teacher Activity Design” and “Motivation”. By looking into the individual items in the teacher factors, a number of significantly low-medium positive correlations with learner factors were found: Social chat and Enjoyment (Spearman's rho = .245*); Stating communitive purpose/Utility of activity and Enjoyment (Spearman's rho = .286**); Arouse curiosity or attention and Enjoyment (Spearman's rho = .316**); Personalisation and Enjoyment (Spearman's rho = .288**); Creative/interesting/fantasy and Enjoyment (Spearman's rho = .303**); Personalisation and Support (Spearman's rho = .218*). Within teacher factors, “Teacher Activity Design” and “Teacher Discourse” were strongly correlated (Spearman's rho = .688**). Within six learner factors, “Motivation” significantly correlated with the other four factors: “Enjoyment” (Spearman's rho = .594**); “Desire to learn” (Spearman's rho = .692**); “Confidence” (Spearman's rho = .635**); and “Support” (Spearman's rho = .580**).

6.3.1.2 Key Quantitative Findings (II): The Similar Fluctuation Rates in Teacher's Behaviour and Student Number in Class

Another indicator of learners' motivation in class was the number of students attending each lesson from classroom observation data. That number can partially reflect the learners' learning experience in the previous lesson. The student attendance rate in optional modules in universities often varies from class to class – the range is from six to ten for Level One Class and 12 to 18 for Level Two Class. There was a similar fluctuation rate between the number of students and teacher behaviour. In Level One Class, when the teacher's motivational behaviour was low in Lesson 2, student numbers started to drop in Lesson 3; when student numbers dropped in Lesson 4, the teacher used more motivational activities in Lesson 5. For Level Two Class, more motivating teacher activity design and discourse used in Lesson 2 was associated with a rise in student number in class in Lesson 3; another rise in student number in Lesson 6 might be associated with more teacher activity design used in Lesson 5. Figures in Appendix J show the similar fluctuation rates.

6.3.2 Findings from the Interview with Learners from the Observed Classes

Thirteen learners from the two observed classes participated in the interview after the observations. Four participants from the classroom observation indicated in the interview that their motivation went up and down depending on how motivating and supportive the teacher was throughout the term. Those learners reported that they received more individual support at the beginning of the term and the end of the term. In terms of the motivating teaching practices their teachers applied in class, there was a U-shaped curve as well, which means there was more motivating teaching at the start and the end of the term, such as using creative and engaging tasks in an inspiring way and making the learning stimulating and enjoyable.

Learners' perceptions of the teaching and the classes polarised both positively and negatively. However, overall positive attitudes toward the teacher and the teaching approach (see Section 6.3.2.1) and negative impressions of the teacher and the teaching approach (see

Section 6.3.2.2) were both stated in the interview. Moreover, the interviewees indicated different intentions regarding continuing learning or dropping out of the course, which could be seen as measures of their motivation for learning Chinese in the future.

For example, Felicia gave one possible reason for those polarised attitudes. According to her, based on her observations of her classmates, students' learning needs and expectations differed; therefore, their attitudes toward the class and the teacher differed. A pattern found from these interviewees was that learners who gave a positive evaluation were mainly international students with foreign language learning experiences and had already developed their own learning strategies. They expected to do a lot of independent work, so the teaching style did not matter much to them, as six mentioned in the interview. More negative evaluations came from two British university staff who had pedagogical knowledge and were more critical of the teaching approaches. Other British learners gave more neutral evaluations.

6.3.2.1 Teacher's Positive Impact on Learners' Motivation

Participants who had a generally positive attitude to the teacher and the class described the teacher as “friendly”, “warm”, and “encouraging” and described the class as “interactive” and “engaging”; as Kate said: “*she does try to keep the energy levels and interest levels high by bringing in Asian foods, interesting culture things like the ribbon dancing*”. According to four participants, the Chinese class was refreshing compared to the classes of their main degree studies; as Kate said: “*I find it quite refreshing to come because it's completely different; it's a nice thing to have on the side*”. Jane also explained that Chinese class had a more relaxed and pleasant atmosphere, and students could see it as a break from other studies: “*it's very nice having this kind of atmosphere compared to a lot of my seminars which are quite serious. It was like a nice break from what they were learning in their modules as well*”.

When the participants were asked what the best part of the Chinese class was or what they enjoyed the most in class, participants mentioned videos, blogs, Nearpod, singing, stories and vocabulary test. For example, Jane enjoyed the weekly blog writing and posting because *“that’s more of personal help with what you’re writing, as she gave us feedback every Sunday. There’s a lot more imagination involved than I realise”*. James liked the interactivity with Nearpod because *“we have to write answers for the quizzes on Nearpod, and it’s like you’re not doing the same repetitive task. It’s interactive”*. Kate enjoyed the examples and stories the teacher said in class; as she said: *“she does try to incorporate with examples; try and explain in China why you say something like that, and she’ll tell us a story about that so that you can remember the story and try to remember the language”*.

As outlined above, learners who had positive attitudes toward the class were generally more engaged in the observed classes. In addition, their attendance rates, participation and performance in class were better than other learners, which indicated they were more motivated learners, or it could work the other way around – because they achieved more highly, they were more motivated. Indeed, their interactions with the teacher in class were more active than their classmates. The teacher possibly also gave these students more attention, support, and encouragement than those absent students.

6.3.2.2 Teacher’s Negative Impact on Learners’ Motivation

At the same time, other, more negative comments about the class were made in the interviews. Three categories were merged to understand the reasons behind learners’ negative perceptions of Chinese teaching: confusion in class organisation, lack of pedagogical knowledge, and inappropriate approach for students’ level. These comments included the teacher being *“disorganised”*, *“confusing”*, *“discouraging”*, and *“unsympathetic”*, which indicated how different learners could perceive a teacher’s behaviour differently.

6.3.2.2.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Confusion in Class Organisation

First, the confusion in the class organisation was mentioned by four students. Cynthia was an example who dropped out of the class after three weeks of learning because she *“did not enjoy the teaching style”*. She gave the reasons for that: *“it felt to be quite disorganised, not very structured; it’s all over the place, and we would start things and not finish them”*. This teaching style did not help Cynthia keep motivated in learning Chinese; as she said: *“I felt like things were going too fast and I wasn’t able to keep up, and I just felt insecure because I felt like I was missing important information”*. Cynthia also described herself as *“not a confident learner”*, so a suitable teaching style and a supportive teacher were very important to keep her motivated. Kate claimed that the class was unstructured and the learning goals unclear; as she said: *“sometimes we go off on a tangent, and I don’t know what the core messages were”*. Felicia echoed the view that the teacher was disorganised in lessons. This resulted in the learner losing trust in the teacher because the teacher *“did not know what level of understanding we had already, where our confidence was, what our needs were”*.

These teacher behaviours did not seem to create basic motivational conditions like good teacher-student relationships with mutual trust and a pleasant atmosphere where students felt secure and supported. Students were hence reluctant to ask questions in class; as Felicia said: *“I know in the past I have asked questions. She will go rabbiting on, and I won’t understand her answer so I’m better not to ask the question and just to rely on what I can get from the book”*. Another instance of reported teacher behaviour, commented on by Cynthia, was undermining good relationships in class, including a lack of connected feeling with the teacher and a sense that the teacher did not wish to teach the class: *“she did say quite a few times which put me off was that she wasn’t expecting to do this beginners class; it’d been given to her at the last minute. She hadn’t had time to prepare”*.

This confusion caused by the teacher being disorganised further caused a big dropout rate. According to Felicia, *“I think the dropout rate was massive; there are probably about ten people still studying, and there were over 30 originally”*. According to Cynthia, *“I think initially there were about 25 students. I think now there’s less than ten now”*. The fact that Cynthia had to drop the class caused her big disappointment, which hit her self-confidence and discouraged her future learning; as she stated: *“I’m not confident anyway. Now I feel like I’m never gonna get this, and that makes me feel really disappointed. I was so excited at the beginning when I made a folder and bought the dictionary and all of the textbooks”*.

Felicia thought the teacher was unsympathetic, especially when students asked questions in class. She claimed that the teacher’s manner of responding hurt learners’ self-esteem and decreased their self-confidence, so the learners’ positive social image was not maintained; as she said: *“somebody asked a question and she [the teacher] said well you hadn’t learnt your vocabulary. That’s not really fair. I have learnt the vocabulary but just learning it from a book still means you’ll have questions. So maybe people felt discouraged from asking a question”*.

6.3.2.2.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Lack of Pedagogical Knowledge

Second, the teacher’s insufficient pedagogical knowledge in class was mentioned by five interviewees as the key issue. Taking Felicia’s opinion as an example, she commented that: *“she [the teacher] didn’t demonstrate any teaching skills other than enthusiasm for the subject and personal charm; she is lovely. I would think she was delightful if I met her at a party. But as a teacher, absolutely disastrous”*. Cynthia claimed that the teacher neither had a clear course aim nor a structured lesson plan, which made students feel lost and not understood by the teacher; as she put it:

I don’t think she really thought about the needs of the students in that class at the beginning of each class. There was no real aim of teaching. She wouldn’t say in this class today we will

learn this. This builds on what you learnt last week. So there was no follow-on. And we all started to feel a little bit unhappy about it. And then the class would go off, and she told lots of stories, and then I would feel lost.

The teacher meant to make the learning stimulating and enjoyable by telling students interesting stories, but those stories were irrelevant to the learners; as Felicia described: *“she told a lot of anecdotes about her life. But it wasn’t particularly relevant to China, so she told stories about her life that didn’t particularly help me understand Chinese culture and certainly didn’t help me with the Chinese language”*.

Using inappropriate teaching materials could be seen as a lack of pedagogical knowledge that might fail to motivate learners to engage in class. Three participants described the teaching materials and slides as *“unhelpful”, “confusing”* and *“far too much depth”*. Moreover, the writings of words on the whiteboard in Chinese characters were not at the right level for students; as Felicia mentioned: *“she would write things in Chinese characters on the board, but she wouldn’t tell you what she’d written on the board. It was just random knowledge that she’s just written a load of scribbled on the board, but we’ve got no more idea”*.

A lack of explicit grammatical knowledge on the part of the teacher emerged during the interview, which made students confused and lose interest. Clement claimed the teacher was unclear and unable to explain the grammar term properly for learners to understand as she said: *“she [the teacher] tries to explain things, but I didn’t understand her at all, and I was completely lost”*.

6.3.2.2.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Inappropriate Approach to Students’ Level

Third, learners might get demotivated by what the teacher did in class when it was not appropriate for their proficiency level. Another issue mentioned by the participants in the observed classes was that the teacher did not explain things at the right level. The teacher did

not pick out what students understood, even though *“the teacher recognised that we didn’t understand, and she went in at a level that was far too complicated for us”*, according to Felicia, *“she (the teacher) explained things at a level that I wasn’t at it, and I don’t think the other students were either. I really don’t think she understood the level that people came with. Although she probably felt that she had explained”*.

According to two participants, it was very important for teachers to understand what students can currently do and then what they need to do to get them to the next stage, but the teacher did not use small steps and recognise how to unpick learning; as Felicia said: *“she did not use small steps, someone called it the zone of proximal development where you say this is what you could do. Recognise what people need to know to take the next step; that was the other thing she didn’t do”*.

The teacher could have used formative assessment to pick out what students had already understood and build up from there by doing the weekly vocabulary test. However, according to Felicia, there was no immediate feedback from the test, nor was it used to inform the teaching in the class; as she explained: *“although we would start a lesson with a vocabulary test, she then took that page off to mark later, then she would carry on the rest of the two-hour lesson, which didn’t inform her lesson at all about what we could do; there’s no point in doing that”*.

The teacher meant to create learner autonomy and present the task in a motivating way by asking students to write blogs. While Jane enjoyed this task, for Felicia, it was not a good idea because she felt it did not ensure real learning and was beyond her current level of proficiency; as she said: *“she encouraged us to write a blog, but again, writing a blog when you don’t know what you’re writing, there’s no point. I just could have copied and pasted something from the Internet. I wouldn’t have learnt anything from it”*.

However, not all students became demotivated to learn Chinese, even if they got discouraged in class due to the inappropriate teaching approach. Self-motivated students would persevere in their independent learning. Felicia was an example whose motivation did not drop, despite she did not enjoy the learning experience, because she saw herself as “*a determined student and not going to be beaten by this lack of adequate teaching*”. Felicia carried out her independent learning in this way: “*just abandoned the class, abandon all the slides, go back to the book*”. Because Felicia still had a great interest in Chinese characters and was desired to learn how the characters were formed, so she made a lot of effort to memorise them and look for patterns by herself outside the class.

In summary, the confusion caused by poor classroom organisation, lack of pedagogical knowledge, and inappropriate approaches to students’ level were three major class issues found in the interviews with observed learners. These negative perceptions of the teaching and the class demonstrated that the teacher could have an important impact on students’ motivation fluctuation, especially when learners had a negative perception of the teacher; it might be the possible reason they became demotivated and dropped the course.

6.3.3 Non-Teacher Related Findings from the National Interviews

6.3.3.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): The Anxiety about Learning Chinese Has an Impact on Learners’ Motivation

Eight participants mentioned that experiencing the challenges in learning Chinese in different learning stages caused them the anxiety or even the fear of learning Chinese, which then caused their motivation fluctuations. In other words, their motivation level dropped when they came across challenges, and they felt anxious or unconfident in learning; however, their motivation level rose back when their self-regulation strategies took effect, and their self-efficacy and confidence grew again.

Many learners of Chinese saw themselves, as Cynthia described herself, as “*a very shy person about speaking*”. Cynthia would try hard to practise the pronunciation of the

words, but when she could not get it right, then she felt self-conscious as she described: *“my teacher tried really patiently to teach me something and I said two three or four times and I still don’t get it right, in the end, I start feeling a bit self-conscious”*. This happened when some learners felt unconfident in their language proficiency, and it could escalate to negative feelings about language learning. Ruby also experienced the frustration of not getting the pronunciation right, as she described: *“we’d always get corrected on it in class, and if you felt bad that day and you’re like keep getting it wrong, it put a lot of people off”*. Similar to Ruby, Jasmine was not confident about speaking Chinese, as she said: *“I was too scared to find anybody to practise with. I think maybe one of the things I struggle with the most is speaking with confidence”*. Ruby and Jasmine represented several learners who lacked confidence in pronouncing Chinese words and communicating in Chinese. This lack of confidence might cause the lack of practice; then, the inadequate practice might further increase negative emotions like fear, anxiety, and frustration and even decrease learners’ motivation over time.

6.3.3.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): The Difficulties in Learning Chinese Has an Impact on Learners’ Motivation

Apart from the emotions like fear, anxiety and frustration were related to these challenges, as mentioned in the section above. The specific learning difficulties in the Chinese language itself were investigated, and the biggest challenges were shown in four aspects – characters, listening, pronunciation and grammar.

In general, Chinese, as a remote language from European languages that were more familiar to learners in the UK, posed obvious difficulties. Ruby’s view of the Chinese language represented other participants, as she said: *“Chinese is seen as, or it’s got this perception like a really hard language to learn. I think that puts a lot of people off”*. As Chinese is considered as a very different language, learners possibly need to spend much

more time in learning it than European languages require, as mentioned in Section 1.2.2 in Chapter One.

Difficulties in learning Chinese characters were mentioned the most because learners “*cannot relate to anything you’ve learnt before*”. Learners described Chinese character learning as “*the worst part*”, “*scary*”, “*challenging*”, “*frustrating*”, and “*slow*”, especially when they need to memorise how to write them down. Learning difficulties in characters appeared to be the most common challenge; as Jasmine explained: “*Particularly with the reading, because it’s so hard to grasp the characters I’m reading, and it can be a little demotivating sometimes, and you just feel you’re never going to get it*”. Learners tried different ways to make it easy, including making up a connection between the meaning and the symbol, finding the artistry, and repeating “*practising it hundreds of times*”. However, learners still experienced the moment they realised they forgot how to read them even though they saw them many times or how to write them even though they practised them many times. Florence described this moment as “*oh my God, I don’t know anything*”, and it was the biggest source of learners’ anxiety about learning Chinese.

Learning difficulties in grasping listening skills were mentioned the second most. This included remembering new sounds that do not exist in European languages, distinguishing sounds from different tongue’s positions, hearing words without visual clues and listening to a fast talk. Learners found Chinese hard “*because of more new sounds*”.

The third most mentioned learning difficulty was practising pronunciation skills and getting the tones right. Pronouncing unfamiliar consonants in Chinese was challenging for some learners and remembering the right tone for each word was even more challenging, according participants. Moreover, having the courage to speak up without feeling embarrassed was not easy for some shy learners. Finally, many learners did not have enough opportunities to practise speaking with native Chinese speakers; as Tim said: “*what I miss*

with Chinese is that everyday interaction. I need to try and find ways of speaking with Chinese people on a daily basis rather than a weekly basis”.

Difficulties in learning Chinese grammar were mentioned the least. Participants had a general impression of Chinese having a simple grammar system, but two of them realised that *“when you get into longer sentences, that’s when it could be a little difficult”*. They said that learners might find Chinese easy because there was no verb conjugation and word order was very similar to English in the first lesson, but they might find it hard when they realised the word order for questions was different from English in later lessons. They also realised that the higher their progress, the more difficulties they would encounter in mastering Chinese grammar. However, participants in the interview were mainly beginner learners, so grammar was not found to cause the learners’ anxiety.

6.3.3.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): The Nature of Additional Language Learning Has an Impact on Learners’ Motivation

The fluctuation in motivation was found in informal education environments, such as in additional courses such as elective modules. One participant claimed that student numbers in class could be used to signal fluctuation in students’ motivation. Participants were asked about their class size in interviews. For example, in Florence’s class, student numbers dropped by 80%; as she said: *“we started with maybe twenty to twenty-five, but then by the end of the year it was the only five of us”*. Eight participants mentioned a big drop in student numbers like this, which could be seen as a concern about teaching quality but also could be seen as a normal pattern for non-formal language classes.

University students found learning Chinese challenging when they were busy with their main studies. Samantha believed good time management skills were important, so Chinese learning could be prioritised when it was needed. At Samantha’s university (one of the universities from the national survey), language courses were free, but students would be charged a fee if they did not attend the class. Learning languages for her and her classmates

was beneficial but could be stressful if they got very busy with other commitments. Ruby had the same problem; as she put it, *“I didn’t have much time to dedicate to it, and it was not easy keeping focusing on Chinese because my course could get very intense”*.

Participants indicated that commitment to language learning was not on their priority lists when they got busy with life. Instead, when their prioritised tasks are finished, they might spend more time on language learning. Ruby described her fluctuation trend that other three participants echoed, which could be seen as a common phenomenon for students who learn the Chinese language as an elective module in universities:

I think it would fluctuate depending on what was going on in my life outside of that. For example, if my actual degree got really intense, I would have no motivation for Chinese lessons because I was so busy with my degree. But if it was a pretty calm period, I’d be like, okay, I can do a bit more on my Chinese homework.

The learners’ motivation might appear to have a “high-low-high” pattern. For example, when they realise the difficulties in their learning, they might feel negative, but if they apply self-regulation strategies and keep resilient, their motivation level might increase again. Florence was an example whose motivation level dropped after a period of learning when she realised the characters were hard to remember and the listening resources were too fast to understand, but the motivation level increased later:

At the start, my motivation was high because I had just picked the course and was really excited about it. Then possibly like a few months in, I started to think, oh my God, this is a lot of it is very different. There’s no alphabet. I have to learn characters. Listening was also very difficult for me because a lot of Chinese resources, like TV shows, are very fast, and it made me think, oh my gosh, should I know this already or am I falling behind, which made me feel quite demotivated for a while. But after a while, I just got used to it, and it felt better.

In summary, combining the findings reported above in sections, the main factors influencing learners' CFL motivation fluctuation were teacher/teaching/pedagogy related, negative emotions, learning difficulties, and the nature of additional language learning.

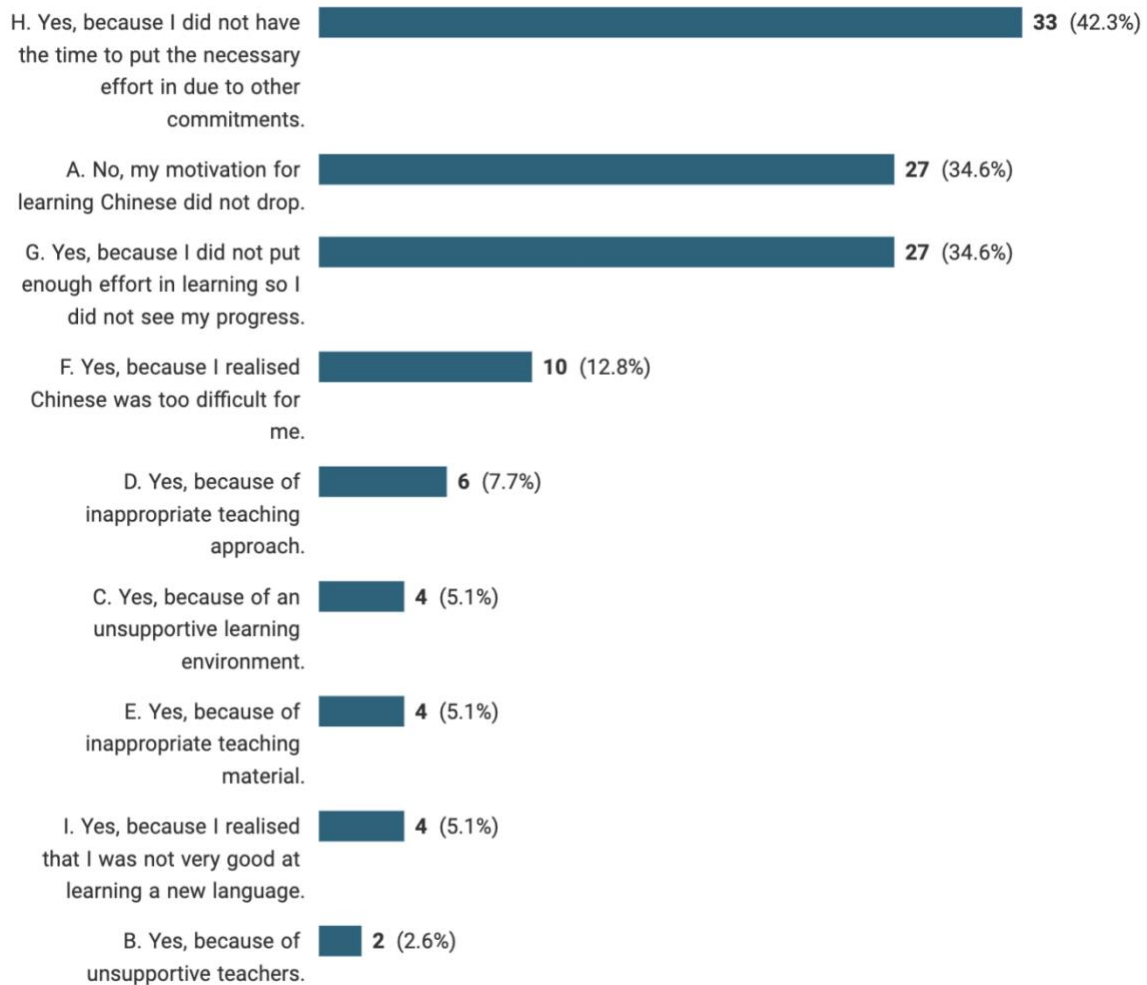
6.4 Findings for Research Question 2 - (c): What are the causes, if any, of demotivation for learning Chinese?

Having identified the motivation fluctuation and factors that influenced it in the first two sections in this chapter, the final part of Research Question 2 aims to discover the causes of demotivation in learning CFL by synthesising the open-ended questions from the questionnaire and the interview analysis.

6.4.1 Findings from the Surveys

Participants in the questionnaire surveys were asked, "Have you experienced demotivation in your Chinese learning experience? (More than one can be ticked or circled)". The results from the national survey are reported first, followed by the Time 1 and Time 2 local surveys. Around one-third of participants did not drop their motivation levels in the national survey. This survey had a higher percentage of students reporting that their motivations were maintained than the two local surveys. Among those participants whose motivation levels dropped, more than 40% said they experienced demotivation because they did not have the time to put the necessary effort in because of other commitments. The second reason for demotivation was that participants did not put enough effort into learning, so they did not see progress. The least frequently chosen reason leading to demotivation was that participants had an unsupportive teacher, as shown in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6. 4
Demotivation Reasons from the National Survey

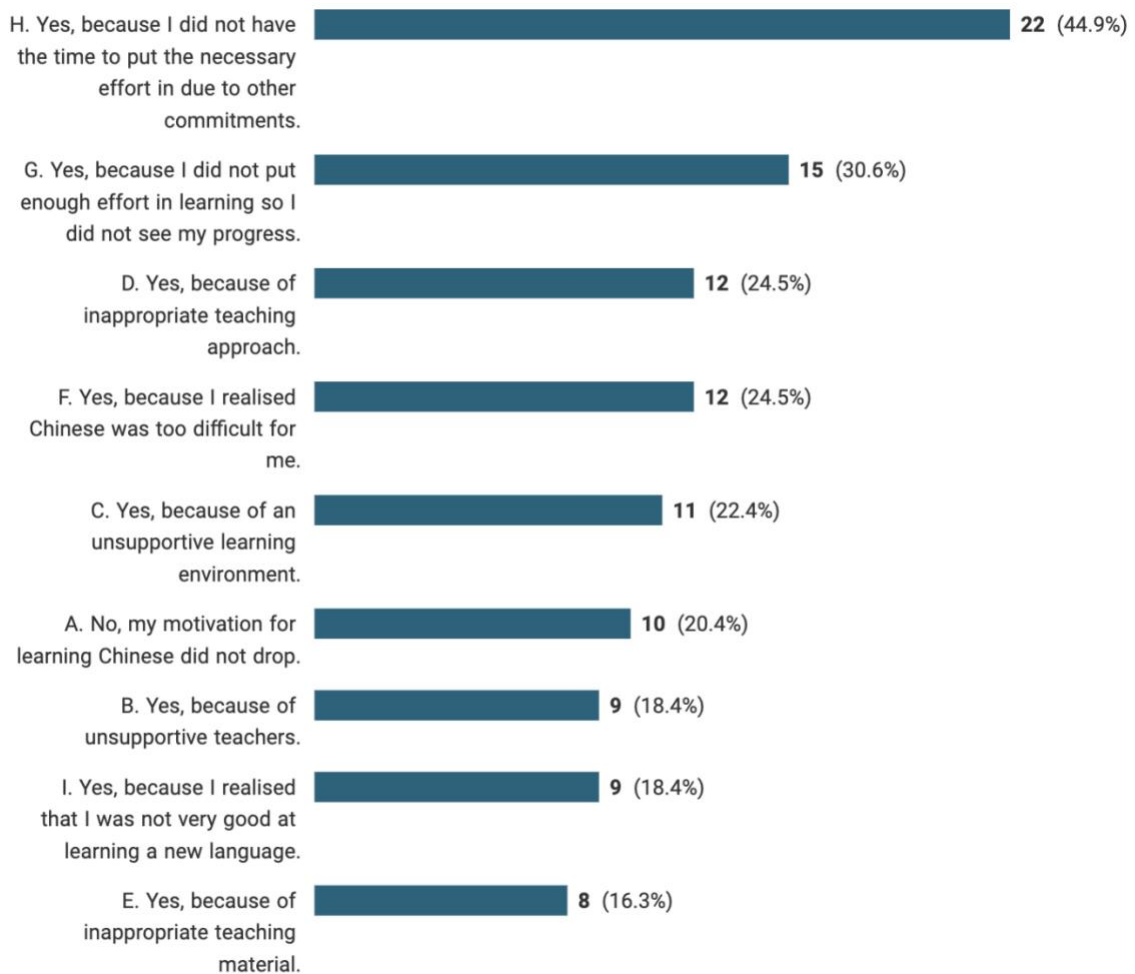


In an open question for participants to give specific demotivation reasons, eight respondents mentioned that lack of time invested in learning Chinese caused their lack of efforts in learning Chinese, which further caused slow or little progress in language learning, which resulted in this demotivation. These views are summed up by the following quotation from an English male university student from an intermediate Chinese course: *“as indicated, a combination of a lack of available time and a lack of effort led to (at times) slow/minimal progress, which demotivated me and slowed down my study”*. Four participants mentioned that the difficulties in acquiring the Chinese language were their reasons for demotivation as an Austrian Master’s student studying Mathematics stated: *“because learning Chinese is*

exceptionally difficult and therefore progress is slow". Another two participants considered age as a demotivation reason. For example, a 76-year-old British male learner from an evening course offered by a university to the local community explained, *"I get a bit demotivated because of my age, which means I am slow. The characters are so difficult!"*. If there are people in China with high English proficiency, being a native English speaker may not be an advantage for career opportunities in China, as an English learner with advanced Chinese proficiency on a PhD course pointed out, *"If you do not plan to live in China, learning Chinese to an Advanced level does not seem especially useful. It is much easier to employ a Chinese person who speaks English than an English person who speaks Chinese in nearly every job role"*. Besides explaining the demotivation reason, two participants provided specific advice for teachers on coping with the demotivation issue in Chinese classes. A Greek female university student advised: *"new learning materials would be useful, maybe focus on more spoken target vocabulary. More opportunities to make us feel engaged. Make the class not feel like an obligation but rather a fun activity of learning new things"*.

In the Time 1 local survey, students from the local university had a higher percentage of experiencing demotivation than the national survey, at nearly 80%. However, the two biggest reasons for demotivation were the same as recorded in the national survey – time and effort, as shown in Figure 6.5. Lack of time and effort seemed to be the superficial reasons for demotivation, but why learners did not input enough time and effort into learning may be complicated, as it could be related to external factors such as teaching and environment.

Figure 6. 5
Demotivation Reasons from the Local Time 1 Survey

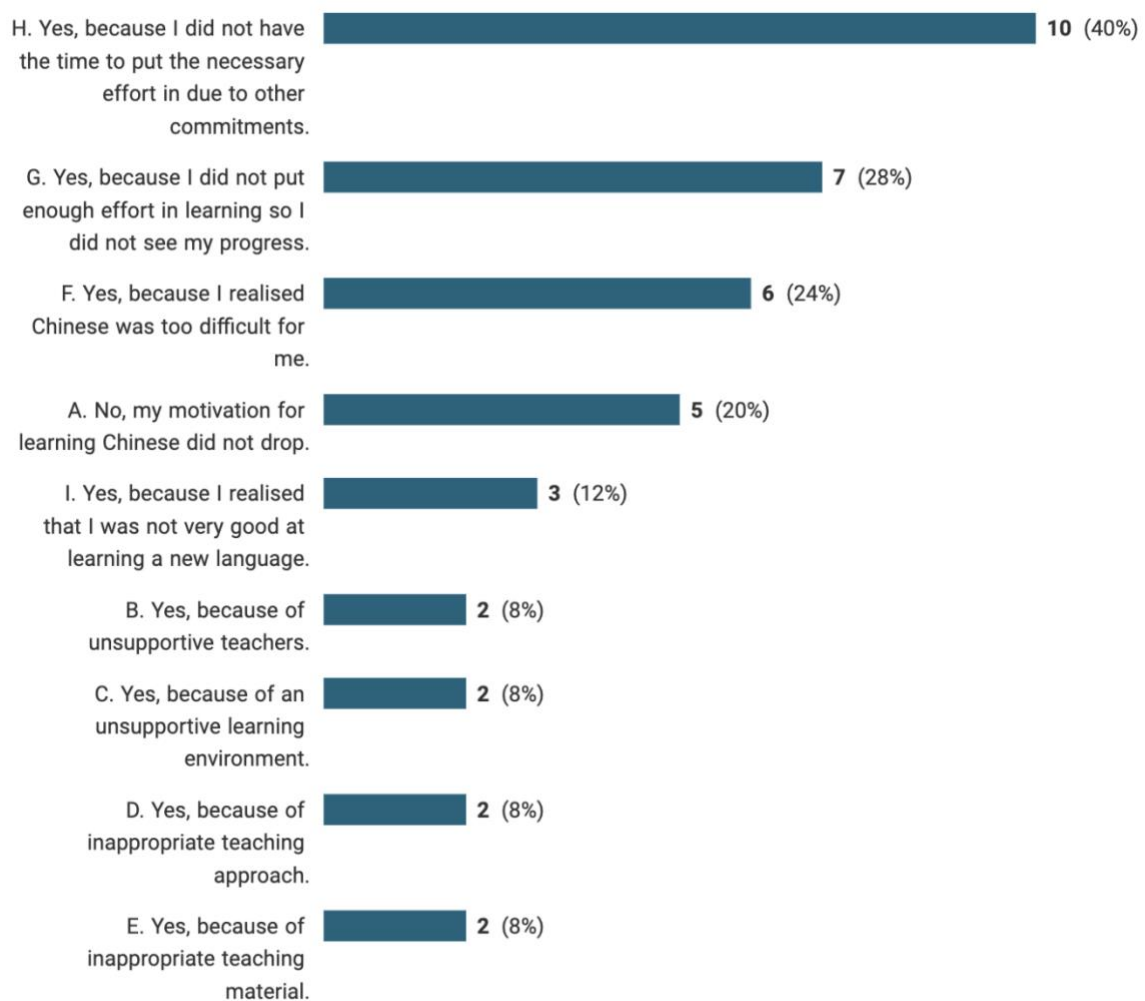


Respondents shared their demotivation reasons in the open questions. Half of them complained about “*a total inappropriate exam*”. One respondent summed up these views “*I was not tested on the topics we had learnt. The foundation test was about units we had not covered in class yet. This created a lot of disappointment and demotivation among the students*”. Other respondents mentioned various reasons, including “*political reasons and cultural aspects*”, “*pressure*”, “*learning it in class made it less enjoyable*”, and “*because native people do not understand my spoken language*”.

In the Time 2 survey, the same group of students with a lower response rate answered this question again after four months of Chinese learning. Again, the top two demotivation

reasons remained the same, as shown in Figure 6.6. Like the Time 2 Survey, 80% learners had their motivation dropped. However, the percentages of demotivation reasons related to teacher/teaching approach/teaching material/learning environment significantly decreased.

Figure 6. 6
Demotivation Reasons from the Local Time 2 Survey



Answers to the open questions were notable. They represented three possible aspects of demotivation – personal, pedagogical, and environmental. These three aspects could cause different levels and lengths of demotivation in students’ Chinese learning journey, as shown in below.

First, individually speaking, learners who were less confident in communication in Chinese or had few conversational practice opportunities could become demotivated; for example, “*after three years of learning Chinese, I feel like I’m unable to have any kind of conversation in Chinese*”. In addition, learners who had learnt Chinese for a few years might have experienced a bottleneck period in the language learning process, which could cause them demotivation in a certain stage, for example:

Sometimes I feel like there is too much to learn. I have become much better, but there are still so many things I still do not understand fully. This has led to periods where I get slightly demotivated, but it is usually not long. I think it is very normal in a language learning process.

Second, from the pedagogy perspective, learners might have been demotivated by certain dissatisfaction with their in-class learning experiences, including course set-up, teacher-student relationship, teaching approach and teaching material; unsupportive teachers and materials are also part of the problem. This echoed Section 6.3.2.2 in this chapter.

From the learning environment perspective, social milieu such as family support could greatly impact students’ language learning motivation. An unsupportive family environment could bring confusion and demotivation to learners. The following quote represents learners with a heritage background, but where the family language was not Mandarin Chinese, who experienced an unsupported learning environment, for example: “*my relatives (Chinese Malaysian) were unimpressed with my learning Chinese and didn’t really care. They don’t speak Mandarin anyway; they speak Cantonese. So that time, I really questioned why I was learning it*”.

Third, moving to environmental factors, a new question was added to the Time 2 survey: “Does COVID-19 affect your motivation for learning Chinese?” There were 30.8% of respondents answered “Yes”, and 69.2% answered “No”. A subsequent question asked them to specify if they selected yes. More than one-third of the respondents indicated the

environment as a demotivation reason, summed up in the following quotation: *“I find that being home is not a very good learning environment for me, which aids in my procrastination and disinterest”*. Another one-third of the respondents indicated that losing contact with the teacher in a physical classroom environment as well as communication with classmates was not ideal for language learning, summed up in the following quotation:

COVID-19 affected a very important part of the studying process, which was physically going to lectures and having an interactive relationship with the teacher and the rest of the class. As a beginner, it is important to dedicate a lot of time to learning. Having constant contact with the teacher is pivotal to strengthening the basis of grammar.

One respondent wrote his concern below, and it might represent some learners who attributed a negative association between COVID-19 and the Chinese language:

At first, I thought that COVID-19 had become worse because of the Chinese government and people inside China. So I did not wish to even look at a single letter during that time – that emotion maintained for a few months (I do not have such feeling these days. I hope it just ends soon).

The above three aspects – personal, pedagogical and environmental – of demotivation reasons identified from open-ended questions in three surveys will emerge again in the national interviews shown in the next section.

6.4.2 Findings from the Interviews that followed the National Survey

As mentioned above, demotivation in the Chinese learning process appeared common across different learner groups within the dataset. However, the demotivation reason that participants gave in the interviews varied from one perspective to another. As mentioned in Section 6.3.3, the anxiety of learning the Chinese language causes motivation fluctuation when learners encounter difficulties during their learning path. In addition, this anxiety about the difficulties of the Chinese language might develop into a demotivation trigger.

Furthermore, besides the language per se, the inappropriate pedagogy in class was another

reason for demotivation, as learners might get demotivated by what the teacher did in class when it was not appropriate for learners' proficiency level.

Therefore, apart from the above factors of language per se, the following findings were summarised from the national interviews with learners into three categories – learner, pedagogy, and social influences – could be seen as individual, educational and social impacts on demotivation for Chinese learning.

6.4.2.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Learners' Personal Reasons

CFL learners' personal reasons for demotivation included learners not staying focused, not making enough effort and being tired. Lack of focus and effort might be the key issues that triggered a lack of progress and a sense of achievement in learning. The tiredness, laziness and depression might have come afterwards. Samantha described her classmates and assumed their excuses for their absence as *“people were honestly not that focused. They didn't attend as much. You can tell who is really interesting and who's not. If they have another activity or party, they prefer to go? It depends on everyone's personal preference and their circumstances”*. Not being perseverant in making a constant effort when learning got difficult was another case; as Ruby described: *“I have the problem that I'll pick it up when it's easy then once it gets to a point where I'm not just naturally good at this anymore. I just stopped, which is bad”*. Commitment to learning a language in winter when people tended to feel depressed came across in the interview a couple of times. Samantha was one of the examples; as she said: *“maybe sometimes, I used to just feel tired, especially in the winters”*. The lack of positive emotion contributes to demotivation in language learning; thus, some learners might not want to get up and go to class.

6.4.2.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Pedagogy Issues

The language course structure in universities was in line with the university schedule. It naturally set up a gap between terms, which was *“not helpful for language learning”*,

pointed by two participants. Learners might lose motivation to learn when there are no classes between terms and find it difficult to pick up after a long break. Tim explained it: *“it is difficult to be motivated when the summer break happens; suddenly, you’ve now got six or eight weeks of no Chinese. So come back in October, and your Chinese is rusty; you’ve forgotten a lot; it takes two or three weeks to get back”*.

There were four negative comments on the teaching approach from the participants from the national survey. Quinten had a teacher who read from the textbook and provided no exercises in class, which did not contribute to students’ motivation in class; as he put it, *“the teaching approach or a specific style in my class is terrible. It does not go with it because the teacher does not give us exercises. He only read the textbook with us, and then he went too fast for us to go for the details”*. When there was no interaction or oral practice in class, students were not motivated to attend the class because they could do home learning by themselves. Quinten said he and his classmates had to keep self-motivated when the teaching approach was demotivating.

According to three participants, one of the stereotypes of the Chinese teaching style was *“didactic”*, which was almost against the idea of motivating teaching practice. Violet mentioned that it might gradually change, but it might still be true in some classes. Amanda compared her first Chinese teacher with her previous French, Italian and Russian teachers and highlighted that the Chinese teaching approach was didactic; as she put it: *“my assumption is that the approach in China to teach is much more didactic, much more formal, and old fashioned, and there wasn’t much opportunity in the class to practise speaking. So that was a real struggle”*.

Another case was from Florence’s teacher, who used to call people’s names out and ask people to read Chinese straight away instead of asking for volunteers. Florence said the teacher was unaware that this random picking was not common in class in English

universities, whereas it may be very acceptable in class in China. Florence believed this could scare some learners away; as she said: *“people got a little bit scared that if they didn’t know what they got picked on, something bad would happen. If I didn’t know the answer, it was fine; but a lot of people are scared of getting it wrong and not knowing”*.

Having no textbook or having outdated textbooks could cause inefficiency and loss of students’ interest in class, which could be seen as a negative teaching approach. Amanda claimed that *“there was no textbook. It was hard to prepare from one week to the next week; you don’t know what would be covered”*. Florence also commented on the issues of textbooks: *“the textbook we used was quite outdated, old fashioned, a little bit strange, and some of the audio clips were American people speaking Chinese; my teacher said that pronunciation wasn’t very good. She didn’t like it, so she didn’t want to use them as much”*.

6.4.2.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): The Influence of the Media and Politics

Some external influences from the media and politics on Chinese language learning cannot be ignored, especially during the post-pandemic period. In Anita’s opinion, there was a lot of hypocrisy in Western media because *“at the same time they were saying China controls the media, but they were very controlled to present a certain idea of China because of geopolitics”*. She said because she had been to China and *“saw a lot of the things they say were not true”*, she was worried that many people heard a lot of their negativity about China from the media and found it hard to find the truth if they did not have the opportunity to see the real China. She assumed some learners would get influenced in their Chinese learning by reading news about China. Anita’s assumption was verified by an answer to an open question mentioned in Section 6.4.1 where a student did not want to learn anything Chinese during the beginning of COVID-19.

Three learners mentioned the possible influence of COVID-19 and other political affairs on their Chinese language learning motivation. Taking Ruby’s opinion as an

example: *“I think coronavirus and the human rights violations put some people off. I think that’s a bit iffy, but the language itself is innocent”*. People might temporarily drop their motivations for learning the Chinese language in an unusual global context, according to Violet: *“I think the UK is probably going to be pretty racist, to be honest, especially after coronavirus. So I think it might take a bit of time for people to start having interests in Chinese again”*. Violet also believed that people’s Chinese learning motivation changed a lot in the last couple of years because *“this world is a mad place now after Trump, Brexit and COVID”*.

Another possible reason for demotivation for learning Chinese nowadays is that people can no longer travel to China easily, according to Anita: *“I think the pandemic has sort of stopped people thinking about travel and those things”*. Many people were motivated to learn the Chinese language because they planned to travel to China, as mentioned in Section 5.2 in Chapter Five, but after suspending their travel plans, they may no longer have the motivation to learn Chinese.

Another theme that frequently emerged from the interview was that many learners perceived the profile of UK language learners in a slightly negative way. More than half of the learners believed that *“British people traditionally are not good language learners”*. Taking Felicia’s observation as an example, she found that British people had a character trait: *“we don’t want to expose ourselves to looking stupid and probably our obsession with intelligence status means that we’re very reluctant to make mistakes in public”*; in contrast, other nations were *“more able to make mistakes in public”*. Another observation of British learners was people would feel awkward when speaking foreign languages, but it did not matter when listening to foreign languages spoken by non-native English speakers. Other participants attributed it that English as a lingua franca made British people not see learning foreign languages as a necessity. This also caused those monolingual learners not to realise

the efforts required to learn another language, so they were not prepared for the possible motivation fluctuation or having enough resilience in the learning process. Participants also attributed the idea that “*British people are not very good at learning other languages*” to “*people in the UK are more laid back, and they have a relaxed mindset when it comes to learning*”. These attributions might be stereotypes because the researcher has met many excellent, hardworking multilingual and autodidacts in the UK who are inspiring for other learners. In addition, as Violet mentioned, the new generation born with the Internet value different languages and cultures from a young age would be the future promising learners of languages.

In summary, participants in this study demonstrated a range of demotivation reasons for learning Chinese, which was categorised into three dimensions – individual (personal choices, specific learning difficulties with the Chinese language and negative emotions like anxiety and frustrations), educational (nature of the addition language learning, course structure, and pedagogical issues in class) and social (media, politics and global crisis, and social prejudice).

6.5 Concluding Remarks on Research Question 2: What are the dynamics of the motivations for adult learners in the UK learning the Chinese Language?

The findings on motivation fluctuation and reasons for demotivation directly addressed the issue of the unstable or non-persistent motivation for learning the Chinese language in the UK that was proposed as Research Question 2. The surveys in two points of time identified teacher support being a significant factor in learners’ motivation levels. In addition, the longitudinal classroom observation with a survey after each lesson also presented fluctuation trends, including motivation levels, student numbers and teacher’s motivational practice. From the survey results and interview analysis shown above, various

factors have impact on learners' CFL motivation fluctuation, both with teacher-related and non-teacher-related factors. Understanding these factors is important for teachers to adapt their pedagogies to different teaching environments to ensure class retention rates and for learners to find more resilient ways of learning. However, in the instructed learning environment, the real challenge comes from preventing learners' demotivation during their learning journey due to inappropriate pedagogy, non-regulated learning strategies, or other possible distractions from the complicated environment.

This study did not provide quantitative evidence on any significant differences in the perceptions of teacher effectiveness in different learner groups. However, the learner groups of university students and university staff members differed in their perceptions of the same teacher (see Section 6.3.2) because they have very different learning needs, expectations, and foreign language learning experiences.

Between different sets of data, it is noticeable that there is a distinct mismatch reported in the role of the teacher. Teachers' supportiveness emerged as a key factor across all data sources, but in different ways. Learner participants' views on teacher supportiveness also differed among different types of learners from different learning groups and at the individual level based on various personal learning experiences. Therefore, it is important to get insights from the qualitative data of an individual participant's story to understand what happened in their classes.

Regarding demotivation, the teacher/student relationship or a particular pedagogical issue stood out in the interview conducted with participants after the observation follow-up. This was primarily because the interview format allowed the interviewee to discuss their own individual relationship with their teachers. However, participants in the national survey generally gave a good impression of their teacher and class. This result may have been partly a consequence of the questionnaire not specifically querying such issues or simply as a result

of a wider spread of different views which when averaged gave a more positive perspective on teacher supportiveness.

Furthermore, the observation follow-up interview was conducted towards the end of a semester, when learners may have felt more tired and busy with other courses, their attitudes toward the Chinese class and the teacher may have grown positive, and the teacher themselves may have experienced dwindling enthusiasm at the time.

7.1 Introduction

The first and second research questions about the nature and the dynamics of the motivations of adult learners in the UK to learn Chinese were answered in the last two chapters, and they provided a foundation for understanding this research. This chapter further explores the strategies used by learners and teachers to generate, maintain and enhance CFL motivation. This chapter also provides a foundation and evidence for suggestions for teachers to motivate students in an adult Chinese language class and for learners to motivate themselves, which will be discussed in the last chapter.

Table 7.1 provides a review of the structure of the last research question and corresponding data analysis methods. These two sub-questions are answered successively in the next two sections of this chapter. At the end of this chapter, a concluding remark is given to summarise the answers to Research Question 3.

Table 7. 1
Data Analysis Used for the Third Research Question

Research Question	Sub Questions	Data Analysis Used
Research Question 3: What, in the views of learners and teachers, are useful ways of generating and maintaining motivation in learning the Chinese language?	RQ 3 - (a): What teaching strategies are used in class and why? Which kinds of activities do learners find the most and the least helpful? What strategies for motivating teaching practice did learners propose?	Thematic Analysis
	RQ 3 - (b): What strategies for generating motivation are used by students for out of class learning? What strategies for maintaining motivation are used by students for out of class learning?	Descriptive Analysis Analysis of open-ended questionnaire items Thematic Analysis

In sub-question (a), the set of questions aims to understand the current strategies used in Chinese language instruction for adult learners in the UK by summarising the evaluation of

useful teaching strategies from the students' perspective and reporting the motivating teaching practices from the interviews with teachers. Sub-question (b) addresses the learning strategies that learners of Chinese in the national survey and subsequent interviews claimed to adopt in their Chinese learning outside of the class. The data were analysed using thematic analysis from the open-ended questionnaire items and interviews. This research question also aims to collect suggestions for maintaining and enhancing motivation to learn Chinese from the interview data.

7.2 Findings for Research Question 3 - (a): What teaching strategies are used in class and why? Which kinds of activities do learners find the most and the least helpful? What strategies for motivating teaching practice did learners propose?

A snapshot of the motivational strategies used in adult Chinese language classes is provided in the current study. This section draws from interviews with teachers across the country, interviews with learners from the classroom observation and national survey to present this snapshot, and interviews with one of the observed teachers to discover the reasons behind her strategies and whether these strategies changed over time.

7.2.1 Teaching Strategies Used in Class

This section explores the motivational strategies used in Chinese language classes. Findings were summarised from the interviews with eight teachers from various institutions in the UK and one of the teachers of the two observed classes. Six key themes were categorised into three preconditions for applying strategies and three actual strategies. Three preconditions were summarised as “Understanding the Educational Difference between China and UK”; “Understanding Students’ Motivation and Potential Demotivation Reasons”; and “Improving English Proficiency”; three strategies were summarised as “Setting Up the Right Level of Challenge for Adult Learners”; “Adopting A Student-centred Approach”; and

“Embracing IT Technologies”. The detailed quotes and analysis are shown in Appendix K due to limited space in this thesis.

7.2.2 Activities that Learners Find the Most and the Least Helpful

Participants were interviewed to explore their perceptions of teaching strategies that are effective for learning Chinese compared with those that might be effective for other languages. Chapter Six reported that an unsuitable teaching style could cause demotivation or a high dropout rate. The least helpful teaching practices were summarised as follows: (1) teacher’s non-interactive pedagogy and non-stimulating teaching materials could cause a not-so-good teacher-student rapport; (2) the intense class setting like the long hours and small class size could cause learners anxiety; (3) students found the forceful style of asking questions was cognitively demanding.

On the other hand, good teaching practice in Chinese class was also identified from the interviews with learners both from the national survey and classroom observation. When interviewees were asked what the best part of learning Chinese was, they mentioned several practices like having oral practice or role-play, giving regular tests and feedback, explaining words and characters thoroughly, having cultural involvement, having an online learning community, and having an online learning community well-designed lesson slides. These ideas are summarised in the following three categories: “Having Sufficient Oral Practice”; “Having Cultural Input”; and “Having a Right Class Makeup”. See Appendix K.

7.2.3 Strategies for Motivating Teaching Practice that Learners Proposed

Helpful activities their teachers used in class were summarised above. Learner participants in the national interview also proposed a series of strategies for motivating teaching practice for teachers from the learners’ perspective. These views were categorised into four strategies: “Teaching in Small Steps and Scaffolding”; “Adopting a Sympathetic

Approach to be Encouraging”; “Presenting the Learning Content in a Stimulating Way”; and “Encouraging Students to Have More Chinese Exposure”.

The first part of Research Question 3 has addressed the motivational strategies for teachers used in Chinese class from both views of teachers and learners. Teaching strategies used in class that contributed to generating and maintaining learners’ motivation were summarised as three preconditions and three strategies. Teachers adopted them to generate students’ motivations or react to their pre-existing motivations and prevent them from decreasing. The detailed quotes are shown in Appendix K.

7.3 Findings for Research Question 3 - (b): What strategies for generating motivation are used by students for out of class learning? What strategies for maintaining motivation are used by students for out of class learning?

This sub-question addresses the learning strategies the learners of Chinese from the national survey and subsequent interviews adopted in their Chinese learning out of the class. It investigated their autonomous learning practice, self-regulation strategies and ways of keeping resilient. These strategies were grouped into two categories, generating and maintaining motivation, as below.

7.3.1 Strategies for Generating Motivation Used by Students for Out of Class Learning

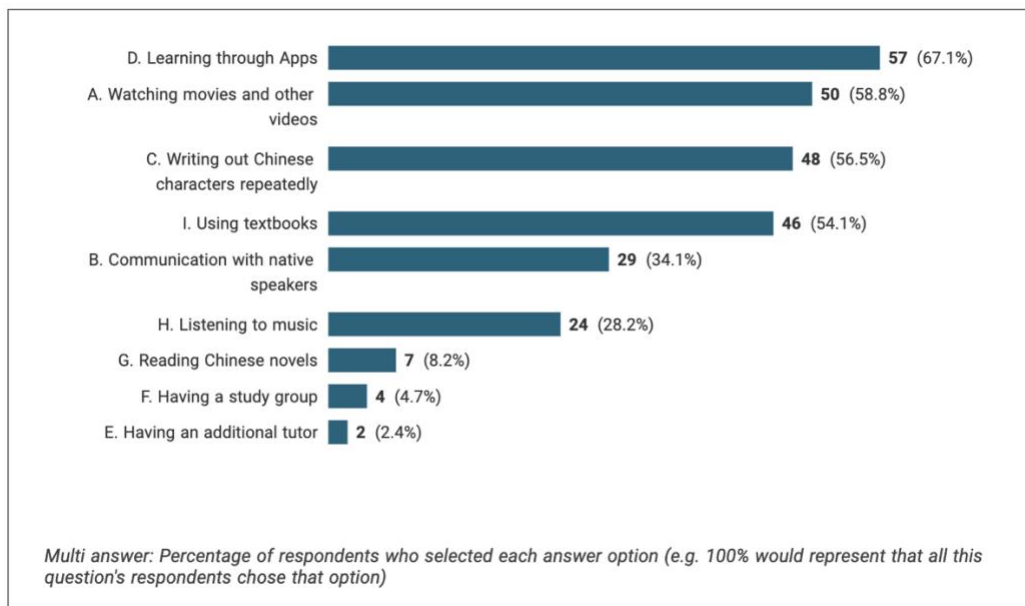
7.3.1.1 Key Quantitative Findings (I): Autonomous Learning Methods and Amount of Out of Class Learning

Participants were asked to state in the questionnaire what they did to study/practise Chinese outside of class, and they could select more than one option from a list of given activities. “Learning through Apps” was selected as the most popular practice method, accounting for more than two-thirds of the respondents in the national survey. The other three answers that more than half of the respondents selected were “Watching movies and other videos”; “Writing out Chinese characters repeatedly”; and “Using textbooks”. Only two

respondents had an additional tutor, and four had a study group, which were the least common practice methods, as shown in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7. 1

Percentage of Respondents Who Selected Each Practice Activity




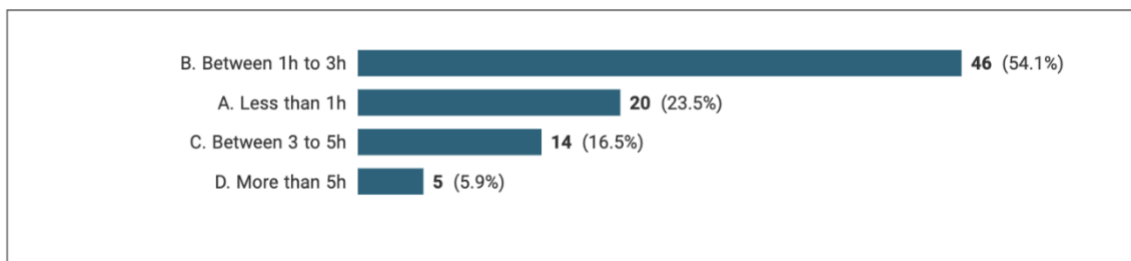
Participants were given space to specify other practices not listed, and answers for that were grouped into two categories – learning Chinese in a recreational way and learning Chinese as an after-class revision. The first category included “Listen to podcasts”, “Reading graded books”, and “I watch a lot of YouTube videos on learning Chinese, and I also watch variety shows, and survival shows for singers”. The second category included “Look at the PowerPoint used in the class and use it as a prompt to make up and write sentences in characters using the new words/grammar structures”; “Going over class notes and power points from the teacher”; “Flashcards”; “Asking my Chinese wife for help”; Learning platforms mentioned for this question included “Duolingo”, “Anki” and “Chinese Pod”.


To investigate weekly study hours for Chinese, two multiple-choice questions in the questionnaire asked respondents to indicate their home learning hours required by the teacher

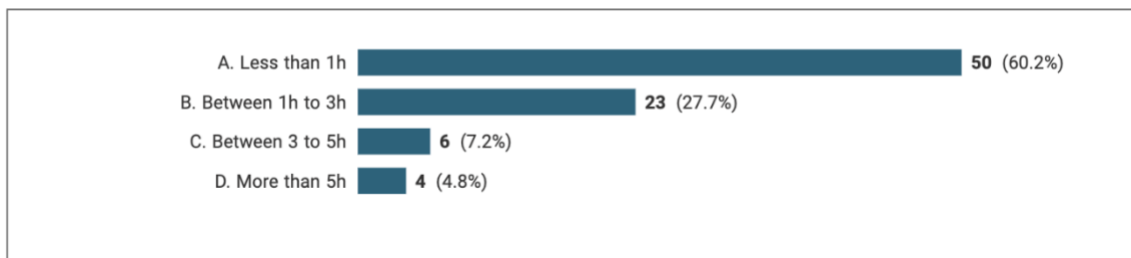
and home learning hours non-required by the teacher. More than half of the respondents spent between one to three hours on required learning and less than one hour on non-required learning per week, as shown in Figure 7.2. The time learners spent on non-required learning was generally less than they spent on required learning.

Figure 7.2
Weekly Study Hours for Chinese Outside Class

18 How much time do you spend studying Chinese outside the classroom as activities required by the teacher such as homework in an average week? 



19 How much time do you spend studying Chinese outside as non-required activities such as talking with a Chinese language partner? 



7.3.1.2 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Becoming Autonomous Learners

The primary autonomous learning practices mentioned by the interviewees from the national survey echoed the responses from the questionnaire results. Learning through Apps was selected as the most used autonomous practice. The interviews mentioned three apps – Duolingo, Rosetta Stone and Pleco. Learners found self-learning Apps like Duolingo and Rosetta Stone addictive like any other game; as Anita said: *“I find it good fun learning the characters, a little bit like a puzzle; it reminds you to practise every day. Otherwise, you lose*

points”. Pleco, a Chinese-English mobile dictionary, was popular among learners of Chinese because interviewees claimed it helped character learning, from looking up a new word by writing on the screen to guiding the learners to practise the writing by providing the strokes, as Violet said: *“Pleco dictionary got a different approach to learning characters by giving a story of the character. It shows you the order of the stroke if you want to practise. If you’re looking up a new word, it also gives you enough information to think you’ve got the right character”*.

Two learners mentioned having a language buddy to practise speaking after class was another autonomous learning practice. For example, Florence and her Chinese housemates would speak “Chinglish” with each other; as she said: *“if I didn’t know the vocabulary, I would say the rest of the sentence in Chinese and an English word, and we understood each other, and they always correct me and teach me new words”*. She enjoyed speaking Chinese with people she lived with every day because *“it was like a relaxed practice and we had a good laugh. I didn’t even think I was practising what I was doing it”*. In addition, she generally built up more confidence in Chinese learning by having daily exposure to Chinese. Thus, her motivation level remained high during the two years of her Chinese learning experience.

Other practices mentioned in the questionnaire, such as flashcards, podcasts, and TV, were also mentioned in the interview. Two learners preferred learning vocabulary through flashcards. For example, Tim made his own cards and carried 20 words every day to remember in his pocket time. Jasmine preferred watching Chinese TV programmes on PCNE; as she said: *“some of those programs have subtitles in Chinese characters and below they have English, so it means I can directly hear and understand what’s happening”*. Jasmine also has her favourite podcast about Chinese language learning; she

said: *“it’s called coffee break Chinese. It’s a native speaker teaching a British speaker, and he learns with this us as listeners. I find that really helpful”*.

7.3.1.3 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Being Aware of the Advantages of Being Adult Learners

When learners were aware of the advantages of being adult language learners, they reported having better control of their own learning, a better appreciation of the culture and more freedom to access all recourses. By acknowledging these advantages in the learning process, learners could generate more stable motivation by regulating their existing learning strategies or applying new learning strategies with a better sense of control.

First, being an adult learner could provide more control of the learning process. Violet indicated that adult learners tended to be more assertive in class when they did not understand the teacher clearly: *“because we were adults, we could query, we could ask questions, and say, well, actually, no, I didn’t get that, can you say that again? It’s not very clear’ that helps both the learner and the teacher”*.

Second, being an adult learner could provide a deeper understanding of the culture. Tim believed getting to know the culture helped language learning, and it was one of the most important parts of it, as he said, *“because it gives you the mentality and understanding of how people think, but it tended to be forgotten in many classes”*.

Third, an adult learner could have more freedom to utilise learning recourses. Adult learners had more freedom to manage the time for flexible learning and finance to pay for the learning costs. Florence was able to use multiple resources, such as paying for a learning App, and that kept her motivated all the time; as she said: *“I don’t think you have to use a textbook; try Rosetta Stone; it is just as good as reading a chapter in a book sometimes. So, having a fun activity is the key because it keeps you more motivated”*.

Two learner participants also contributed ideas on teaching different ages of students as they were university lecturers in education themselves. Felicia explained why non-

pedagogical games were not suitable for adult learners: *“certain games that require you to recall and respond quickly are appropriate but not childish ones; a pedagogical game designed to capture people whose attention is low is good for adults”*.

However, for a class mixed with both university students and lecturers, the teacher needed to be sensitive to realise lecturers might be concerned about their age. Sitting in a classroom with young students might make them self-conscious or unconfident. As Cynthia explained: *“the biggest challenge for me was confidence because I’m obviously an older student, and it felt very strange to be sat in a university classroom again. I felt a certain pressure. I don’t want to fall behind very quickly, very soon”*.

7.3.2 Strategies for Maintaining Motivation Used by Students for Out of Class Learning

It is challenging to learn a new L2 as an adult outside a classroom without minimal help or exposure. Therefore, learners need to rely on their own capacities, prior linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, and self-regulation strategies to enhance the input of the target language under such circumstances (Gullberg, 2010). This section summarises strategies for maintaining motivations from the learners’ point of view from the interviewees from the national survey, as shown in below.

7.3.2.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Developing Self-regulation Strategies

Learners had developed their own self-regulation strategies to find the most suitable way of learning Chinese or cope with the fluctuation in motivation. Memorising Chinese characters through the learner’s mnemonic device was the most mentioned. For example, Florence practised character writing by organising the writing task, setting goals for practice, monitoring the practice process and making further efforts; as she described: *“for characters, I bought a textbook that had grid paper, and I would sit there and designate like maybe ten characters I studied. I would write them out and then not look, then try to write them again, and I’ll write them in sentences and memorise them”*.

Learners also developed self-regulation strategies to monitor their attention, thoughts and emotions during their learning experience. When they could regulate their emotions and behaviour, they could engage themselves better and try varied learning activities. For example, when Anita was feeling demotivated, she tried something interesting to her to raise her motivation, like watching interesting colloquial terms instead of learning grammar rules.

Developing self-regulation strategies also means developing the ability to manage emotions and behaviour under the demands of the situation. For example, when Violet was feeling as if she was falling behind in class, she chose to sign up for the same course and attend it over again instead of giving it up: *“especially since I missed a lot with the first course, I just said to the teacher, please don’t slow everything down for me. I’ll do the course again. And the second time, it was a lot better. I know I got them all at the second time”*.

7.3.2.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Keeping Resilient

When encountering learning difficulties, which all learners from the interview claimed to have experienced, keeping resilient seemed to be one of the most important strategies for all learners, to ensure the Chinese learning experience was meaningful, effective, satisfying and long-lasting, learners made efforts in the following four ways: communicating with the teacher; having a growth mindset; lowering expectations; and self-motivating.

First, four learners chose to communicate with their teachers when there was a problem in their learning. Then, they suggested their teachers try something different and discover a more suitable approach for the class. Taking Anita as an example, she suggested the teacher adopt a communicative approach instead of a grammar-translation approach as she said: *“me and the other student, we actually talked to the teacher, can we do more communicative things? We didn’t want to do grammar the whole time”*. Besides trying a

different approach and slowing down, learners also suggested that teachers use different types of recourses in class.

Second, three learners cultivated a growth mindset, believing their capabilities could be developed through dedication and perseverance. For example, Anita kept learning with Duolingo App every day during the summer break because she believed in doing this, her Chinese proficiency level would remain high for the new term. Making the learning interesting when they started feeling bored was also important. For example, Florence tried to arrange for her classmates to meet in the library to revise together; Tim would look at Chinese teaching posts on Instagram and Facebook to ensure he had enough exposure to Chinese when he spent time on social media.

Third, three learners lowered their expectations. Learners who initially had high expectations of themselves might have underestimated the difficulties in Chinese learning. Once they realised it took longer to make progress than they thought, they adjusted their self-expectations and mindsets; as Anita told herself: *“you can do this, but it’s going to take a long time”*, then her Chinese learning goals downgraded to *“even if I can just communicate a little bit with Chinese people, that’s good enough”*.

Fourth, keeping resilient also involved embracing failure and taking time to reflect and learn from it. It was important not to be afraid to make mistakes and take feedback or corrections personally but see them as a way to grow; as Florence said: *“everybody feels down when they are told they’re wrong, but you need to be able to push through and keep going and realise that the best language speakers have made the most mistakes to get there”*. The above strategies could help learners learn from their mistakes and build confidence to maintain academic resilience and buoyancy.

7.3.2.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Having a Good Pace of Learning

Learners indicated that people who had no experience in learning a foreign language might have thought they could master a language within a short time, but experienced learners would pace themselves to find the most suitable pace for absorbing new knowledge or practising new skills. According to four experienced learners from the interviews, discovering the best learning approach could be a time-consuming and trial-and-error process, especially in the beginning stage. Beginner learners often need to lower their expectations of how much they can learn within one academic term. For many learners, remembering to slow down can help them reduce stress, according to experienced learner participants.

Learners who had a good pace enjoyed learning by making gradual progress. They did not expect to learn everything in one go. Anita was an example of enjoying the process of seeing her progress little by little; she believed that *“being patient and going fun with it”* were the most two important principles. She even said, *“I’m quite happy to be in the process without getting to the result”*, because she knew learning languages was a long way to go, and she needed to make sure that she was always moving forward. This way, she avoided getting frustrated and demotivated, rather than enjoying every step she made.

7.3.2.4 Key Qualitative Findings (IV): Keeping the Willingness to Continue Learning

Keeping a long-term motivation for learning Chinese is not an easy task for busy adult learners but keeping the willingness to learn was valued by all learners. When asked whether they would continue learning Chinese, four interviewees indicated they would sign up or had already signed up for the next level of Chinese course for the next year. Keen learners like Violet had already set up their minds to sign up for the course of Chinese in the next term and bought the new textbook. Another keen learner, Tim was also very sure about

continuing learning Chinese; as he said: *“I’m going to sign up. I need to check the availability now. I will definitely go back”*.

The rest of the interviewees claimed they would continue learning in their own time instead of learning with an institution. It might be because the class was not running due to the pandemic, or the next level was not offered. However, they all had the resolution to carry on learning, such as *“planning to continue by myself”* and *“continue in my own time”*. Ruby was an example who would like to teach herself and intended to dedicate time to Chinese learning in the future as she said: *“I’ve been meaning to go back to it and refresh my memory and my boyfriend just got me other books for the extra level so I can carry on my own. But I need to get time for it. But I want to”*.

Identifying the most challenging part of learning was important for individual learners to decide whether they could continue. Participants had a different points of view: *“being willing to have a go, to practise, to talk to people or go out of the comfort zone”* was the most challenging part, according to Violet and Ruby; *“to dedicate, to focus to it, to be determined”* was the most difficult part according to Jasmine and Samantha; *“being confident and have a high level of self-efficacy”* according to Cynthia; and *“lack of Chinese speaking environment”* was seen as the biggest challenge by Anita and Tim. This identification may help learners make responsible decisions of continuous learning.

In summary, the second part of Research Question 3 addressed the strategies for generating and maintaining motivation used by students for out-of-class learning. Strategies for generating motivation were summarised as: (1) becoming autonomous learners; (2) being aware of the advantages of being adult learners. Autonomous learning methods and the amount of time spent on them were also presented in this section. Strategies for maintaining motivation were summarised as: (1) developing self-regulation strategies; (2) maintaining resilience; (3) having a good learning pace; (4) being willing to continue learning. The

teacher's efforts in creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, and maintaining and protecting motivation were only a part of the prerequisites for motivating learners. The other part relies on learners to keep themselves motivated. According to interviewees, being a motivated learner required taking advantage of being an adult and using autonomy, self-regulation, resilience, good pace, and willingness.

7.4 Concluding Remarks on Research Question 3: What, in the views of learners and teachers, are useful ways of generating and maintaining motivation in learning the Chinese language?

The findings concerning the motivational strategies used by teachers in Chinese classes and perceived as useful by adult learners tapped into the core elements of motivation research by looking for good practices for generating and maintaining motivation. The last research questions brought together both teachers and learners so that voices from both could be heard. The findings also suggested that motivation is seen as the responsibility of both the teacher and learners. Learners in the interviews indicated that they were aware of the importance of hard work required by themselves, but they also appreciated the importance of feedback from the teacher, especially authentic encouragement of their progress. The most effective cooperation between teacher and learners seemed to involve learners putting in effort in their own time but having their independent learning guided by the teacher.

When asked about the characteristics of successful language learners, learners listed *“dedication, determination, confidence in speaking, willingness to just get out there and try, finding excuses to speak the language, ability to learn from mistakes, good learning strategies, patience, resilience and learning is a lifelong process”*. These characteristics can be seen as the approaches needed to keep learners motivated and the goals of being a motivated learner of Chinese. Moreover, in and out of the class, teachers could also see them as valued traits and help students achieve them.

8.1 Introduction

This study has been guided by the overarching research question: What are the nature, dynamics, and strategies of UK adult learners' motivation for learning Chinese? In an attempt to answer this question, Chapters Five, Six and Seven presented the findings of three main research questions and the supporting evidence. Building on those foundations, this chapter discusses how the study's findings contribute to the research area of L2 motivation, its existing theoretical frameworks, and the research methods that have typically been employed to investigate this area. The importance of understanding the nature and dynamics of L2 motivation and the significance of instructions and strategies for enhancing motivation are also addressed. In terms of the structure of this chapter, the nature of the study is briefly restated in Section 8.2. Following this, overviews of the main findings for each sub-research question are provided in Sections 8.3 to 8.5. Finally, a summary of this chapter is presented in Section 8.6.

8.2 Overview of the Nature of the Study

A mixed-methods sequential explanatory design, alongside a triangulation design, were used to collect data from three sources: questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. A local survey within one university and a national survey across the UK were conducted to investigate CFL learner motivation. Learners from the local university were surveyed with the same questionnaire at two different time points. Both learners and teachers were interviewed concerning their perceptions of motivational teaching practices in class. Learners from the national survey were also interviewed about their learning strategies outside the class, including strategies for generating and maintaining motivation.

Longitudinal classroom observation with two levels of Chinese classes was conducted in the local university throughout the term.

Furthermore, data on teachers' behaviours were collected during the observation scheme, data on students' attitudes were collected via post-lesson questionnaires for each lesson, and interviews with the observed teacher and students were conducted after the term. Therefore, using this approach, the current study sought to corroborate and complement the perspectives of both learners and teachers. The quantitative and qualitative data were synthesised because of the partial overlap of the participants in the different data sets. Consequently, the study presents a detailed picture of the nature of adult CFL motivation, including its structural characteristics, dynamic fluctuation, the factors that can cause demotivation, the relationship between teaching behaviour and student motivation, and various motivational strategies relating to what teachers employ in the classroom and learners adopt outside class in post-compulsory education in the UK.

8.3 Discussion of Research Question 1: The Nature of the Motivation for Learning Chinese in the UK

The findings from Research Question 1 extend our understanding of the nature of CFL motivation. Section 8.3.1 firstly summarises the four initial CFL motivation types from the findings; Section 8.3.2 then proposes two ways of classifying CFL motivation; a seven-factor model of CFL motivation is discussed in Section 8.3.3; two circular models of CFL motivation are constructed in Section 8.3.4; and finally, a three-level framework of CFL motivation is presented in Section 8.3.5.

8.3.1 Initial Motivation Types for CFL

The answers to Research Question 1 were drawn from the main findings presented in Section 5.2 in Chapter Five. For Research Question 1 - (a), four initial types of motivation from the questionnaire were summarised as: (1) being cosmopolitan; (2) having a respectful

teacher; (3) viewing China positively; and (4) instrumentality. These four types could be interpreted as (1) learners who were interested in diverse cultures, had previously learnt different languages and who were learning Chinese as a third language; (2) learners who met an inspiring and supportive teacher in the past and had a positive classroom learning experience that encouraged them to keep learning; (3) learners who had positive attitudes towards Chinese culture and may have had unique China/Chinese people-related experiences; and (4) learners who perceived enhanced career prospects from learning Chinese, especially young people or university students. Six main reasons for choosing to learn Chinese emerged as initial types of motivation from the interviews: (1) appreciation of the value of learning languages and cultures; (2) having Chinese contacts; (3) having positive views of China; (4) having interests and previous experience of foreign language learning; (5) having unique life experiences; and (6) having a supportive and sympathetic teacher.

From synthesising these quantitative and qualitative findings, an important overarching profile of learners of Chinese that emerged was what is referred to in this study as “cosmopolitans”. These learners, which included those with instrumental, integrative or mixed motivations, have foreign language learning experiences, an interest in Chinese culture and positive views on China from certain Chinese contacts or travel experiences. They also may have experienced a sympathetic teaching approach from a supportive teacher during their Chinese learning journeys. More specifically, they can be described as possessing an open mind and enjoying trying new things. Therefore, learning a difficult language could satisfy their desire for challenge and improve their sense of achievement. In addition, participants reported being attracted to the Chinese language because it differs from European languages; these differences aroused their curiosity and interest. Therefore, their experiences of communicating with Chinese native speakers were rich, and their willingness to continue to engage with native speakers was high. Another general profile of learners of

Chinese in this study was those participants who could foresee the importance of the Chinese language in relation to China's growing global political and economic influence, with potential career benefits for university-age participants. For older learners, especially those who were retired, interest in China and Chinese philosophy seemed to be the main attraction.

8.3.2 Two Ways of Classifying CFL

This study found that the motivation for adult learners of Chinese in the UK varied between individuals, that individuals had complex motivations, and that their motivation was susceptible to various factors. Therefore, it was impossible to dichotomise their motivation as being either instrumental or integrated. Section 2.4.1 established why this dichotomy is not ideal for understanding the instructed language learning environment. Previous research on L2 motivation classification has also developed from classifying intrinsic/extrinsic motivation to the Ideal L2 Self and the Ought-to L2 Self in various frameworks (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gardner, 1985) (see Section 2.4). **When coding the data, the researcher used various terminologies, including the instrumental/integrative and extrinsic/intrinsic motivation established from previous L2 motivation studies.** However, all these studies were in EFL learning contexts. In terms of the motivation for learning Chinese, Ding's (2015) quantitative research classified the motivation for international students in China as "opportunity", "experience", "career development", "intrinsic interest", and "significant others influence".

When summarising the data, especially connecting the qualitative data from the interview to the comprehensive data that emerged from the classroom observation, the researcher tried to propose a new dichotomy that best suits Chinese L3 learning in the context of this study. Inspired by previous classifications, the findings from the current study suggest that the motivation for learning Chinese in the UK context can be classified in two ways. The first presents motivation for learning Chinese as either "learning outcome focused

motivation” or “learning process focused motivation”. The second presents it as “interest-based motivation”, “pragmatic-based motivation”, or “interest-pragmatic combined motivation”.

Using the first classification, learners in this study with “learning outcome-focused motivation” were those who were learning Chinese for professional or family purposes. Those with a professional purpose needed to communicate with Chinese customers or colleagues. Thus, for them, mastering certain Chinese language abilities and Chinese business etiquette could be helpful for work. Learners with family purposes either had a partner or other family members who were native Chinese speakers. For them, communicating with their family members became a dominant learning need and motivation. In contrast, learners with “learning process focused motivation” were either satisfied with attaining a smattering of Chinese and did not necessarily want in-depth knowledge of the language, or those who selected Chinese as a different foreign language to learn as part of a range of interest-orientated activities. These motivations had different strengths and levels of sustainability.

Using the second classification, the keywords mentioned in the learner interviews were “interest”, “culture”, “travel”, “partner”, “career”, and “business”. The common cases were classified into three categories. Learners with “interest-based motivation” were those whose curiosity about Chinese culture and desire for exploration had been triggered. Learners with “pragmatic-based motivation” were those who saw the direct benefits that learning Chinese could bring to their lives. The “interest-pragmatic combined motivation” was evident in learners who perceived multidimensional value in learning Chinese as a widely spoken and emerging language.

Specifically, learners with “interest-based motivation” thought Chinese itself was fascinating or Chinese characters were beautiful. They also had an initial interest in Chinese

culture, especially food and art. They even saw learning Chinese as a form of entertainment which could offer them a channel to understand a very different culture compared to their own. Learners with “pragmatic-based motivation” had more opportunities to use the language at work, on business trips in China, and in their future careers, or to communicate with families, friends, and neighbours. Finally, those who combined their interest with pragmatic needs tended to believe in China’s positive prospects and that learning Chinese would enhance the possibility that they could one day work or live in China. In the quantitative findings, from the seven items with the highest mean scores, two could be taken to be “interest-based motivation” – “I am interested in the values and customs of other cultures” and “I appreciate the values and customs of other cultures”. Another two could be seen as “pragmatic-based motivation” – “If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak its language” and “I think that being able to speak Chinese would help me to become a more knowledgeable person”.

The closest motivation theory to these classifications is intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in SDT (see Section 2.5.1). For example, “learning process focused motivation” and “interest-based motivation” are related to “intrinsic motivation” when learners initiate activities because they are interesting and satisfying. On the other hand, “learning outcome focused motivation” and “pragmatic-based motivation” are related to “extrinsic motivation” when learners aim to achieve external goals. The taxonomy of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is based on the degree of internalisation, which refers to the active attempt to transform extrinsic motivation into personally endorsed values and to assimilate original external behavioural regulations (Ryan, 1995). Different degrees of internalisation can also help to explain the different proportions of intrinsic motivation in “interest-pragmatic combined motivation”.

8.3.3 Seven Motivational Factors of CFL

From the findings from Research Question 1 - (b), seven factors emerged as CFL motivation characteristics via the statistical analysis techniques of EFA and ML (see Section 5.3.1) and the seven-factor model of CFL motivation is shown in Section 5.3.2 in Chapter Five. The seven-factor model of CFL motivation (see Figure 5.1) that this study proposes highlights seven unique characteristics of Chinese as a foreign/L2/L3 language for adult learners in the UK, and it was constructed to illustrate the interconnections among factors. This figure presents the key issues most relevant to adult Chinese learning motivation in Anglophone countries, distinguished from existing English as L2 motivation theories. The names of these factors may look similar to some learning cycles and motivational models, but they are specific to the Chinese learning context, which adds understanding and makes a novel contribution to LOTE's motivation research and L3 motivation studies. For example, these factors include the perceived value of China and perceived benefits of learning Chinese, attitude to learning Chinese, teaching support from their Chinese teacher, confidence about learning Chinese, and Chinese cultural engagement.

“Perceived Value” in Chinese learning was found to be this study’s most prominent motivational factor. This coincides with the findings of several previous studies of instrumental motivation. For instance, Wen (2013) found that instrumentality, such as engaging in future international jobs, was a significant factor in the perception of the usefulness of learning Chinese among lower-level American university students. A similar finding was seen among Australian university students in Campbell and Storch’s (2011) study, which suggested that language choice was closely related to personal goals and beliefs about China’s future and the link to potential job opportunities. Moreover, Wen and Piao’s (2020) research found that learners of Chinese in US universities had utilitarian-oriented motivation, and they perceived that Chinese language competence would benefit their

careers, especially for those in lower proficiency groups. The learners in their study also envisioned conversations with their Chinese friends and travelling to Chinese-speaking countries.

Among the seven items under the category of “Perceived Value” in the questionnaire of the present study, “making friends with people from China” had a more integrative orientation, while “speaking Chinese would help my future career prospects” and “speaking Chinese would help me become a more knowledgeable person” had a more instrumental orientation. The remaining four items – “I believe Chinese will be an internationally important language one day”; “I think Chinese is a relevant language in the world today”; “I think Chinese is a relevant language in the world today”; and “I think that China is an advanced and developed nation”, relate to how the participants perceived the position of China and Chinese language in the world. Learning Chinese may bring learners mixed integrative and instrumental benefits, which can be seen as diverse values. Section 5.2.9 also reported that learners in the current study had mixed instrumental and integrative motivations for learning a language, although the proportion of each differed individually. Therefore, the values of learning CFL are multidimensional and can be covered by “Perceived Value”. Indeed, this may be why it emerged as the leading motivational factor.

In the multiple regression analysis that explored what predicts “Perceived Value”, “Perceived Value” was the dependent variable, and the six other items were independent variables. “Attitude”, “Intention”, and “Milieu” proved to be significant positive predictors for “Perceived Value”, and of these “Attitude” exhibited the strongest effect. Positive attitudes towards the culture and the people behind the language was the second most significant motivational factor. Of the five items under “Attitude” in the questionnaire, three items – “I always look forward to my Chinese classes”, “Going to classes to learn Chinese is important to me”, and “If a Chinese course was offered in the future, I would like to take it”

were related to attitudes towards in-class learning. This demonstrates the importance of the classroom learning experience in an instructed learning environment.

Previous studies have found that a positive attitude towards one's learning experiences could also be a motivational factor because a positive learning experience can generate stronger self-concept-related motivation and even new learning goals. For example, this was discovered in Wen and Piao's (2020) qualitative study on American university CFL students. Another item in the questionnaire – "If I could have access to Chinese speaking videos, I would watch them help me learn Chinese" – is related to the attitude towards the L2 culture or the autonomy of practising listening skills. These attitudes will enhance learners' personal interest and intrinsic motivation to improve a particular learning area and will facilitate their engagement with their goals in the learning process. This finding supports Fryer's (2019) view that individual differences in learning interests are a sustainable source of language motivation.

"Having a supportive teacher" was previously identified as one of the initial motivation types (see Section 5.2). "Teacher support" was then identified as one of the CFL motivation factors in this study, and it is the only factor that exhibited a significant change between the surveys conducted at Time 1 and Time 2 (see Section 6.2.1). Nine items in the questionnaire related to the rapport, respect and trust between the teacher and students. The learner interview findings also highlighted the teacher's positive and negative impact on learning (see Sections 6.3.2 and 6.3.3). Indeed, teachers play an important role in providing a motivating environment by adopting various approaches and organising differing learning activities so that learners find lessons more enjoyable (Khorshidi & Nimchahi, 2013; Sucaromana, 2013). The relationship between the teacher's behaviour and learners' motivation and how teacher-related factors influence the fluctuation of learners' motivation, and even in certain circumstances, their demotivation, will be discussed in Section 8.4.

Confidence and anxiety relate to the concept of self-efficacy, especially in language learning scenarios. Self-efficacy in language learning is about learner's judgement of their capabilities to successfully complete a specific language learning task through their own actions, and this perceived competence is a powerful motivational factor; confidence in language learning is a positive self-belief in one's own language aptitude; anxiety is one of the strongest negative emotions manifest in language learning that is normally situationally dependent and has also been found to be negatively related to self-efficacy (Mills et al., 2006). Learners are also likely to experience anxiety in foreign language classes because of the ego-threatening nature of using the foreign language, which is called 'pink dress anxiety' by Horwitz (2007, p.45) and linked to personality traits such as neuroticism and perfectionism (Dewaele, 2017). In addition, learners' discomfort of standing out because of their imperfect mastery of the foreign language may affect their ability to establish authentic connections with native speakers and cause them to lose opportunities for practice, which may affect their general self-efficacy in foreign language learning. However, confident learners may create more practice opportunities and be more willing to communicate, and good feelings about speaking the target language and getting appreciated by native speakers may give them positive feedback or a sense of reward, which may then reinforce their self-efficacy in language learning.

"Confidence" in this study draws on the notion of linguistic self-confidence (Clément, 1980; Clément et al., 1994) and social and communicative anxiety (Leary, 1991). The six items under "Confidence" in the questionnaire contained keywords like "difficult", "nervous", "confused", "uneasy", "anxious" and "uncomfortable". These reflected the negative feelings and emotions that sometimes arise during CFL learning, which were presented in Section 6.3.3.1. The questions were reverse coded for the analysis, meaning that higher scores indicated higher confidence and lower anxiety. "Confidence" here indicated

learners with high confidence or low anxiety in relation to CFL learning. This factor received the lowest mean score among the seven factors, generally indicating low confidence in CFL learning. In the multiple regression analysis that explored what predicts “Perceived Value”, “Confidence” proved to be a significant negative predictor. Specifically, higher “Confidence” predicted lower “Perceived Value”, a finding which is surprising (see Section 5.3.5). A possible reason for this result is that when learners attach great value to learning Chinese and take the learning seriously, they place higher expectations on themselves, and this results in them feeling excessive pressure. Consequently, their anxiety levels rise, and their confidence levels drop.

However, it is relevant to note that this finding diverges from previous studies. For instance, Wang and Piao (2020) found that a high degree of self-confidence and a sense of satisfaction from adult learners’ CFL efforts provide them pleasure in continued learning engagement. Previous studies have also found that positive interactions could strengthen motivation and inspire participants to react to environmental challenges; therefore, having appropriate expectations of learning Chinese supports their continued commitment to achieving their goals (Loh, 2019). In addition, as Wen (2013) found in her study on American university CFL learners, self-confidence was significant in predicting intended future Chinese study, especially among an advanced group of learners where linguistic self-confidence became more robust.

This relates to people’s judgement about their capabilities to successfully carry out a certain task, and this perceived competence is a powerful motivational factor. Efficacy beliefs are rooted in the notion that one has the power to produce effects by one’s actions (Bandura, 1997, 2001) (see Section 2.5.4). In this context, the core belief for learners is that they can perform well in CFL learning and achieve their goals, and it influences how much effort they expend and how long they are willing to persevere with CFL learning. Learners with a low

sense of self-efficacy may perceive difficulties in CFL learning as a personal threat and easily lose faith in their capabilities. If this happens, they are likely to give up. In contrast, a strong sense of self-efficacy reinforces learners' achievement behaviours with confidence and sustains their efforts in the face of possible failure.

The remaining factor, "Cultural Engagement", is related to intrinsic motivation. It comes into play when students' natural curiosity and interest energise their learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985). "Intention" is related to intended effort, which could trigger the mechanisms of self-regulatory strategies and learner autonomy. It helps to develop a plausible and concrete intention to learn that sustains motivation (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Finally, "Milieu" denotes how learners view Chinese learning within the environment. This is important as the learning environment can affect learners' motivation. This finding echoes Wen and Piao's (2020) study that found motivated learners tend to react positively to learning adversity and unexpected challenges arising from the environment. The interaction between the learning environment and motivation, and the questions of whether the relationship is bidirectional and how learners and their motivation react and reshape the environment in CFL, need further research.

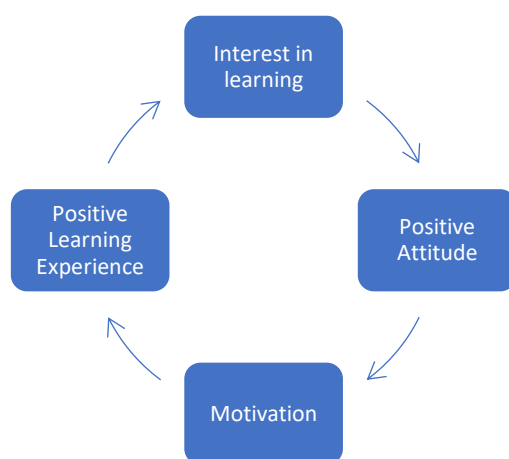
Although these seven factors have been used to conceptualise EFL motivation in previous studies, the current study adds certain valuable nuances that pertain to CFL motivation in particular. On the one hand, the identification of these seven factors indicates that CFL and EFL motivation share the same elements, especially the aspects that are common to all language learning; on the other hand, it underlines the uniqueness of CFL motivation in certain contexts and the inappropriateness of simply adopting an EFL motivation framework to understand CFL.

8.3.4 Circular Models of CFL Motivation

CFL motivation was found to be circular in nature in this study. A closed loop consisting of “interest in learning – positive attitude – motivation – positive learning experience – interest in learning” can describe how motivation acts as an agent in the Chinese learning journey. Participants’ personal reasons for enrolling on Chinese courses included having initial cultural interests and travel experiences involving cultural immersion that led to their positive views of China. These positive views of China brought about by cultural interests and experiences relating to China then generated the motivation and action for learning Chinese. In response, the positive Chinese learning experience encouraged learners to develop their interests and to seek out more experiences involving China, such as travelling to China, which might ensure that learners remain motivated to study Chinese, as shown in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8. 1

First Circular Model of CFL Motivation

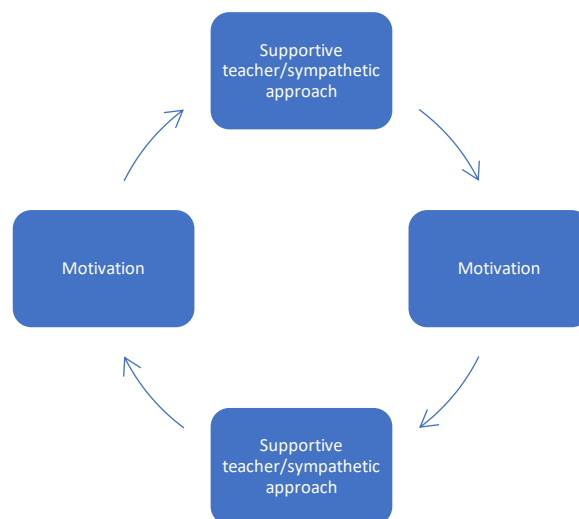


Another CFL motivational loop conceived by this study is “supportive teacher/sympathetic approach – motivation – supportive teacher/sympathetic approach – motivation”. Specifically, when learners developed an initial motivation for learning Chinese

elsewhere by themselves, having a supportive teacher and classroom environment was vital for them to remain on the course and to persist with their studies. If they enjoyed in-class learning, they would maintain their motivation, or their motivation might be enhanced as a result of the positive learning experience, which would then drive continuous learning. Therefore, a positive cycle, as shown in Figure 8.2, develops.

Figure 8. 2

Second Circular Model of CFL Motivation



It is noteworthy that teachers' affective assistance can improve students' beliefs in their abilities to complete tasks and can positively impact their confidence (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Wong (2008) also suggested that teachers' preparation and assistance have a positive impact on students' intellectual and emotional development. Moreover, teachers can play an important role in learner motivation, acting as a source of knowledge, a resource provider, and a supporter of classroom learning. In other words, teachers can sow the seeds to nurture independent and autonomous language learners, especially at the beginner level (Lam, 2020).

These models are based on findings from the qualitative data collected from the interviews with participants in both the national survey and the classroom observations. It

was decided that an interview was the best way to shed light on the full picture of the learners' stories with insights that correlation analysis cannot provide, allowing participants to reflect on their learning journey and provide a clear explanation of their points and an expression of their feelings. The researcher could then compare the nuanced motivation profiles among all individuals and look for commonality. As a result, two patterns emerged, as shown in Figures 8.1 and 8.2, demonstrating the circular nature of CFL motivation.

8.3.5 Three Levels of CFL Motivation

Dörnyei (1994) conceptualised L2 motivation within a framework which comprises three relatively distinct levels: “the Language Level”, “the Learner Level”, and “the Learning Situation Level” (see Section 2.4.2 in Chapter Two). These levels “coincide with the three basic constituents of the L2 learning process (the L2, the L2 learner, and the L2 learning environment) and also reflect the three different aspects of language mentioned earlier (the social dimension, the personal dimension, and the educational subject matter dimension)” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.279). Given the value of Dörnyei's analysis, the seven factors of CFL motivation extracted via EFA in this study were compared to the elements in his framework's three levels to test whether CFL motivation can be conceptualised as a tripartite construct comprising social, personal, and educational dimensions.

The first level – “the Language Level” – focuses on learners' orientations and motives related to the culture that the L2 conveys and the potential usefulness of being proficient in it. These motives determine learning goals and explain language choice, which can be described by the two dimensions defined by Gardner (1985) – the “integrative motivational subsystem” and the “instrumental motivational subsystem”. The integrative motivational subsystem consists of individuals' L2-related social, cultural, and ethnolinguistic components and a general interest in foreignness and foreign languages. The instrumental motivational

subsystem includes well-internalised extrinsic motives surrounding individuals' future career goals.

In this study, two factors identified from EFA – “Cultural Engagement” and “Perceived Value” – represented the cultural interests of CFL learners in the sample and the career benefits that CFL learning can bring. Thematically, “Perceived Value” and “Cultural Engagement” could be seen as two CFL motivational subsystems respectively that correspond to Gardner’s (1985) instrumental and integrative motivational subsystems.

The second level – the Learner Level – involves “a complex of affects and cognitions that form fairly stable personality traits” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.279). Self-confidence can be identified as a component which underlies motivational processes, including various aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions about past experiences, and self-efficacy. In this study, the factor of “Confidence” identified via EFA aligned with Dörnyei’s Learner Level. Another two factors – “Attitude” and “Intention” – also reflected learners’ personality traits. Specifically, “Attitude” relates to learners’ current determination and enthusiasm for learning CFL, while “Intention” reflects learners’ intended efforts to learn CFL when opportunities to do so emerge.

The third level – the Learning Situation Level – consists of three motivational conditions: “Course-specific, Teacher-specific and Group-specific motivational components” (Dörnyei, 1994, p.280). In this study, the other two factors – “Teacher Support” and “Milieu” – identified from EFA, were relevant to the Learning Situation Level. “Teacher Support” focuses on the instructed learning environment, whereas “Milieu” focuses on the broader environment outside of the classroom. In summary, seven CFL motivation factors could be grouped into these three levels: “Perceived Value” and “Cultural Engagement” can be grouped into the Language Level; “Attitude”, “Confidence”, and “Intention” can be grouped

into the Learner Level; and “Teacher Support” and “Milieu” can be grouped into the Learning Situation Level.

To conclude this section, it is necessary to emphasise that all L2 motivation research should consider the learner group, course setting, and the unique and dynamic learning environment. This is vital as the individual learner, the composition of the learner group, the teacher, their teaching approach, the structure of the course and the socio-cultural context all impact motivation and learning performance. There has been an increase in awareness that language learning motivation must be understood in multifaceted ways in diverse linguistic contexts. However, how learners “reconcile their own linguistic identities and aspirations, as well as local, familiar, socio-political and educational discourse and perspective of others that bear on their decisions and dispositions” (Duff, 2017, p.605), is still a critical topic for educators and applied linguists and the understanding of L2 motivation in the UK context. This section has demonstrated both the breadth and depth of CFL motivation research and its potential to contribute to L2 education and SLA research in the future.

8.4 Discussion of Research Question 2: The Motivational Dynamics for Learning Chinese in the UK

For Research Question 2, this study found that fluctuations in CFL motivation happened over time in students’ learning journeys. This was evident from both the longitudinal questionnaire and class observation data. This study also established that the causes of demotivation came from interrelated factors pertaining to the individual, the teaching that they experienced, and social and environmental factors. The evidence from this study suggests that teachers’ motivational strategies in the classroom had an impact on the students’ motivation and contributed to their fluctuations in motivation. These findings add to the literature that suggests teachers and teaching are the main reasons for demotivation. To examine these issues in more detail, Section 8.4.1 summarises how CFL motivation

fluctuates over time; Section 8.4.2 discusses the factors that influence this fluctuation; Section 8.4.3 discusses the reasons behind CFL demotivation; Section 8.4.5 discusses the relationship between motivational teaching practices and learner behaviour in Chinese classes in the context of this study.

8.4.1 CFL Motivation Fluctuation Over Time

The longitudinal quantitative findings from the paired-sample t-tests undertaken in this study showed that the learners had a fairly stable motivation strength from the middle to the end of the learning process. This was clear from the fact that the factors of “Perceived Value”, “Attitude”, “Confidence”, “Cultural Engagement”, “Intention”, and “Milieu” did not exhibit a statistically significant increase or decrease from Time 1 to Time 2. In fact, the only significant difference between the two time-points was for “Teacher Support”. Specifically, there was a statistically significant increase in “Teacher Support” from Time 1 to Time 2, and the mean change in this factor’s (Time 2 minus Time 1) score was .43 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -.74 to -.13. The fact that the students were taught by different teachers during the study may explained it. This result supported the findings, which are reported in the next section, about the teacher/teaching being a key factor, as learners’ experience in teacher’s support emerged as a significant variable in the paired-sample t-tests.

This current study on the fluctuations in motivation was not designed to find if learners’ motivation type changes over time. The researcher did not explore in detail in the interviews if there was a possible transition of motivation orientation throughout the students’ learning journeys. However, it is relevant to note that a previous study found that motivation for learning Chinese displayed a transition from the Ought-to Self to the Ideal Self (Wen & Piao, 2020). In particular, learners in that study changed their perspectives on the utility of the Chinese language, foreign language learning requirements, and/or family/friends’ expectations, and they developed a desired L2 self. Consequently, their motivation was

reconfigured from extrinsic motivation to an intrinsic desire to achieve a higher level of competence. Further research on this possible transition of motivation orientation in the context of UK HE and FE is needed.

8.4.2 The Factors Influencing these Fluctuations

The factors influencing the fluctuation of learners' motivation included three teacher-related factors and three non-teacher-related ones. Specifically, the three pedagogical issues found in the observed classes were: confusion caused by bad classroom organisation, lack of pedagogical knowledge, and an inappropriate approach to students' proficiency level. The three non-pedagogical issues were: anxiety about learning Chinese, which is considered a challenging language, learning difficulties especially in Chinese characters, and the nature of additional/non-degree language learning. These issues echo previous research. For instance, studies from Ding (2015, 2016) also found pedagogical influences on students' CFL motivation, including teaching methods, influence from classmates in class, and textbooks. However, using a MANOVA analysis, she also found that learners' age, ethnic backgrounds, degree subjects, socio-cultural identities, attitudes, resilience and linguistic confidence were significant factors which were not found in the current study.

Previous studies have found that motivation and how it fluctuates vary among individuals, that learners in the same classroom may respond differently to the same instruction, and learners may have divergent responses depending on the different emotions and dispositions of their peers at different learning stages (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). A study found that while some learners' motivation appeared to drop, which was evident through less engaged behaviours when they had negative classroom experiences, the overall long-term motivation of some learners may be unaffected (Campbell & Storch 2011). Furthermore, motivation fluctuation rates vary between learners of different proficiency levels. For example, Falout and Maruyama (2004) found that low-achieving students tended

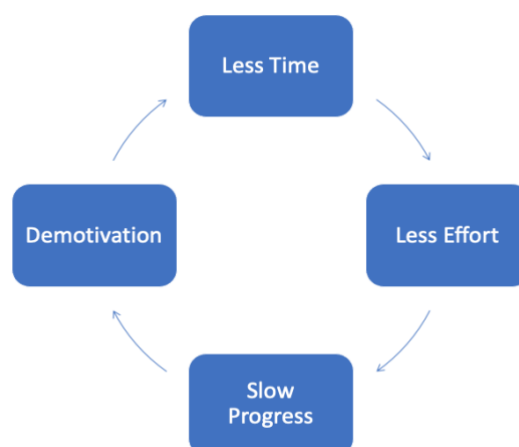
to attribute declining motivation to their own abilities and use the prior experience as evidence, while learners with higher skills tended to attribute it to external sources, such as rote learning methods or the attitudes of their teachers. Falout et al. (2009) also found that learners with lower proficiencies were less able to cope with demotivating incidents in the classroom (see Csizér, 2017).

8.4.3 The Causes of CFL Demotivation

Similar to the two circular models of CFL motivation that were discussed in Section 8.3.4, a circular perspective was also found with regards to CFL demotivation: “less time – less effort – slow progress – demotivation – less time”. When learners allocate less time to CFL learning either because of their main degree studies or personal commitments, less effort is devoted to learning, resulting in slow progress and even demotivation. This loop is shown in Figure 8.3. This was found from an open question in the questionnaire survey which asked participants to provide specific reasons for any demotivation that they had experienced. In the national survey, eight learners also mentioned that a lack of time to invest in learning Chinese caused them to reduce their effort, which further slowed their progress and resulted in demotivation.

Figure 8. 3

A Circular Model of CFL Demotivation



The findings of this study identified that anxiety about learning Chinese that arose when learners encountered difficulties during their learning journeys, together with inappropriate pedagogy and the influence of the media and the COVID-19 pandemic, might develop into demotivation triggers. This partially accords with Wen and Piao's (2020) findings about the factors that led to demotivation among US university CFL students, such as course load, peer pressure, unsuitable instruction, and Chinese character challenges.

Previous research on learners' individual differences, ranging from their personalities to varying anxiety triggers, has consistently demonstrated that various learner attributes, including motivation, are the key to why many L2 learners fail to achieve their language learning goals (Dörnyei, 2005). It is clear that considerable personal resilience and effort are necessary to achieve L2 success, especially when learners have few opportunities for communicative practice in their daily lives (Lamb et al., 2019). In the context of learning Chinese at a distance, such as in the UK, requirements for learner resilience and effort are even more substantial, as the opportunities for communication in Chinese are likely to be much fewer than if one was learning another European language. A lack of practice causes slow progress, resulting in frustration which often leads to further reduced effort and negative learning outcomes. This is true even among highly goal-driven and achievement-oriented L2 learners, and such a downward spiral of negative learning experiences could easily cause demotivation (Lamb et al., 2019). In addition, Chinese language learning in the context of this study was perceived as a non-priority task as the participants were undertaking their additional Chinese courses at a time when travelling to China was difficult due to the pandemic. Therefore, the lack of a supportive milieu was found to be a demotivational trigger.

Low self-efficacy might be a factor that influences learner motivation, especially when learners encounter obstacles. This is because self-efficacy beliefs are constituted from

successful performance, judgements from others and positive emotions arising from classroom experiences. Consequently, teachers help to shape self-efficacy and have a long-term impact on learner success (Bandura, 2001). Learners with low self-efficacy may have had an unpleasant learning experience, or their formal language learning experiences may not have given them enough confidence or mitigated their anxiety.

Another important issue identified by participants in the current study was learning difficulties relating to Chinese characters. Learners reported that the study of characters requires great effort, and slow progress in mastering characters causes them anxiety. The difficulties in Chinese character learning for Western learners have been found in previous studies (De Francis, 1984; Lu & Song, 2017). As the only language with an ideographic writing system that is still widely used globally, the uniqueness of Chinese characters indeed causes learners significant difficulties, a lack of confidence, and potential demotivation in their learning journeys. The anxiety about learning the Chinese language, especially the Chinese characters and its impact on learners' motivation, was discussed in Section 6.3.4 in Chapter Six.

A significant amount of evidence emerged from this study that suggests that learners can be demotivated by what happens in the language classroom. Studies have suggested that frustrating classroom experiences can engender negative attitudes, undermine confidence, and discourage practice outside of the classroom for some learners (e.g., Busse & Walter, 2013; Lamb, 2011). Several studies have explicitly identified teachers as a significant source of demotivation (e.g., Falout & Maruyama, 2004). Therefore, teacher-related factors were investigated as a source of demotivation in the current study. The evidence that this study generated for the role of teachers in triggering demotivation is consistent with previous studies, which suggest that teacher-related factors, such as teaching methods and teachers'

personalities, were the main source of demotivation (e.g., Kim & Seo, 2012; Lee & Kim, 2014; Wang & Littlewood, 2021).

The findings of this study are also consistent with Ding's (2015) research which indicated that CFL demotivation arises from inappropriate teaching methods and unsatisfactory learning experiences, such as a very fast teaching pace, few opportunities to practice speaking, excessive teacher-centred talking, too much new vocabulary to learn in one class, and the overuse of the target language which learners struggle to fully understand. In contrast, the enhancement of motivation stems from effective teaching methods and a pleasant learning environment, such as a relaxed class atmosphere, prompt feedback from teachers, an appropriate level of mistake correction, interesting and thought-provoking content, a well-designed curriculum, flexible module choices, and oral and written practice.

The problems of Chinese pedagogy identified in the current study confirm Orton's (2011, p.163) finding: "without the support of sound pedagogy, increasing the numbers taking up Chinese under the guidance of minimally educated teachers is likely to lead to huge attrition rates in a few years when students, discouraged by their lack of progress, decide to quit". Orton (2011, p.158-159) also put forward three principal areas of challenge in educating Chinese language teachers, which indicated why teachers or teaching might lead to demotivation: "the nature of the linguistic systems and the lack of research into it; the richness of the cultural heritage and its differences from the Western tradition; and the relative weakness of student teachers of Chinese in linguistic and intercultural competence". The current study found that the lack of pedagogical knowledge, delivering knowledge at an inappropriate level for students, and confusing class organisation comprise three negative impacts from teachers on students. These findings align with Orton's views.

Previous research has discovered there is often limited training for teachers of Chinese in Western settings (Wright, 2019; Zhang & Li, 2010). Native Mandarin teachers

who have been trained in the educational environment of China, where students expect to be led by teachers, may prefer a more teacher-centred classroom management style than Western colleagues who are typically trained to adopt a more learner-centred teaching approach (Ping, 2009). Echoing previous research, the current study also found that teachers from China often lack sufficient knowledge and experience to use the learner-centred approach that has been accepted and implemented in the Western world for several decades. In addition, the lack of understanding of Western learners and cultural differences regarding teacher-student relationships and power dynamics may lead to misunderstandings in the classroom. Finally, the issue of overemphasising Chinese culture might cause potential antipathy among students who may feel that Chinese language classes are overly Sinocentric.

Although numerous studies have identified teachers or other classroom factors as the key source of learner demotivation, there are unquestionably other sources of demotivation which are beyond the direct control of teachers (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). These sources include “societal discourses, nationally imposed curricula, assessment regimes and low investment in language education” (Lamb, 2017, p.328). For example, UK media attitudes towards L2 learning are an example of the societal discourses that have a negative effect on L2 learning (e.g., Lanvers & Coleman, 2017). In the present study, the attitudes or perceptions about the Chinese language and culture and the values that learners hold concerning learning Chinese were influenced by the contextual background of the increasingly tense political relationship between China and the Western world, anti-Asian racism, and xenophobic violence linked to the COVID-19 pandemic.

8.4.4 The Relationship between Motivational Teaching Practices and Learner Behaviour

The correlation analysis of the classroom observation data uncovered a significant positive correlation between teachers’ behaviour in class and the strength of students’ motivation (see Section 6.3.1.1 in Chapter Six). These quantitative findings were illuminated

by the qualitative data, which indicated the reasons that underpin this phenomenon. Specifically, “Teacher Activity Design” from the observation scheme and “Motivation” from the learner questionnaire were significantly correlated with each other in one of the observed classes. This reinforces the notion that teachers play an essential role in nurturing and strengthening learner motivation in class, that they promote learning effort and outcomes, and that they encourage continued learning (Lamb, 2017). “Enjoyment” from the student questionnaire data was significantly correlated with the teacher’s behaviour from the class observation data, including items such as “Social Chat”, “Stating Communicative Purpose/Utility of Activity”, “Arousing Curiosity or Attention”, “Personalisation”, and “Creative/Interesting/Fantasy”. This means that learners enjoy the class more when the teacher uses more diverse strategies, including having chats with students and giving them personal attention, making the lesson interesting and creative, and providing explanations to them. “Personalisation” was correlated with “Support”, which means that when the teacher gives personal advice and individual care to the students, the students could perceive a more supportive classroom learning environment. These findings illustrate how teachers’ behaviour in class impact students’ motivation and enjoyment of the classroom learning experience. This provides the rationale for why L2 motivation research in instructed learning contexts needs to pay more attention to teachers, teaching, and classroom experiences.

In addition, within the student questionnaire data, learners’ motivation was highly correlated with the enjoyment that they experienced and the support that they received in class. This confirms the finding of the circular model – “supportive teacher/sympathetic approach – motivation – supportive teacher/sympathetic approach – motivation”. This means the more support that learners get from the teacher, the more supportive they perceive the class environment to be, and in turn, the more enjoyment they would get from the positive

learning experience. Consequently, higher motivation and continuous learning efforts will be generated.

A previous study found a positive relationship between teachers' use of motivational strategies and students' motivational behaviours, particularly regarding their attention, participation and volunteering for classroom activities (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Echoing with that study, the findings from the current study make it clear that a supportive teacher can be seen as a motivator in the learning process. The nature of language learning experiences was also found to be an important determinant in the efforts that students expend to learn an L2, and the effects of classroom-related factors may be more influential than that of the ideal L2 self for secondary school learners (Dörnyei, 2011). These findings emphasise the importance of studying learner behaviour, especially in their classroom learning experiences, and the relationship with motivational teaching practices.

The effect of teachers' use of motivational strategies on students' judgments of their teachers' effectiveness has been explored in previous studies. On the one hand, research has suggested that students' perceptions of their teachers' motivational strategies are positively correlated with their motivation strength (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008), and a positive relationship between teachers' motivational strategies and student motivation has also been found (Alrabai, 2014; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Karimi & Hosseini Zade, 2019; Moskovsky et al., 2013). On the other hand, other studies have suggested that teachers' motivational behaviours do not affect students' perceptions of their teachers' effectiveness and that learners mainly value teachers who give "clear explanations, concrete examples, and feedback on their learning progress" (Greimel-Fuhrmann & Geyer 2003, p.237).

A body of existing research on motivational strategies has focused on the characteristics of effective teachers (Atkinson, 2000; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei, 1994, 1998, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei,

2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013). However, relatively little research has explored the effect of teachers' behaviours on students' judgments of their teachers' effectiveness. Prior research has established that students' perceptions of their teachers' abilities to arouse their motivation can be seen as the most important feature of teachers' perceived effectiveness (Park & Lee, 2006). The current study found that the number of students who attended classes was related to the teaching strategies that were used in the previous class. This means that if more motivational strategies were used in one class, it would lead to more students attending the next class, and conversely, if fewer motivational strategies were used, it would result in lower student attendance in the next class.

8.4.5 Summary of Demotivation Cause

Anecdotal evidence suggest that L3 Chinese learners generally have a high level of self-efficacy and positive attitudes to Chinese learning, highlighted by their interest in signing up for Chinese courses alongside their main degree studies or work, but their motivation may drop as the learning progresses, which could be caused by various personal and social reasons. Many external factors occurring within the learners' personal life may give them temporarily different perceptions of learning Chinese. However, in this study, the predominant cause of learner demotivation was their classroom experiences. Other studies found complex interconnections between learners' emotions and perceptions of their environment (Dewaele et al., 2022), including the classroom environment. Studies also found that the way the course is organised, taught and assessed was linked to a decline in learners' attitudes and motivation, especially when a looming exam at the end of the semester weighed heavily on the mood of the learners (Dewaele et al., 2022).

At the secondary school level in the UK, learners are likely to learn MFL for a qualification; as a result, in exam conditions, school factors may influence how they are taught. However, at HE and FE levels, external pressures like exams may or not be a factor

that influences language teaching and learning. In the context of this study, there are exams set up for language modules in IWLP or language centres in HE institutions, although they are elective modules. At the same time, some language modules are set up without assessment in some HE institutions and most FE institutions, and there is more freedom in the teaching and learning process; the teachers and learners can afford to satisfy an aspect of learner personality or the plurilingual aspect. Therefore, if demotivation or negative emotions are not directly linked with the assessment or other institutional factors, it may be very likely to stem from the core classroom experience in weekly lessons. This study did not focus on how assessment could affect learner motivation, but the rich interview data and longitudinal observations showed that students' learning experiences brought by the teacher and their teaching methods in every class played an essential part in learner motivation and emotions.

8.5 Discussion of Research Question 3: Student and Teacher Views on Effective Ways of Generating and Maintaining Motivation

Prior studies (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998) have noted the substantial role of motivation in L2 learning and the importance of applying useful motivational strategies in language learning and teaching. According to Lamb (2017), the role that teachers' strategies play in motivation may be even more critical in modern foreign language classes in Anglophone countries, where the generation of initial learner motivation is difficult and complex. In these contexts, teachers need to balance the use of traditional carrot and stick techniques to preserve classroom discipline while cultivating learners' long-term interest and identification with the subject, issues which need further sustained analytical attention (Lamb, 2017). The teacher can also implement effective strategies that contribute greatly to learners' remotivation to remedy any demotivation that has arisen from internal and external factors (Wang & Littlewood, 2021).

However, a review of the literature shows that very little research has been undertaken on motivational strategy use for adult CFL learners in the UK. Therefore, the third research question of this study was designed to help identify strategies for generating and maintaining motivation from the perspective of both learners and teachers in the UK. It also aimed to generate a deeper understanding of the reasons behind teachers' motivational strategies. This is vital because teachers play a crucial role in shaping the learning environment, and one of their main tasks is to motivate their students.

The findings from Research Question 3 address the motivational strategies that the teachers in this study used in their Chinese classes. The findings are both from the perspective of the teachers themselves and from the learners and the learning strategies that they used outside of classes. Section 8.5.1 firstly summarises the motivational teaching and learning strategies for CFL learning in this study. Section 8.5.2 then discusses the motivational strategies for CFL learning in class and compares them to the main existing motivational strategy frameworks – Dörnyei's (2001) Motivational Teaching Strategies Framework, Dörnyei's (1994) Three Level Motivational Strategies and Ding's (2014, 2015, 2016) research. Finally, Section 8.5.3 discusses motivational learning strategies for out-of-class learning, including culture, autonomy and resilience.

8.5.1 Summary of the Findings for Research Question 3: Teaching Strategies in Class and Learning Strategies Outside Class from the Perspective of Teachers and Learners

Findings from the interviews with the teachers showed that understanding the educational differences between China and the UK, understanding students' motivation and potential reasons for demotivation, and continuously improving one's English proficiency were the essential factors that influenced the Chinese teachers' selection of appropriate motivational strategies. The participant teachers identified three strategies that they had used in their classes and which they considered being effective. These were adopting a student-centred approach, establishing the right level of challenge, and embracing IT technology to

create an engaging learning environment. The interviews with the learners also showed that sufficient oral practice, cultural input and ensuring an appropriate class composition in terms of students' proficiency level were considered to be the three most helpful classroom activities. In contrast, non-interactive pedagogy and teaching materials, undesirable teacher-student rapport, and intense and demanding classes were seen as the least helpful activities.

In terms of the strategies identified by the learners, teaching in small steps and scaffolding, adopting a sympathetic approach and being encouraging, having suitable lesson materials and presenting learning content in a stimulating way, and encouraging students to increase their Chinese exposure, were proposed as the four most important motivational teaching strategies. The findings also suggest additional cross-cultural differences in the perceptions of motivational teaching practices between teachers with a training background in China and those who were trained in the UK. The main difference concerned lessons being either teacher-centred or student-centred.

The strategies which learners reported that they used for generating motivation included becoming autonomous learners and being aware of the advantages of being an adult learner. Moreover, the strategies identified by the learners for maintaining their motivation included developing self-regulation strategies, maintaining their resilience, adhering to a good learning pace, and remaining willing to continue learning.

8.5.2 Motivational Teaching Strategies in CFL Classes

Research on motivational strategies in language teaching and learning has been mainly conducted in the context of learning English. As the global lingua franca, English is studied in a highly diverse range of contexts. However, the relationships of motivation, context and pedagogy are difficult to characterise or generalise (Ushioda, 2011). Therefore, it should be expected that where Mandarin Chinese is taught in the UK, the particularities of both cultures and the educational context are likely to “render some strategies completely

meaningless” while highlighting others as “particularly prominent” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p.30). The choice of different strategies for teachers in language classes may be affected by differences in learners’ ages, cultures, proficiency levels in the target language, and various other factors. Therefore, teachers must make a judgement on what is appropriate (Lamb, 2017). Given this, it is important to report how the Chinese teachers in this study perceived motivational strategies in CFL classes. This study has also compared the motivational strategies in CFL classes in the UK that emerged from the qualitative data with the strategies in Dörnyei’s two frameworks, which relate to EFL classes, and Ding’s study on CFL classes in China. The results are discussed below.

8.5.2.1 Strategies that Echo Dörnyei’s Motivational Teaching Strategies Framework

Dörnyei (2001b) developed the Motivational Teaching Strategies Framework (see Section 2.3). It is organised according to the teaching process into four categories: creating the basic motivational conditions; generating initial motivation; maintaining and protecting motivation; and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. This framework provides a catalogue of factors that teachers need to consider when implementing learning activities, but it neither can nor should, function as a universally applicable template because its strategies are not “rock-solid golden rules” (Dörnyei, 2001b, p.30). Furthermore, there is no consensus as to which motivational strategies are more effective because of cross-cultural differences such as educational, contextual and linguistic circumstances (Henry et al., 2018). Previous EFL studies that have used this framework (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013) indicate that language teachers’ motivational strategies contribute to L2 learner motivation.

Prior CFL studies (Lam, 2020; Xie, 2011) have also noted the importance of applying this motivational strategy framework in Chinese language learning and teaching, especially in secondary school classes. For example, Lam (2020) applied this framework in an

Anglophone context to investigate the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese and provided empirical evidence to theorise the key principles that sustain and maintain the motivation of Mandarin learners.

Interestingly, the strategies identified in the current study largely follow Dörnyei's (2001b) framework. The current study found that presenting learning content in a stimulating way and adopting a sympathetic and encouraging teaching approach were two strategies proposed by the learners as examples of good teaching practice. In the first category, this confirmed that from the perspective of learners, the strategies of creating a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom and appropriate teacher behaviours are essential for creating basic motivational conditions. In the second category, the findings on generating initial motivation are consistent with the three different elements of Dörnyei's (2001b) framework concerning the strategies for enhancing learners' language-related values and attitudes, increasing learners' expectancy of success, increasing learners' goal-orientedness, and making the teaching materials relevant for the learners and creating realistic learner beliefs. In the third category of the process of maintaining and protecting motivation, this study supports the strategies of making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivational way, setting specific learner goals, protecting learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, promoting cooperation among learners, creating learner autonomy and promoting self-motivating learner strategies. However, in the fourth category, the findings from this study did not directly support the last element of Dörnyei's (2001b) framework, consisting of strategies for encouraging positive self-evaluation, especially in providing motivational feedback and increasing learner satisfaction.

The current study's findings are also consistent with Lam's (2020) recommendation relating to making learning stimulating and enjoyable. Lam (2020) pointed out that this can

be achieved by using games and competitions with pedagogical purposes and ensuring that classes are well-organised. In the current study, the inclusion of interactive activities and challenging tasks was also frequently mentioned by participants. Moreover, Lam (2020) also suggested that culture was one of the most influential impetuses for sustaining and enhancing students' language learning motivation. Consequently, she stated that integrating Chinese culture into GCSE Mandarin teaching is vital. In the adult class in the present study, the strategy of developing cultural awareness among the learners regarding the target language community was also emphasised by both the teachers and the learners. Indeed, the participants generally agreed that learning about culture is not independent of linguistic development but rather that the two are complementary. As a result, cultural elements should be incorporated into different aspects of learning, from the study of Chinese characters to the development of the four skills.

Lam (2020, p.221) found that the most significant motivational strategy in CFL class was protecting learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence by implementing "Mandarin-specific language pedagogy to build fundamental knowledge of learners, including pinyin, knowledge of radicals, lexical compounding and grammar formulas". However, in contrast to Lam's (2020) findings, no direct evidence of a Mandarin-specific motivational strategy that referred to the unique identity of Mandarin learners was detected in this study. This was perhaps caused by not including questions relating to this issue in the interview with teachers. Alternatively, it might be linked to the divergent CFL teaching goals of the different studies' participants. Specifically, it is likely that secondary school teachers place greater emphasis on the basic knowledge of the Chinese language, whereas HE and FE teachers focus more on students' personal development. Lam (2020) also found that being able to speak Mandarin, a language used by more than 1.4 billion people, provided a unique Ideal L2 Self for GCSE Mandarin learners. Hence, she suggested that teachers should

promote the Ideal L2 Self of learners by, for example, generating the idea of using Mandarin as a popular communication tool.

8.5.2.2 Strategies that Echo Dörnyei's Motivational Strategies from the Three Level Motivation Model

This study's findings have also been compared with the motivational strategies that Dörnyei (1994) proposed in his three-level motivation model – the Language Level, the Learner Level, and the Learning Situation Level (see Section 2.4.2). Therefore, the practical motivational strategies that could help language teachers to attain a better understanding of what motivates their students in their L2 classrooms were categorised into the social, personal and educational dimensions.

First, in the present study, the strategy of providing cultural input is relevant to one of the Language Level strategies – including a socio-cultural component in the syllabus by sharing positive aspects about the target language culture, such as showing films and playing music. Furthermore, the strategies of ensuring sufficient oral practice and encouraging increased Chinese exposure are relevant to the strategies of promoting contact with native speakers and developing instrumental motivation, especially the potential usefulness of the Chinese language. Second, the strategies found in this study about adopting a student-centred approach and being sympathetic and encouraging are relevant to the Learner Level strategies of developing students' self-confidence, decreasing student anxiety by creating a supportive and accepting learning environment and helping to remove uncertainties about their competence. Third, this study also found that the strategies of establishing the right level of challenge for adult learners and teaching in small steps and scaffolding are relevant to the Learning Situation Level strategies of matching the difficulty of tasks with students' capabilities so that students can expect to succeed if they expend reasonable effort. Moreover, the strategy of presenting learning content in a stimulating way is also relevant to the strategy

of introducing tasks so as to stimulate intrinsic motivation and help internalise extrinsic motivation at this level.

In addition, it is relevant to consider another important strategy proposed by Dörnyei (1994) – trying to be empathetic, congruent, and accepting. As Dörnyei (1994, p.282) explained, “empathy refers to being sensitive to students’ needs, feelings, and perspectives; congruence refers to the ability to behave according to your true self; acceptance refers to a non-judgmental, positive regard, acknowledging each student as a complex human being with both virtues and faults”. This strategy was reflected in this study’s findings concerning motivational teaching strategies (see Section 7.2.3), where having a sympathetic teacher was mentioned by learners when describing their initial motivation (see Section 5.2.8), and a lack of empathy, congruence, and acceptance might be reasons why teachers were evaluated negatively by the learners (see Section 6.3.2.2). The possible reason for this relates to Chinese culture and the view of the role of the teacher (see Section 1.2.4).

Connections between teachers and students are central to shaping learning behaviours (Arnold & Murphey, 2013). This connection involves the capacity for empathy, which is foundational in developing learner-centred and facilitative classroom environments (Mercer, 2016). Empathy can be defined as the characteristic of successful teachers in creating engaging learning activities and motivational environments (Lamb, 2017). Specifically, Lamb (2017, p.312) argued:

‘Motivating’ is a matter of the teacher deploying the correct strategies when, in fact, it is an intensely interactive process, where motivating lessons emerge (sometimes surprisingly) from the coming together and intense mutual engagement from moment to moment of teacher and learners. Perhaps this capacity for RESPONSIVENESS, relying on the personal quality of empathy and built up over years of practice, defines the successful motivator.

In this study, positive teacher-learner rapport was acknowledged both as an important factor by the learners in their CFL learning and by the teachers in their teaching practice. However, this study did not further investigate teachers' social and emotional intelligence and their beliefs about empathetic relationships in their CFL classrooms. To shed light on this issue, future CFL studies could adopt ethnographic approaches to investigate how empathy can influence students' engagement and motivation (see Henry & Thorsen, 2019).

8.5.2.3 Strategies that Echo Ding's Motivational Strategies

This study supports the motivational strategies that Ding (2010, 2014, 2015, 2016) proposed regarding motivational strategies for learners of Chinese in Higher Education in China. The first strategy for adopting a student-centred approach in the current study that was relevant to Ding's (2010) strategy was to make learning content more personal, explicit, and familiar to the students. For instance, students should be allowed to show their real emotions while learning and should be encouraged to express their likes or dislikes of the learning topics. The second relevant strategy found in this study concerning the presentation of learning content in a stimulating way is relevant to Ding's (2010) strategies of improving students' engagement in learning tasks, improving the attractiveness of learning tasks, recognising students' efforts, and increasing their sense of participation. Other strategies mentioned by Ding (2010), such as giving students the choice of learning tasks and providing feedback on students' performance in the learning process, did not emerge among the most important themes but were nonetheless indirectly reflected in the current study.

However, the findings of the current study did not echo Ding's (2010) suggestions regarding motivating teaching practice in terms of promoting discovery learning, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), and group work; thus, there is a need for further studies on using these teaching methods to motivate students in Chinese language classes. It is relevant to note that some recent studies have argued that TBLT, which is a student-centred approach

to language pedagogy that relies on tasks with authentic communication goals to drive learning, is the most up-to-date development of the communicative method available for CFL (Shei et al., 2019). Since task-based communicative competence is generally assumed to be the learner goal in the West, the idea of developing communicative abilities using TBLT may be a potential area for future studies of Chinese pedagogy. This study provides an understanding of the fluctuating learner, and it would further feed research into communicative approaches to teaching, or task-based pedagogy for Chinese, in a Western setting with adult learners. Therefore, teaching material and course design, teacher training, and learning outcomes within TBLT in Chinese across different levels need further exploration.

In addition, the teachers and learners in this study did not perceive that helping students define their learning goals was an important strategy, which contrasted with Zhang and Ding's (2018) findings from a CFL motivation study in China. Goal orientation in Zhang and Ding's (2018) study was important in helping students to continuously self-reflect and overcome difficulties. Reducing the gap between their current level and the target that they set for themselves was a process for generating and maintaining motivation. It was also important in Zhang and Ding's (2018) study for the teacher to present the scheme of work to the students, which orientated the students towards learning goals and achievements and helped them to remain resilient and motivated when they encountered difficulties so that they could improve their learning behaviours. The possible reason for these contrasting findings lies in the differing nature of CFL learning in the UK and China. In particular, compared to learners in formal education in Chinese universities where there are highly specific goals of either passing exams or getting a certificate to increase one's competitiveness, learners on additional language courses in the UK tend to be less goal-driven or purpose-focused.

Another strategy from Ding's (2010) study that was not directly reported in this study was that teachers should guide students to develop their metacognitive strategies. This was perhaps because learners of Chinese in the UK have developed their metacognitive strategies throughout their formal education. In contrast, learners of Chinese in China do not do this to a similar degree. These strategies include being able to be proactive when undertaking learning preparation and being able to remain fully engaged, memorising new knowledge, which can be achieved by retelling, repeating, transcribing, taking notes, or using imagination or other mnemonic strategies, organising and constructing learning content, and monitoring one's learning. Again, the possible reason for this difference might be the lack of teacher training concerning the awareness of metacognitive theory.

Students' metacognitive strategies are related to their self-regulation (see Section 2.2.4), which refers to how learners are active participants in their learning, especially in their strategic efforts to manage their achievement through specific beliefs and processes. This effort is likely to take place outside of class over a long period. Consequently, a motivational boost and self-regulation strategies are needed for learners. Dörnyei (2001b) proposed five main self-regulation strategies – “commitment control”, “metacognitive control”, “satiation control”, “emotion control”, and “environmental control”, whereas none were found in this study, a result which might provide an insight into the metacognitive control of CFL learners in the UK.

However, the strategies that were found in this study about understanding students' motivation and the potential reasons for demotivation might be seen as being related to the “volitional control strategy” Ding (2010) highlighted. Volitional control involves using strategies to regulate one's emotions, motivation, and cognition in the processes of goal striving. These strategies could help students to think about how to start learning, maintain their motivation, focus on their goals, control their emotions, and control the task situation to

mitigate distractions and any interference from other people. Teacher participants in this study had an awareness of using this strategy to help students discover the distractions, learning difficulties and fluctuations in their motivation.

This study partially supports the strategy that Ding (2010) proposed to stimulate students' cognitive curiosity. Cognitive curiosity is a desire to explore new information and to have the drive to master behaviours in the completion of learning tasks. It is an important factor which affects motivation and is the core of intrinsic motivation (Domenico & Ryan, 2017). According to Ding (2010), strategies to stimulate students' cognitive curiosity include creating suspense through techniques such as telling the beginning of a story and asking students to write the ending, playing guessing games before learning, and creating contradictions in a debating contest. Teacher participants in this study did not use the word cognitive curiosity, but they did seek to make their learning materials interesting and attractive to improve students' engagement in their classes.

8.5.3 Motivational Learning Strategies in Out-of-Class CFL Learning

8.5.3.1 Resilience

One motivational strategy for learner participants in this study was remaining resilient and retaining a willingness to continue learning, especially when they encountered learning difficulties. This finding is consistent with Martin's (2003) research that found persistence contributes to academic resilience and Kim et al.'s (2017) study, which suggested that persistence plays the most influential role in L2 learning among all resilience factors. In Kim et al.'s (2017) study, persistence was the most powerful predictor for both motivated L2 learning behaviour and self-reported L2 proficiency. Moreover, its impact on motivational behaviour was stronger than L2 proficiency. Martin (2002) suggested that students need to be encouraged to develop motivated behaviour through persistence, which echoes the

importance of resilience and the willingness to learn that were valued by participants in this study.

Resilient students who possess persistence can deal with academic pressures effectively (Martin, 2002) and can not only continue to cope with the stress from language learning but can also use their resilience to engage more enthusiastically in L2 learning (Kim et al., 2017). In the current study, those learners of Chinese who were resilient were found to be able to achieve the above. In further research, resilience could be explored as an individual difference factor in the Chinese language learning process and outcomes.

8.5.3.2 Autonomy

In this study, becoming an autonomous learner was one of the motivational strategies reported by learners for out-of-class learning. This indicates that the learners perceived the importance of taking responsibility. Indeed, the development of autonomy might be even more important to the learning of Chinese than for other languages, as learning progress in Chinese can be slower because of the inherent difficulty of the language, and more practice and repetition outside the classroom are therefore required (Lam, 2020).

Previous research has suggested different perceptions of autonomy and how the optimal degree of learner freedom varies across cultures (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). The different understandings of this construct suggest that certain motivational strategies are culturally dependent. It is relevant to note that developing learners' autonomy as a motivational strategy has been studied in Eastern contexts, including Hong Kong, Taiwan, South Korea, and Indonesia (e.g., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Tavakoli et al., 2018; Wong, 2014). However, Lam (2020, p.209) suggested that "Eastern teachers, particularly Chinese teachers, disapproved of the concept of autonomy as framed by Western educators". Yet, learners of Chinese in the context of the current study seemed to have developed autonomy despite being taught by Chinese teachers. This might be because the participants in this study

were adult learners in HE and FE and, as such, may have already acquired autonomous learning strategies from their previous foreign language learning experiences.

Learner autonomy was also highlighted by the participants in Wen and Piao's (2020) study on the motivational strategies adopted by US university learners of Chinese. In their study, learners were found to be aware of learning styles, needs and the self-assessment of their linguistic strengths and weaknesses. They monitored and continuously readjusted their learning goals and progress and constructed self-tailored learning materials outside class. Thus, learners, especially those at the advanced level, could engage in and sustain their learning relatively autonomously. In addition, the learner participants in Wen and Piao's (2020) study reported an awareness of being adult learners and that they adopted autonomous learning strategies as strategies for maintaining their motivation. This might have occurred because the participant in that study learners were adult university students who had already acquired autonomous learning strategies from their previous foreign language learning experiences. This also seems likely to be true for the current study.

Awareness-raising is also crucial in L3 learning settings where learners undertake L3 Chinese alongside main degree studies, full-time jobs, or personal commitments with various associated demands and pressures. Since they chose to learn Chinese voluntarily, these learners may have more agency in language learning, which is the capacity to volitionally act to affect learning outcomes (Ryan & Irie, 2014) and the starting point to develop autonomy and use learning strategies (Williams et al., 2016); and they may have a higher level of autonomy in Chinese, where they have the capacity to control and take charge of their learning (Benson, 2011) or take responsibility for their learning. They are likely to be autonomous learners who know how to create personal meaning, develop learning strategies in the face of adversity, forge collaborative relationships and strengthen intrinsic motivation

(Oxford, 2016a), built up by their previous positive foreign language experience, their self-efficacy, plurilingual postures, or language aptitude.

However, these learners may also need more awareness concerning autonomy as they could easily lack social-affective support from regular interactions with teachers and their peers (Hurd, 2008). Furthermore, in the current Chinese learning journey, learner autonomy could be built even higher for individuals by having more freedom and responsibility. These L3 Chinese Learners may be able to make more meaningful and appropriate choices in achieving learning and communication goals when guided by teachers who encourage an autonomous learning style. Teachers from China may not be familiar with the learning style in the UK and not experienced in giving students enough freedom and autonomy to develop the necessary metacognitive skills to plan, monitor and evaluate their goal achievement, which is important for supporting autonomous learners. It is also important for autonomous learners to know how to continue their learning and advance their linguistic skills in changing circumstances in the future (Little et al., 2017); teachers can play important roles in guiding and supporting that. For Chinese teachers who teach students in the UK, they may need to adjust their expectations of their students, and themselves, about how much students can do by themselves and how to encourage that with appropriate guidance.

8.5.3.3 Culture

Another important debate about motivational strategy concerns whether to use culture to motivate language learning. Different practices and beliefs on this topic were shown in the findings in this study and in previous studies. On the one hand, inappropriate cultural input in language classrooms can demotivate students. Therefore, teaching the target language culture with minimal emphasis and avoiding an L2 culture-centric strategy were approaches supported by previous studies in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), Oman (Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2012) and South Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013). On

the other hand, Gardner's (1985) study argued for the importance of language learners' attitudes towards the L2 culture and that incorporating the target culture and customs into language teaching is a common motivational strategy. This is consistent with Lavrenteva and Orland-Barak's (2015) view that it is crucial to equip foreign language teachers with skills and strategies to raise their students' cultural awareness, reinforce students' positive cultural identity, and focus on cultural knowledge and attitudes towards foreign cultures.

Although no evidence was found in the current study for the linkage between learners' linguistic proficiency and cultural knowledge, learners were generally more motivated and showed great cultural appreciation because being cosmopolitan was found to be the strongest initial motivation type. Moreover, the appreciation of the value of learning languages and cultures was the most commonly mentioned theme (see Section 5.2). Therefore, developing cultural interests or having cultural experiences to motivate language learning might be more of an implicit strategy.

8.6 Summary

The overarching aims of this study have been to investigate the nature of and fluctuations in CFL learning motivation, as well as to examine the strategies currently used inside and outside of adult classes to generate and maintain motivation. It can be concluded from the findings that have been generated that adult CFL motivation has both complicated and dynamic features in the UK additional language learning environment. Furthermore, EFL motivation and motivational strategy theories are relevant to understanding CFL motivation and motivational strategy, but they are not sufficient on their own due to certain particularities relating to CFL. As discussed in Section 8.3, the findings from this study confirmed that the factors of "Perceived Value", "Attitude", "Teaching Support", "Confidence", "Cultural Engagement", "Intention", and "Milieu" are essential elements in

learners' CFL motivation. Moreover, having interests and a positive attitude towards Chinese culture were found to be the most important initial motivational factors. Furthermore, the circular nature of CFL motivation was found, together with two ways of classifying such motivation. The study has also shown that Dörnyei's 1994 three-level framework is applicable for CFL motivation. As discussed in Section 8.4, the findings support previous research into the causes of demotivation for CFL and suggest that teaching is an essential factor in demotivation. Therefore, training for Chinese teachers is a key issue in the quality assurance of Chinese teaching. As discussed in Section 8.5, the findings on the use of motivational strategy corroborate Dörnyei's (1994; 2001b) motivational strategies frameworks and Ding's (2010) research in terms of the importance of teacher's empathy and responsiveness in class. The theoretical underpinnings for the learning strategies that students use for out-of-class learning are self-regulation theories, resilience, and academic buoyancy.

The findings from this study enhance the understanding of three aspects of the motivation for learning Chinese – the types, characteristics and classification of motivation; the reasons for the fluctuation in motivation and demotivation; and the perceptions of teachers and learners concerning useful strategies for generating and maintaining motivation. These understandings provide a foundation to help researchers and practitioners understand the key attributes of CFL learners, why they are learning Chinese, what values they hold towards China, and what other factors influence their learning. After exploring the fluctuation of motivation and the reasons behind demotivation, this study touched upon whether the maintenance of motivation is the primary responsibility of teachers or students, which needs further exploration. Based on this and the findings concerning motivational teaching strategies, this study suggests that teachers can improve learners' self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation, enhance their autonomous learning awareness, reduce their anxiety and avoid negative learning experiences that may cause demotivation. The practical implications of this

study will be discussed further in the next chapter. Specifically, the following chapter, which concludes the study, will explore how the theoretical insights gained about L2 learner motivation may improve established teaching practices in adult language education in the UK.

The broad scope of this study has been tied closely to novel findings and contributions on how motivation fluctuates differently for different learners, especially why some learners are better able to maintain their motivation in suboptimal conditions. Summing up all the factors influencing motivation fluctuation, from both learner and teaching perspectives, as well as all motivational learning and teaching strategies, this study found that potential answers fundamentally lie in positive emotion, especially enjoyment in foreign language/L2/L3 learning.

Positive emotions can counter the harmful effects of negative emotions and expand the thought-action repertoire and build psychological resources (see Broaden-and-Build Theory, Fredrickson, 2001). Foreign language enjoyment has been established as a comprehensive and robust source of motivation, protecting learner motivation from a substandard teacher or curriculum (Dewaele et al., 2021). Learners with higher levels of Trait Emotional Intelligence and autonomy would enjoy their foreign language classes more after the abrupt move to online teaching during the pandemic when there was a significant drop in learning enjoyment (Resnik & Dewaele, 2021). Research into individual learner differences in foreign language enjoyment and classroom anxiety found that learners who were older, female, more multilingual, more advanced, and felt they were above the average level in the class, reported a higher level of enjoyment and a lower level of classroom anxiety (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014); although this study does not identify gender and age, this finding is consistent with the plurilingual posture and self-efficacy highlighted in this study.

Another two concepts from positive psychology in SLA may also contribute to fluctuation profile – perseverance and mindset. Perseverance, with its three factors - resilience, hope and optimism - is another set of factors that propels language learners toward task completion and proficiency (Oxford, 2016a), which can be seen as relevant traits less-fluctuated learners share. Perseverance is displayed when learners make a continued effort and achieve goals despite challenges or failure. Perseverance is one of the key elements in language learning motivation, along with enjoyment in learning and a desire to achieve a goal (Gardner, 2001). Learners with different mindsets – optimism and pessimism – react to learning difficulties differently, and their motivation may fluctuate accordingly. For example, optimists anticipate good outcomes, creating positive emotions such as excitement and eagerness, whereas pessimists expect bad outcomes and experience more negative emotions, such as frustration, despair, anxiety and anger (Carver & Scheier, 2000).

To look at the overall picture in this study, more motivated learners of L3 Chinese are those with positive attitudes to language and culture and enjoy their classroom experience and their autonomous learning, as well as being able to apply self-regulation strategies with resilience from negative emotions or experience. Using Oxford's (2016) EMPATHICS theory, learners who enjoy the Chinese language learning experience or those less-fluctuated learners may have more wisdom, curiosity, love of learning, open-mindedness, perspective, courage, zest, as well as temperance, whereas more-fluctuated learners who experience frustration, anxiety or dropout may have these character strengths to a lesser extent. This study presents what seems to be a broad perspective, encompassing both the lowest fluctuator and the greatest fluctuator, illustrating a range of individual experiences that may lie at the heart of every individual student, a picture that teachers rarely ever have the opportunity to see.

A quote from Liang Qichao (a Chinese social and political activist, journalist, and intellectual who lived during the late Qing dynasty and the early years of the Republic of China) serves as an appropriate way to end this chapter as it captures the essence of what has been discussed:

教育事业，从积极方面说，全在唤起趣味；再从消极方面说，要十分注意，不可摧残趣味。——梁启超 (Education, on the positive side, is all about arousing interest; on the negative side, it needs to be very careful not to destroy the fun.)

9.1 Introduction

This final chapter brings together key points presented in the rest of the thesis. As a reminder, the thesis consisted of the following chapters: Chapter One introduced the context of the study; Chapter Two gave the theoretical perspectives underpinning the study; Chapter Three described the overall methodological approach; Chapter Four summarised the process of data analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data; Chapters Five to Seven reported findings for the following three research questions: (1) the nature of the motivations for adult learners in the UK to learn the Chinese language; (2) dynamics of adult learners in the UK learning the Chinese language; and (3) the useful ways of generating and maintaining motivation in learning the Chinese language in the views of learners and teachers. Chapter Eight interpreted those findings and discussed their occurrence. Finally, Chapter Nine aims to discuss how these findings can contribute to the wider field of L2 motivation, the existing theoretical frameworks of L2 motivation, and the research methods for studying L2 motivation and L2 pedagogical practice. This chapter also addresses the need for future research and pedagogical implications for CFL motivation, with the prospect of sustaining the growth of learning the Chinese language internationally.

In the concluding chapter, two main sections consider the contributions to L2 motivational research and the implications of the current study. Therefore, this chapter begins with a reminder of the aims, followed by an overview of the main findings. These are then followed by the key methodological features of the current study in Section 9.2. Section 9.3 then outlines an evaluation of the significance of the study, how these findings can inform future studies and their contribution to the development of motivation research and the practice of Chinese teaching. After analysing this study's limitations in Section 9.4, Section 9.5 explores how the theoretical insights gained about adult learner motivation may improve

teaching practice in UK HE and FE by giving pedagogical suggestions and possible strategies for classroom practice, institutions and policy to enhance motivation in a micro-level and macro-level. Finally, at the end of this chapter, an overall conclusion is presented in Section 9.6.

9.2 Review of the Key Findings of the Study

This study aimed to explore the nature and dynamics of motivation for CFL among adult learners in the UK, understand why learners start and continue learning CFL, and provide insights into motivational teaching and learning strategies. This study uses mixed methods as its approach, in the form of a survey, interviews, and classroom observations.

The findings drawn from the current study can be outlined as follows. The first finding concerns insights into the CFL learner group; the second finding, the important role teachers play in learner motivation; the third finding, the various support CFL learners can and should receive.

9.2.1 First Key Set of Findings Concerning the Nature of the Motivations for Adult Learners in the UK Learning the Chinese Language

First, the evidence from this study suggests a profile for likely CFL learners in UK HE and FE. This study has drawn attention to the fact that most learners of Chinese at the university level in the UK are not aiming to become professional scholars of Chinese; many learners with instrumental motivations have the goal of achieving Chinese language proficiency that can be applied to a future career path, instead of further study of Chinese literature or linguistics. This study found that learners who were viewed as more motivated would emphasise the intrinsic value of the Chinese language as a unique way of thinking and communicating. This has implications for the pedagogy of the Chinese language as an additional language, the role and status of Chinese language teachers, and the development strategy within the institution.

The current study found that learners who come to Chinese language classes expect to: develop their academic and socio-emotional abilities beyond L2 proficiency; improve their cultural exposure and broaden their minds; build up personal connections to Chinese friends, communities or family connections; and also help develop their future career paths. Learners in Chinese classes desire intellectual challenges that open their minds to other ways of being and thinking, crave travel opportunities and hope to gain a competitive advantage in the global marketplace. They aspire to be challenged, encouraged, and supported in learning Chinese (Shei et al., 2019).

Participants in post-compulsory education settings were over 18 and hence could understand the challenge of learning an L2 alongside their main degree studies or work commitments, suggesting that they did not select Chinese unless they genuinely desired a challenge. However, the number of learners who continue beyond the novice level in the UK is far less than the beginner level, which can be seen from the survey results of the current study. Those who continue studying Chinese at the university level may be motivated by the knowledge of how much effort they have already devoted (Shei et al., 2019).

This study has revealed that the personal relevance of Chinese communication plays a key role in motivating learners. The study found that one of the true motivations for learning Chinese was the personal connection to the language through social proximity to a Chinese person or persons. Participants in this study found that Chinese is a worthy pursuit because of the encouragement of their teachers and other people, who assured that the reward of learning Chinese would build greater culturally diverse connections, among other opportunities. Another of the observed motivations is more practical, with the benefits for career progression or change. According to participants in this study, a common factor that motivates students coming from a diverse range of subject areas, above and beyond their other formative future connections to the Chinese language and culture, is an awareness of

China's importance in the globalising world. Therefore, learners of Chinese are often motivated by a love of challenge, an interest in a different culture, a desire to spend time abroad, and often a strong interest in global politics, economics, and social and environmental issues. These motivations not only play a role in initiating the learning but also provide great inspiration to continue developing their communication skills to even higher levels (Shei et al., 2019).

9.2.2 Second Set of Key Findings Concerning the Dynamics of Adult Learners in the UK Learning the Chinese Language

Second, the results of this research support the idea that teachers in the class play an essential role in learner motivation. Teachers need to care about learners' progress in class individually and collectively to gain their trust and confidence. In addition, this study has addressed the issue that teachers of Chinese, beyond providing specific methods and strategies, also have the responsibility to empathise with learners on a personal level and to help them develop important interpersonal relationships with others through their Chinese communication. Teacher-student relationship can be seen as pivotal in this sense by forming supportive relationships with the students to facilitate and encourage their Chinese study. However, learners are not only looking for a friendly and kind teacher but also for a rigorous teacher with high standards, whose workload, although demanding, would likely provide significant benefits for the student later on (Shei et al., 2019).

A well-designed learning curriculum with comprehensive materials provided by well-trained experts in the Chinese language is very important for learners to engage with and enjoy while also preventing their demotivation. However, something more is needed to keep learners' passion, curiosity, persistence, and efforts high. The ultimate goal is to encourage learners, of self-regulated learning strategies, in their Chinese learning outside the class and after the course finishes. The challenges and opportunities all stakeholders encounter along the way to their ultimate goal will be discussed in Section 9.5 of this chapter.

9.2.3 Third Key Set of Findings Concerning Useful Ways of Generating and Maintaining Motivation in Learning the Chinese Language in the Views of Learners and Teachers

Third, the results of this study indicate that various supports and encouragements are essential for learners of CFL, and it is the responsibility of teachers and institutions to employ motivational strategies to improve these supports. To promote language courses, some teachers and institutions tend to focus on instrumental rationales to demonstrate the benefits of languages. It may be easier to recruit students by demonstrating the utilitarian value of Chinese through facts and figures related to career opportunities. However, it has been shown that the career-related instrument is not the only drive for learners to choose Chinese. Furthermore, learners are not likely to continue learning a language unless they have learnt how it will be personally relevant to them in the past, present, or future (Krüsemann, 2018). Therefore, motivating teaching practice requires teachers to encourage learners' intrinsic motivation, help learners increase their self-efficacy and develop autonomous learning abilities with self-regulation strategy, which are essential in CFL motivation in this context.

9.2.4 Key Findings Concerning the Challenges and Opportunities of CFL Teaching and Learning

According to the study results, the motivation of adult Chinese learners in the UK is complex and unstable; the individual motivations of learners of Chinese vary, sometimes greatly, from one individual to another. For teachers, this generated specific challenges with respect to giving enough and appropriate individual support within and outside of class. In addition, some learners' lack of intrinsic motivation may present a significant challenge. Furthermore, some learners could not develop genuine curiosity or passion for Chinese culture. Therefore, how far China's cultural products can appeal to Western learners remains a pertinent question. More specifically, however, where there is interest, older and younger learners are attracted to different elements of Chinese culture, such as Chinese history, philosophy and literature, or social media (e.g., Tik-Tok), food and games. When these are

mixed in the same class, the cultural topics introduced by the teacher do not easily satisfy both groups. It is also difficult for learners who take non-degree Chinese courses to deeply understand the profound culture behind the language, primarily due to the limited learning hours.

Another significant challenge is the consequence of unevenly distributed educational resources between different social classes. Furthermore, while well-off students can afford to travel to China and have Chinese private tutors at home, less affluent students may not necessarily have such opportunities to learn Chinese or learn about China. The courses in schools may not involve much Chinese history or literature. Students might naturally think that China is a distant and strange country. Without being able to relate to Chinese culture, it is difficult for learners to develop an affinity or affection for the language.

Lastly, challenges are born from the ideological and political differences between China and the UK. These divergent viewpoints may also set up an invisible wall in the minds of learners of Chinese, preventing them from fully engaging and identifying with Chinese culture. To a certain degree, the global pandemic has also negatively affected learners' attitudes towards China. However, unsubstantiated, superficial viewpoints or politically polarised conversations are rarely, if ever, helpful, and the time to deepen the debate has surely arrived (see HEPI 2022 report).

However, although Western governments may have recently taken an adversarial stance toward China (see HEPI 2022 report), most students who have already started learning Chinese would not fit the national narrative or have simplistic ideas about the West versus the Chinese (see HEPI 2022 report). Instead, they can draw on personal relationships that provide authentic human connections to the world of Chinese language and culture.

On the other hand, six important opportunities can be identified with respect to growing and developing general motivation for learning Chinese in the UK. The first

opportunity is the presence of an ongoing Chinese-speaking environment in the UK as a result of the many Chinese students studying in British universities. For example, Chinese restaurants and supermarkets can be found all over university towns, creating a specific environment for Chinese learners to practise their language skills with native speakers. The second opportunity is the growing number of secondary school students exposed to Chinese learning before they come to study at university. Learners with Chinese learning experience from secondary or even primary schools can go straight to lower intermediate courses in university.

The third opportunity is that the Chinese language is often the second, third or even fourth foreign language learners in the UK are learning. This means that learners of Chinese can transfer experiences from previous foreign language learning experiences. For example, they may not be able to transfer the grammar knowledge from French to Chinese, but self-regulated learning strategies can be shared. Positive experiences of success in the past can enhance learners' confidence and resilience in Chinese learning. The fourth opportunity is the flexible examination policy for university elective courses. Learners can take Chinese as a credit-bearing course, a non-credit course, or an evening course to avoid the anxiety of exams, allowing them to simply focus on the learning process. These options can help meet the heterogeneous requirements of learners' diverse learning needs. To a certain extent, the attractiveness of such flexibility to prospective students may further help increase the number of prospective learners of Chinese.

The fifth opportunity is that the relatively small class size in Chinese courses may provide learners with a better class learning experience with more individualised support from the teacher. Most language centres have a class size of around ten students. Small class size helps the teacher build a relaxing environment and provide personalised guidance to each student with more support and care. The sixth opportunity is the growing number of learners

of Chinese from Asian countries. Among international students, Chinese modules have been gaining popularity among Asian students, thus fostering a new market for teaching Chinese in the UK. This trend, in aggregate with the growing number of heritage Chinese learners, suggests that Chinese will be a popular choice within UK institutions in the near future.

Furthermore, learners of Chinese studying in any UK university would have access to hundreds of native-speaking Chinese international students and to student organisations such as the Chinese Students and Scholars Association (CSSA), which is the official organisation for overseas Chinese students and scholars registered in most colleges, universities, and institutions outside of the People's Republic of China. In addition, many learners have Chinese co-workers in student employment and speaking Chinese with them can be seen as a source of motivation and a good practice opportunity. A participant of the study, who made many Chinese friends, shared the following advice: in the classroom, your Chinese learning can only improve slowly, but out of the classroom, you can improve very quickly.

There is currently a growing trend in ab-initio learners within HE institutions in the UK, including those engaged in non-Western language learning. Moreover, in the last five years, an increase in overall interest in learning Chinese has been witnessed, and for the first time, Mandarin has ranked as the second most important language in the UK²³. While Mandarin Chinese is no longer a less studied language within the UK, there is arguably still a need for Chinese cultural study in the curriculum; for example, A-level Chinese civilisation could be considered (see HEPI 2022 report). As this single example suggests, there is still a long way to go to develop Chinese teaching and learning, and motivation research will continue to play a valuable role.

²³ See the *Language for the Future* report
https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/languages_for_the_future_2017.pdf

9.3 Contributions to Knowledge

This section evaluates the current study's contributions, divided into two parts: significance of findings for theory and research development in Sections 9.3.1 and 9.3.2 and significance of findings for practical application in 9.3.3 and 9.3.4. For research methodology in L2 motivation, this study contributes to the research-practice cooperation, longitudinal and mixed methods research.

9.3.1 Contribution to Motivation Theories

This current study extends the knowledge of motivation theories in languages other than English, especially in exploring learners' intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, demotivation and self-regulation strategies, and the important role of the teacher factor. This study applies established motivation theories and frameworks of EFL to CFL learning in the UK, such as SDT and Dörnyei's (1994) three-level framework, and the results of the types, characteristics and dynamics of CFL motivation shed new light on the motivation for LOTEs. A different picture emerges when the research focuses on the traditional integrative/instrumental orientation concepts. As discussed in Chapters Five and Eight, integrative/instrumental motivation is often mixed in CFL learning, as the value of learning CFL often contains both integrativeness and instrumentality, so this theory may not be the key to understanding CFL learning. However, the concepts of intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and confidence/anxiety/self-efficacy theory provide a better basis for understanding the immediate motivation of CFL learners in the cross-sectional part of the study, and self-regulation theories are useful for understanding the sustained CFL motivation in the longitudinal part of the study. Self-efficacy, SDT, and self-regulation are three theories chosen for the current study (see Section 2.1.2) and found to be the three areas to which the research findings of CFL motivation could add value, as stated below.

First, the current research on CFL motivation adds value to Bandura's self-efficacy beliefs and relevant L2 motivation theories. Based on the current findings, whether successful learners have a higher level of efficacy and how these beliefs sustain their efforts to keep learning needs further investigation. The research into demotivation of CFL in the current study has identified the individual learner as one of the causes; low levels of self-efficacy could explain this. In addition, since the cultural difference can considerably shape people's self-efficacy judgements (Bandura, 2001), this research may provide insights into how UK HE and FE learning environments shape L2 learners' efficacy. Learners in the UK cannot be exempt from the societal values that hold foreign language learning as less vital compared to the value in more multilingual contexts.

Second, this study applied the intrinsic/extrinsic continuum in SDT to CFL motivation and found that stimulating learners' intrinsic motivation is itself a motivating practice. This study found learners' reasons for their engagement in CFL learning and how and why it is meaningful to them personally under the SDT frameworks. These reasons are reflected in the three psychological needs – competence, relatedness and autonomy – in SDT, and how learners of CFL meet these needs showed a different picture in EFL learning. Further studies could focus on the interplay among the motivation orientations, the satisfaction of the needs, and the intensity of the engagement in learning.

Third, CFL learners' self-regulation strategy use outside of class was identified in the current study, and how they used the motivational boost in both generation and maintenance of motivation were respectively discovered. When motivation decreases, the teacher plays a vital role in raising students' awareness of these self-regulation strategies. In addition, findings found that the teacher also plays an important role in providing social-affective support and regular interaction with students in class. Affective self-management strategies

need to be studied in the future to see if they can help learners not drop out of classes because of the lack of social-affective support.

9.3.2 Contribution to Motivation Research Methodology

The current study contributes to the existing methodology in motivation research. This study not only contributes to the knowledge of L2 learning motivation, specifically in motivation for learning Chinese Mandarin in UK settings but also bridges the gap between the theory of L2 motivation and classroom practice, as the original discipline of SLA was focused upon a study of language learning informing language teaching (Ellis, 2010). The current study adopted classroom observations to provide pedagogical suggestions for CFL teaching in UK HE and FE classrooms. It is suggested that closer cooperation between language teaching and research, from departments of modern foreign language and departments of applied linguistics or language education, is desirable and valuable.

The traditional and existing body of L2 motivational research focuses on isolated and static individual motivational differences in learner profiles, which can yield important insights into learning behaviour. However, learning behaviour is ever-changing, and motivational attributes are dynamic, which cannot be investigated by one-off surveys. The current study shows a statistically significant fluctuation in learner motivation during two academic terms by surveying participants twice. This study also found a significant decrease toward the middle of the term and a concomitant decline in the effort to engage with the learning. The implications of these findings will be discussed in more depth in Section 9.5. The longitudinal research design demonstrates the usefulness of longitudinal approaches to explore L2 motivation, which should be emphasised as a methodological contribution and explored further to avoid learner attrition over time.

This study also provides evidence for the value of using the mixed methods of quantitative and qualitative approaches in investigating learners' motivation. The research

tools such as questionnaires, semi-structured interviews with both students and teachers, and classroom observations were employed to explore the nuances of teaching practices that resulted in sustaining learner motivation. The classroom observations illustrated the subtleties those self-reporting questionnaires could not achieve. The findings show the limitations of self-reporting questionnaires in describing language learners' attitudes, perceived values, mindsets, self-efficacy, and self-regulated learning strategies. In other words, the in-depth responses the students gave in the interview could provide insights to develop the motivation questionnaire in future studies. The current study also demonstrated the considerable potential of qualitative approaches regarding context variables. The interview data illustrated how various contextual factors, such as the learning tasks in class, interaction with the teacher, and the challenges of daily life, can affect the individual's motivational profile. Conversely, gradual changes in learners' motivational thinking, such as their desire to review after the class, their confidence to use the language and their aspiration to continue learning, shape their perception of the learning context.

9.3.3 Contribution to Motivating Chinese Language Teaching

The current study makes several noteworthy contributions to Chinese language teaching for adult learners in the UK. First, this study illuminates the underlying reasons for beginning and continuing Chinese learning, considering the influence of the learning context. The dynamics of the interplay between motivation and learning context were traced, which could help inform the teacher what negative factors could be excluded from the learning environment. Second, the pedagogical implications of this study contribute to promoting Chinese-focused motivational strategies, which will be listed in Section 9.5. Third, this study potentially shows the applicable inter-relationships between research and teaching and suggests that teachers of Chinese might adopt a research-informed or theory-driven teaching

approach to better facilitate a fair exchange of knowledge (Ellis, 2010; Wingate & Andon, 2017).

The current study reveals how the disparities between English and Chinese teacher training led to the development of teaching strategies based on the distinctive features of UK learners. The revealed current motivating approaches of the Chinese teachers could offer a significant pedagogical reference for new teachers of Chinese in the UK. Furthermore, the suggested motivational strategies may be contextualised for teaching and learning Chinese for adult learners in the UK in the future research. These strategies may chart a new course for further explorations on CFL motivational teaching in the UK.

It is hoped this research brings significant recognition to the scholarly significance of Chinese language teaching and learning, especially on motivation for learning and motivating teaching. It is also hoped that it advocates greater investment in Chinese learning programmes and professional development for Chinese teachers while also paving the way to commensurate remuneration (with their peers within other departments), together with improved job security and institutional status.

9.3.4 Contribution to UK Foreign Language Education

The current study also makes several noteworthy contributions to foreign language teaching in the UK, especially in providing good motivating practice. Although the findings are based on the learning and teaching of Chinese, they also provide insights for foreign language education, especially in LOTE's education in this context.

This study paints a detailed picture of the nature and dynamics of motivation and students' learning experience by interviewing students over the period from pre-pandemic to post-pandemic time in the UK. This study also provides insights into learners' motivations and their relationship with contextual factors in long-term foreign language learning process.

Furthermore, this study illustrates the great importance of teacher competence and teaching methods at the adult level of foreign language teaching; thus, the value of language teacher training cannot be overestimated. Professional language teachers deserve to be elevated within the institution beyond the role of merely preparatory instructors. However, the current situation is one in which language teachers at the university level receive lower pay and less support for research and continuing education than colleagues in other departments (Shei et al., 2019). This may be true in wider contexts than just in the UK.

9.3.5 Summary of Contributions

This study stands out from a vast existing body of work on L2 motivation research and focuses on why Chinese learning motivation is unique and why motivation fluctuations are important focal points. This study provides a foundation for future academic contributions to further the field of L3 motivation, together with qualitative and longitudinal research methods in language motivation studies.

First, this study explores Chinese learning specifically from an L3 rather than L2 perspective, foregrounding the complexities of Chinese L3 motivation. Furthermore, this study highlights that L3 Chinese, as a linguistical, cultural and geographically distant language, to learners in the UK, makes motivation for L3 Chinese unique.

Second, as classroom-based instructed motivation research is relatively neglected, especially with a focus on fluctuation over time, this study draws from extensive data, especially from the longitudinal data, on the trajectory of fluctuation and rich qualitative data to explore demotivation causes and coping strategies. Therefore, this study adds value to current L2 motivation that is studied substantially by quantitative surveys. The richness of the qualitative component in this study characterises a particular type of learner profile, that of the successful learner who overcomes motivation fluctuations and continues learning Chinese.

After understanding the full picture of the fluctuation in Chinese learning motivation and what is behind learner experience, where fluctuation may not necessarily be a downward spiral for all cases, this study develops a novel perspective of motivation research that argues against the linear version of Chinese achievement but brings out the idea of process orientation. During the process, learners may have different temporary outcomes all the time, such as getting a job with Chinese skills, wanting to feel confident speaking Chinese, or overcoming a specific challenge, such as character writing for example. This study proposes a new way of conceptualising the motivation cycle and the good learner profile.

This study explored an essential question in language learning – if learners have self-efficacy, self-determination, good cosmopolitan backgrounds, and multiple plurilingual postures, can these learners overcome a poor classroom experience? This study also explored how teachers perceive learner motivation and then how far they do or do not show awareness of learner autonomy and class engagement. The findings show that both raising teacher awareness and understanding of the learner profile are essential. This study then raises the question that has the most critical pedagogical implication - how can we help overcome dropout? This study attempts to conceptualise the drivers for fluctuation and identify whether learner demotivation is either temporary or long-term. Ultimately, it was found that it is both a mixture of teacher input and learners' traits.

This study first proposes that adult learners of Chinese are learning it as L3 and flags up what may be specifically important about cosmopolitan and plurilingual posture. It then analysed that learner attitude towards the culture and people of the target language, including the ability to travel, the linguistic element in the actual learning, and the engagement in a class, all affecting learner motivation. This study then showed that maintaining learners' original culture appreciation and increasing their learning enjoyment in class may sustain their learning better, echoing previous studies on multilingualism that argued. Previous

studies found that language learning objectives were narrowly defined and meshed with individual learning needs and interests; therefore, a holistic and expansive reconceptualization of the diversity of goals of language is needed (Leung & Scarino, 2016). This is because “more fluid, less criterion-referenced notions of competence” can motivate learners “to take part in language study or other activities in support of language development without fear of falling far short of target-language norms” (Duff, 2017, p. 602). Studies also have found that learners not only have strong affiliations to the language they are learning but also value the acquisition of a multilingual repertoire (Henry & Thorsen, 2018) and wish to become a plurilingual person with a cosmopolitan identity (Busse, 2017). In this study, learners’ aspired-to proficiency was maybe equally as important as the communicative skills that facilitate personally rewarding interactions with target language speakers (Busse, 2017). The researcher then put forward that language proficiency for Chinese as L3 is indeed an important goal, but increasing the awareness of foreign language learning, the understanding of different cultures and people, the curiosity for a different language system, as well as the intercultural communication competence, maybe more ultimate goals, which are likely to help maintain learner motivation and sustain long-term learning beyond the classroom.

9.4 Limitations of the Study

In order to clearly define the limitations of the research method and design of this study, the following five factors should be considered. First, this study was not originally conceived as a longitudinal design, i.e., by measuring motivation with the same numbers of participants all paired up on many occasions. However, the dynamic nature of motivational trajectories is recognised in the current study by collecting data at two different times to discover the development of learner motivation for Chinese over time, within the same group but with different participant numbers. As such, it contrasts with studies of a cross-sectional

design, in which data is only collected at one point that provides a snapshot of learner motivation when the survey was done.

Second, although participants in the questionnaire survey were from a range of universities, a limited number of universities cannot and do not represent all universities in the UK. A higher number of universities and participants, possibly from Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, would have increased the generalisability of the study. Although this study refers to “UK learners”, participants were mainly from England. Therefore, compared to many studies of motivation for EFL learning, this study has a small scale and exploratory nature, which poses limitations. Therefore, it would be incautious to presume that findings generalise across all learners of Chinese in all universities and other institutions within the UK.

Third, in terms of the classroom observation, the number of participating universities had to remain limited and from within the same geographical region due to the time, cost, and space available. Therefore, the applicability of the results to all adult Chinese classes is subject to certain limitations. Fourth, all participant data were self-reported without having a language assessment carried out, including the self-reported level of proficiency and perceptions of motivation. Therefore, no conclusions regarding their language competence or exam grades can be drawn. Finally, the current research was not explicitly designed to evaluate factors related to how national narratives and media, including social media, influence Chinese language uptake in the UK.

However, the theoretical focus on motivation and the comprehensive empirical approach taken in this study provide insights into a less-studied language that future L2 Chinese motivational research may build on.

9.5 Implications of the Study

Implications of the current study have been divided into five Sections: for future L2 motivation research and development of motivation theories; for language education policy; for institutions that offer Chinese language courses; for language classroom practice; for L2 Chinese learners. The following five sections will outline how the findings of this study can inform future research and practice.

9.5.1 Implications for Future Motivation Research

This research brings to light many questions in need of further investigation. The following three claims are selected to prioritise three foci for future suggestions. First, further research on the relationship between Chinese in-class pedagogy and students' engagement and satisfaction needs to be conducted to explore different classroom teaching methods and their effects on students' learning, including short-term and long-term effects.

Second, more longitudinal research on the dynamics of individual differences among learners needs to be carried out to discover further how and why motivation fluctuates during the learning process. Furthermore, research is needed to discover new pedagogical models that avoid the demotivation caused by low spoken proficiency outcomes and accelerate the development of high-level foreign language proficiency (Seed, 2020).

Third, research on plurilinguism in learners of L3 Chinese is needed; it would be interesting to dig into their perceptions and experiences of multiple languages learning and utilisation and how Chinese fits into their linguistic and cultural repertoire. Moreover, research is needed better to understand the unexplored gap in learners' identity – the construct of the L2 Self System, particularly the L2 Ideal Self, especially when learners possess a unique identity as “learner of Chinese Mandarin”; notably, the identity of Chinese heritage learners might stand out from non-heritage learners of Chinese. Furthermore, a

further extension of the study could include how Vision Theory works for L3 Chinese learners.

9.5.2 Implications for Language Education Policy

In Anglophone settings, motivation for learning a second/foreign language is jeopardised because target LOTEs have been “in the shadow of English” (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017, p.458). Lanvers et al. (2018) pointed out that developing more holistic types of motivation in learners and continuously fostering cross-cultural experiences for learners could be two principles applicable to all second foreign language learning.

Chinese language education is an important public cultural product for the UK government and educational institutions to provide to everyone in the country. This requires concerted and coordinated action across all sectors. The influence and practical value of the Chinese language in China-UK exchanges should be seen more by people in the UK. China and the UK should actively conduct more language and culture interaction and mutual learning activities. It is hoped that stakeholders will find the results of this study of interest, which may include UK education policymakers, university departments, British employers, Chinese government agencies, careers advisors, language course coordinators, module convenors, language advisors, and pedagogy researchers. The findings of this study have several important implications for future education practice, especially for future language policy for the long-term and high-quality development of Chinese teaching and learning in the UK, as detailed below.

First, the findings regarding student dissatisfaction with teaching quality and assessment suggest that UK HE and FE should improve and update the standards and criteria for Chinese teaching and assessment. This could make Chinese language teaching and the use of HSK (the Chinese Proficiency Test) better align with the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) /GCSE/A-level/HE outcomes. HSK scales are

currently not well aligned with UK curricular goals and student motivation (Zhang & Li, 2019), which may cause confusion and demotivation, especially for self-taught learners or when teachers do not provide a clear explanation. In addition, research on Chinese language pedagogy in courses such as Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (TCSOL) and PGCE in UK HE needs to be conducted to uncover more practical implications for motivating teaching and learning, especially in the widely acknowledged areas of learning difficulties, such as Chinese character and pronunciation.

Second, it is essential to encourage cooperation between British and Chinese experts in supporting and improving Chinese teacher training programmes. More training opportunities and resources for teachers to continue their professional development are needed, especially blending oral and written approaches and adapting to UK learning contexts and learners' goals (Ye & Edwards, 2017). At the same time, research on the effectiveness of training for teachers of Chinese is required to establish whether there is a need to focus more on their use of motivational strategies in class. Besides, more pedagogic action research between researchers and teachers needs to be encouraged, and researcher-teacher organisations need to be supported to sustain and improve communication links.

Third, a key priority for university language departments, research and teaching organisations like BCLTS (British Chinese Language Teaching Society), BACS (British Association for Chinese Studies) and AULC (Association of University Language Communities) in the UK is to develop innovative teaching resources that keep up with the times to best sustain learner motivation in a continually changing world, especially by creating a range of resources for learners' home learning and online learning. Studies have found that technology helps language learning, especially Chinese characters (Chun et al., 2016; Lyu & Qi, 2020; Stanley, 2013; Zhan & Cheng, 2014). It is also important to apply new technologies to accelerate the digital development of Chinese language teaching and

learning, encourage market-oriented Chinese classes and testing centres, and foster new models and formats of Chinese online education. The benefits of developing online contexts such as MOOCs and other formats free up teachers and learners, making most of the motivation clear, even in early learners (Reparaz et al., 2020).

Fourth, a reasonable approach from the Department of Education in the UK to tackle the imbalance of Chinese language education, both from the perspective of which stage of their education a student is in and their geographic location, thus providing Chinese learning opportunities to all at all life stages, from primary to secondary schools, from FE to HE institutions. Chinese community schools and English Chinese bilingual schools should be supported as well. In university language education, degrees combined with Chinese should be promoted, and study abroad opportunities in China should be encouraged. In addition to formal education, enterprises and social organisations should also be encouraged to participate in Chinese language education.

Fifth, another critical practical implication is that UK educational organisations should develop English Chinese language exchanges and cooperation by improving language services, mainly by providing language support to Chinese people who come to visit, study, work, or live in the UK, as well as British people who go to visit, study, work, or live in China. Experience of studying abroad should be encouraged at all stages, and authentic interaction should be valued. Awareness of sociocultural adaption for both Chinese teachers in Western settings and learners of Chinese should be promoted where possible.

Chinese teaching and learning in the UK have a relatively short history, and it is facing many challenges, such as undeveloped teaching standards, insufficient localisation, inexperienced teachers, out-of-date teaching content and methods, normalisation of the effects and discussions around COVID-19, and politicisation of Chinese education in Confucius Institutes (Zhang & Li, 2019). Therefore, there is still a long way to go in

developing Chinese teaching and learning in the UK regarding strategy planning, standards establishment, and quality assurance.

With the continuous development of economic globalisation and cultural diversity, the world needs more numerous and more profound connections and cooperation. Language education has outstanding success in deepening mutual understanding and promoting cultural interactions. It is therefore hoped that in the future Chinese teaching and learning in the UK will not only be more needed but become more efficient and more creative. These hopes apply equally to teaching and learning other foreign languages in the UK. However, to be most effective, a systematic approach across education, social, economic and international policy sectors is needed, and a UK-wide national strategy for languages is paramount.

The multilingual world today underlines the need for a language policy that provides people with the language skills they need at home and in future global destinations (Seed, 2020). Educational institutions at all stages should provide a varied language repertoire and prepare people with the language skills they need for a multilingual society. Education policymakers should improve the quality of language curricula, teaching, and learning and help position the role of the multiple languages, especially LOTEs, in a more positive and protected context. The implications of the 21st-century shift in pedagogy on re-affirming flexibility and diversity suggest that language attainment should move towards greater diversity and equitable multilingualism (Douglas Fir Group, 2016; Ortega, 2019). This shift also suggests incorporating a range of identities and purposes in language usage, such as increasing awareness and value shown to non-European heritage communities and global opportunities and needs.

9.5.3 Implications for CFL/L2/L3 Chinese Learners

As the study suggests, increasing self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation are important insights derived from motivational research on maintaining and protecting L2 motivation. In

addition to these, another three implications for CFL/L2/L3 Chinese learners are highlighted by the current study.

The first implication is adjusting learners' expectations. The current study suggests that the influence of expectations on motivation needs to be acknowledged. Learners need to be aware that language learning is a slow process to avoid the inevitable low motivation if perceived progress does not meet personal expectations. It is suggested that creating realistic learner beliefs needs to be addressed. Learners need to know more about the slow nature of L2 learning and expected progress and notice the discrepancy, for example, between the advertisement on the website and their actual process. It is also essential to adjust learners' expectations to a new learning environment, especially if it is their first time signing up for a course.

The second implication is encouraging intellectual challenges because being able to enjoy the intellectual challenges during the learning process may help learners keep motivated. For example, Wingate and Andon (2017) suggested that it may be time for a post-communicative approach since language learning is no longer promoted in pragmatic terms such as future career prospects. Conversely, the intellectual challenges involved in foreign language learning seem to be more motivating.

The third implication is the importance of becoming self-regulated learners. Undeniably, learners taking a language as an additional or informal course have more dynamic motivation. Besides, the Chinese language is regarded as a different and challenging language, requiring persistence, resilience, self-regulation, and academic buoyancy.

The above implications - adjusting expectations, enjoying intellectual challenges and becoming self-regulated learners – all suggest that learners could shift from negative to positive motivation. This study echoes previous studies about learners with positive emotions, those who felt inspired, determined, enthusiastic, proud, excited and interested

were more likely to enjoy the course and the teacher, and they were more likely to score higher on integrative motivation (MacIntyre et al., 2020) and have a more self-renewing and sustainable process (Dörnyei et al., 2016).

Especially for the third implication, prior studies found that learners with or without regulatory focus could predict their self-guides, which then, in turn, predict their emotions, which could shape their strategic inclinations and ultimately determine L2 learning success (Papi & Khajavy, 2021); findings from this study suggest that developing self-regulation capabilities and build up positive emotions are essential to CFL/L2/L3 Chinese learners.

9.5.4 Implications for CFL/L2/L3 Chinese Teachers

Teachers play an essential role in nurturing and strengthening learner motivation, promoting more significant learning effort and outcomes, and encouraging continuous learning in the future (Lamb, 2017). Therefore, language teachers need to think more about “how can I create the conditions under which students will be able to motivate themselves” instead of “how can I motivate my students” (Reeve et al. 2004, p. 53). It is suggested from the findings that in a real classroom, teachers can make a difference to learners, either enhancing their motivation or reducing their motivation, especially when teachers are sympathetic and understand learners’ frustration. Unlike MFL teaching in secondary schools, where the preservice and in-service teacher training and policy documents such as official guidelines are relatively established, in HE and FE institutions, individual institutions or teachers need to develop their teaching materials, adopt idiosyncratic strategies, and enhance their classroom practices.

This has also possibly been seen in the evolving practices of Chinese teaching in the last decade. Traditional Chinese teaching styles are traditionally more prescriptive, cramming, rote-learning, exam-focused and teacher-centred. Traditional teaching tends to focus on memorising words, grammar accuracy, the perfection of writing and the

flawlessness of pronunciation. Many teachers (indicated by teacher participants) do not realise that these approaches are unrealistic for Western learners to embrace, and so many were frightened away, mainly because of the additional challenge of learning characters. Instead, teachers of Chinese need to reshape their expectations of Western learners in their communicative abilities and character writing proficiency. Teachers of Chinese also need to realise that deliberate memorisation techniques might be ineffective and unnecessary. It is not only demotivating but also slows down progress.

This study revealed that some Chinese teachers lacked linguistic and pedagogical knowledge, and their teaching practice was based on either their own English learning experiences or teaching approaches heavily influenced by English language teaching practices. However, they need to adapt and develop motivational strategies for Chinese teaching in each context, as there are no universal prescribed teaching methods. They perhaps need to increase their creativity in language teaching. On the other hand, they should not ignore the distinctive features of Chinese as a foreign/second language to learners in the UK. A one-size-fits-all language curriculum based on the linguistic features of European languages might not work in Chinese classrooms. However, this study has not interviewed non-native Chinese teachers nor observed their teaching approaches. Therefore, there might be a difference between native-Chinese teachers and non-native ones. Future exploration is needed to compare and contrast the two groups of teachers to analyse and understand the differences in motivational teaching practice and their students' comments.

Language teachers may very well be likely to act as rescuers for demotivated learners, although they find it difficult to generate and maintain learner motivation to help students make academic progress (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), let alone rejuvenate it. When detecting demotivated students, especially when negative emotion is caused by anxiety in the classroom, losing confidence or getting frustrations from Chinese-specific difficulties (e.g.,

character memorisation), experienced teachers would be empathetic and recognise students' needs and emotional states, have compassion and tender-heartedness toward them, and keep their welfare in mind. Apart from sensing the negative emotions, this study also suggests that teachers need to create and maintain a positive classroom atmosphere where anxiety can be controlled and let positive emotions flourish among students. Creating, as much as possible, enjoyment in learning is essential to students, echoing a previous study, stating that repeated superficial and fleeting pleasurable experiences could act as a self-reinforcing motivator, which then leads to more profound and stable feelings of enjoyment and become buoys that keep learners afloat (Dewaele et al., 2022).

To rescue demotivated learners, teachers need to keep a close eye on learner motivation fluctuation, continuously adapt teaching planning according to students' emotions and react to their temporary motivation. Since a feeling of anxiety might slightly erode motivation without actually undermining it (Dewaele, 2022), teachers can act in time to stop this erosion before the motivation becomes undermined.

9.6 Overall Conclusions

Initially, this study began with an interest in a broad topic area – L2 motivation. Crucially, however, as a result of the author's previous teaching experience, motivation for learning the Chinese language became the primary focus. Then broad research objectives were set – to identify the natures and dynamics of the motivation of Chinese learners and to explore the motivational strategies for teachers to use in class and for learners to use out of the class. Next, the mixed-methods approach was chosen to explore individuals' perceptions (qualitative methodology) and identify the motivational factors of a group of learners (quantitative methodology).

Three research questions in the current study respectively tackled motivation, demotivation, and motivational strategies in CFL learning. First, the findings from this study

confirm the association between motivation and attitude, value, previous learning experience especially with the teacher, confidence and anxiety. Second, these findings support previous research into the causes of demotivation for learning Chinese and suggest that teaching is an essential factor. Therefore, the training of teachers of Chinese has become a key issue in the quality assurance of Chinese teaching. Third, the findings regarding motivational strategies corroborate Dörnyei's frameworks, which suggests that creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, and maintaining and protecting motivation are essential strategies for teachers to motivate learners. Meanwhile, learners' self-regulation strategies for autonomous learning were also explored.

This study provides suggestions for adult learners of Chinese, teachers of Chinese and institutions that offer Chinese language courses, based on the implications drawn from the findings in the UK HE and FE contexts. For learners of Chinese, it is essential to boost their learner autonomy, encourage their autonomous learning and improve their self-efficacy, to enhance their intrinsic motivation. For teachers of Chinese, it is essential to understand learners' anxiety and adopt a sympathetic approach, to strengthen the understanding of the British language pedagogy and learners in the Western setting, and to avoid the China-centric point of view in class. For institutions that offer Chinese courses, it is crucial to constantly improve teaching quality, adopt flexible assessment, to organise additional learning programmes to increase the opportunities to interact with Chinese native speakers. Learners, teachers, and institutions are all responsible for seeking strategies to achieve motivated learning and protect that motivation.

The passion, curiosity and appetite for learning different languages and cultures were found to be important elements in learner motivation; contrary to what is often thought about the motivation for language learning, learners in the UK are motivated to continue Chinese not only by instrumental rationales but rather by their enjoyment of language lessons and by a

sense of personal relevance. Based on the general passion for language learning, learners developed the desire to learn the Chinese language and culture. These learners were also aware of using different learning resources and strategies for the best learning outcomes.

This thesis discusses the issue of students' motivation for beginning and continuing to learn Chinese. It reviews the most up-to-date L2 motivation research theory and practice and provides insight into the UK contexts in which the Chinese language is taught. This research hopes to have contributed to a deeper and broader understanding of what attracts and discourages adult UK learners from learning Chinese. It is hoped that this research demonstrates the value of Chinese language teaching and increases the status of the discipline and profession in the UK. This may help Chinese language education providers adjust their strategies and may lead to higher student enrolment levels. It is also hoped that UK policymakers will use this evidence to better support all learners from diverse backgrounds to access Chinese language education.

In conclusion, the current study demonstrates the breadth and depth of research on motivation for learning Chinese and motivating teaching strategies and advocates for greater recognition and better support for the ongoing professionalisation of Chinese language teachers from both macroscopic and microscopic perspectives. This research, in its way, advocates for higher institutional status and more excellent material investment in Chinese learning and teaching in the UK and beyond.

The HEPI report pointed out that language skills are essential for effective international cooperation, including the management of global crises, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and the development of commercial trade links, while also improving educational performance, cognitive function, intercultural understanding, and social cohesion. However, recently we have seen the closure and downsizing of many university language departments. Consequently, this may impact students from a diverse range of backgrounds for whom

access to local language education is critical to their future development. Thus, the question of how to boost the uptake of all languages and broaden the skills base of the UK in order to remedy the severe national deficit in language skills, especially for China literacy and Mandarin speakers and to foster a truly globally engaged society has become a key area of concern among UK-China policy experts, politicians and academics (see HEPI 2022 report). One argument for supporting Chinese language education is that post-Brexit Britain will want to enter new markets in Asia, and the way that China responds to that issue will directly impact the UK in a post-COVID world. This could be seen as an explicit motivation for policymakers to fund Chinese programs.

This study could be seen as the start of a review of the current state of motivation research and motivational teaching of CFL in the UK and provides a snapshot of the UK's promising but relatively unstable progress in Chinese language teaching and learning. This study points out ideas for improving motivating teaching and autonomous learning; hopefully, these strategies reported by teachers and learners could help encourage more continuous learners of Chinese in the UK. Below are a few recommendations, based on the findings from the study, that may greatly benefit the Chinese language education industry across all sectors in the UK.

The first recommendation is to increase the early exposure to China in schools, which is vital for building a pipeline of China literacy and increasing student numbers in Chinese Studies courses in higher education. Action is needed at the school level and indeed in the broader community. The second recommendation is to provide a broader range of subjects related to Chinese studies in HE and FE institutions, including literature, cinema, history, gender and identity politics, maybe including Hong Kong history and culture and a second Chinese language in addition to Mandarin or indigenous languages in the Chinese diaspora, such as Cantonese, Hakka or Hokkien. The third recommendation is to promote Chinese as

an additional elective module for all students studying languages and for this to count towards course credits. Chinese language and culture as an extracurricular activity is also a crucial area that UK higher education should protect, promote and expand. Finally, as the HEPI report pointed out, where tuition fees exist, additional government funding should be supplemented to safeguard the provision of minority languages and facilitate free additional language learning for students and staff members.

9.7 Autobiographical Reflection

Having reported my research findings with an objective view, I would like to use these last paragraphs to express some subjective reflection. There is a long story I can tell of my involvement with Chinese language teaching over the last ten years, including my personal commitment, the excellent pioneers I met, and the positive outcomes from joint efforts, as well as the pedagogical issues I observed and the concerns I have on future growth, discussed earlier in this study. The currently evolving state of Chinese language education in the UK must feel to many like “crossing the river by touching the stones”, i.e., they want to cross the river, but they are unsure of the best way and must undertake a pragmatic and careful approach towards their desired destination.

Understanding the nature and the dynamics of motivation for learning Chinese is only the first step to further exploring Chinese teaching methods, materials and resources relating to pronunciation, tones, characters, vocabulary, grammar and the teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing, as well as such topics as language assessment, technology-enhanced instruction, social contexts of language teaching, language teaching policy, and language and culture. I hope this study encourages all practitioners from all sectors to conduct some level of research on Chinese language pedagogy, work together with researchers, including inter-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary researchers, and contribute to the growth of these areas.

I must also acknowledge that my PhD training and study have empowered me in my teaching by my direct employment of the knowledge garnered from cutting-edge L2 motivation research. Conversely, my continuous practice in teaching especially encounters with students and other teachers, inspired my research ideas. Undertaking research and teaching in parallel was a fantastic experience, but it was also a big challenge, wearing two hats and switching back and forth between emphatic and rigorous. I believe that the completion of my PhD is the beginning of the next chapter in my teacher-research double life and that I can continue as an independent researcher, studying new topics that I discover in my ongoing role as a teacher. I will always be grateful for all of the learners committed to learning Chinese, and we all need to do our best to make the UK a better environment for learning, teaching and research of the Chinese language.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Online Survey

Enclosed research tools for the Online Survey:

<https://reading.onlinesurveys.ac.uk/adult-learner-motivation-for-cfl-3>

The hard copy of the online questionnaire:

Participant information sheet

Dear participant, I am doing research on adult Chinese as a Foreign Language learners' motivation in the UK. I would be very grateful if you could complete this questionnaire to explore your Chinese learning. It should take no more than 10 minutes to complete. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you are free to omit any questions.

It is designed to be anonymous. All participants will be assured of anonymity, and your responses will not be shared with your teachers or department. You are reassured your participation or non-participation in the project will not affect any course grades. After completion, there is no way of identifying your responses as yours, so please bear in mind we would not be able to remove your data from the sample after submission. By completing this questionnaire, you are confirming that you understand the purpose of the research and that you give your consent for me to use your anonymous responses to inform further planning in future presentations and publications.

This study is being undertaken by Chuyi Wang (a PhD student in the Institute of Education at the University of Reading, chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk) and supervised by Professor Suzanne Graham (s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk) and Dr Daguo Li: d.li@reading.ac.uk). This study has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurance in place. Full details are available on request.

Participant Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what you want me to do. All my questions have been answered. I agree to take part in this project.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this project and that I can stop at any time without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on my grades.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to complete the questionnaires.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Part A

In the first Section, I would like you to answer these questions by giving different degrees:

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

For example, if you like swimming very much, circle or tick “Absolutely true” for the following statement: “I like swimming very much”.

Section 1:

1. I am always looking forward to my Chinese classes.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

2. I am determined to push myself to learn Chinese.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

3. I find learning Chinese really interesting.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

4. I am not willing to work hard at learning Chinese.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

5. Going to classes to learn Chinese is important to me.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

6. I appreciate the values and customs of other cultures.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

7. I believe Chinese will be an internationally important language one day.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

8. I always feel that my classmates speak a foreign language better than I do.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

9. I don't think speaking Chinese would help my future career prospects.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

10. I am prepared to put a lot of effort into learning Chinese.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

11. I don't work very carefully on Chinese homework.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

12. I feel like there is a bond between my Chinese teacher and myself.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

13. I find it easy to work with people who have different customs and values.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

14. I frequently go over again what we have learnt in my Chinese class.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

15. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my Chinese class.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

16. I have a positive relationship with my Chinese teacher.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

17. I have no interest in Chinese films.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

18. I have a very strong desire to learn Chinese.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

Section 2:

1. My Chinese teacher respects us as learners.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

2. I immediately ask the teacher for help when I have a problem understanding something in Chinese class.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

3. I have no interest in the values and customs of other cultures.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

4. I like making friends with people from China.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

5. I make sure I know what is required of me before I begin doing a task in my Chinese class.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

6. I often wish I could watch TV, and read newspapers, magazines and other cultural media in the Chinese language.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

7. I remain motivated in Chinese learning activities even though they require long periods of effort.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

8. My Chinese teacher relates well to me.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

9. I think Chinese is a relevant language in the world today.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

10. I think I am the type who would feel anxious and uncomfortable if I had to speak to someone in a foreign language.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

11. My Chinese teacher can tell when we are demotivated.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

12. I think I would study a foreign language even if it weren't necessary.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

13. I think that being able to speak Chinese would help me to become a more knowledgeable person.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

14. I think that China has an important role to play in the world.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

15. I think that China is an advanced and developed nation.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

16. I'm not very good at volunteering answers in my Chinese.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

17. My Chinese teacher really understands how we feel about learning.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

18. I think that it is important to learn Chinese in order to understand more about the culture and arts of its speakers.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

Section 3:

1. I try to form a plan in my mind before I actually start tasks in my Chinese language class.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

2. I volunteer answers as much as possible when I am in my Chinese class.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

3. I would like to learn as many languages as possible.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

4. If a Chinese course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

5. If Chinese were not taught in the university/college, I would try to go to Chinese classes somewhere else.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

6. If I could have access to Chinese - speaking videos, I would watch them help me learn Chinese.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

7. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak its language.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

8. My Chinese teacher gives us enough academic support.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

9. If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra Chinese assignment, I would certainly volunteer.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

10. If the opportunity arose to speak Chinese outside of class, I would use it as much as possible.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

11. In my environment, learning Chinese doesn't really matter that much.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

12. Learning a foreign language is a difficult task for me.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

13. I would feel uneasy speaking Chinese with a native speaker.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

14. My Chinese teacher cares about our learning progress.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

15. We can count on our Chinese teacher for help when we need it.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

16. My family does not consider Chinese an important course in university/college.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

17. People around me tend to think that learning Chinese is a waste of time.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

18. When I run into a difficult problem, I keep working on it until I think I've solved it.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

Part B

Based on your experience of learning Chinese characters, please select a response for these items.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

Please select one response only per statement.

1. When I am studying Chinese characters, and the learning environment becomes unsuitable, I find a solution.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

2. I have some special techniques to achieve my learning goals when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

3. I have some special techniques to keep my concentration focused when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

4. I feel satisfied with the methods I use to reduce the stress of learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

5. I believe I can achieve my goals more quickly than expected when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

6. During the process of learning Chinese characters, I feel satisfied with the ways I eliminate boredom.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

7. I think my methods of controlling my concentration are effective when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

8. I persist until I reach the goals that I make for myself when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

9. When it comes to Chinese characters, I have some special techniques to prevent procrastination (delay).

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

10. I believe I can overcome all the difficulties related to achieving my Chinese character learning goals.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

11. I know how to arrange the environment to make learning more efficient when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

12. When I feel stressed about my Chinese character learning, I cope with this problem immediately.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

13. I think my methods of controlling procrastination (delay) are effective when it comes to learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

14. I am aware that the learning environment matters when learning Chinese characters.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

15. During the process of learning Chinese characters, I am confident that I can overcome any sense of boredom.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

16. When feeling bored with learning Chinese characters, I know how to regulate my mood in order to invigorate the learning process.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

17. When I feel stressed about Chinese characters learning, I simply want to give up.

Not true at all	Not really true	Partly untrue	Partly true	Mostly true	Absolutely true
-----------------	-----------------	---------------	-------------	-------------	-----------------

Part C

Finally, please answer a few personal questions to help me understand you better.

- Age: _____
- Gender: Female Male Other
- Nationality: _____
- Your university/college: _____
- Your year in university/college: _____

6. Are you taking a credit-bearing course? Yes No
7. If you are a university student, what do you study for your main degree: _____
8. Your native language: _____
9. Foreign languages you speak: _____
10. Were you raised in a home where Chinese is spoken? _____ If yes, who spoke Chinese?

11. Did you learn Chinese in school? _____ If yes, to what level _____ For how long _____
12. Have you experienced “demotivation” in your Chinese learning experience? (More than one can be ticked or circled)
- No, my motivation for learning Chinese did not drop.
 - Yes, because of unsupportive teachers.
 - Yes, because of an unsupportive learning environment.
 - Yes, because of the inappropriate teaching approach.
 - Yes, because of inappropriate teaching material.
 - Yes, because I realised Chinese was too difficult for me.
 - Yes, because I did not put enough effort into learning, so I did not see my progress.
 - Yes, because I did not have the time to put the necessary effort in due to other commitments.
 - Yes, because I realised I was not very good at learning a new language.
 - Others _____
13. How much time do you spend studying Chinese outside the classroom as activities required by the teacher such as homework in an average week?
- A. Less than 1h
 - B. Between 1h to 3h
 - C. Between 3 to 5h
 - D. More than 5h
14. How much time do you spend studying Chinese outside as non-required activities such as talking with a Chinese language partner?
- A. Less than 1h
 - B. Between 1h to 3h
 - C. Between 3 to 5h
 - D. More than 5h
15. What kinds of things do you do to study/practise Chinese outside class? (More than one can be ticked or circled)
- A. Watching movies and other videos
 - B. Communication with native speakers
 - C. Writing out Chinese characters repeatedly
 - D. Learning through Apps

- E. Having an additional tutor
- F. Having a study group
- G. Reading Chinese novels
- H. Listening to music
- I. Using textbooks
- J. Others _____

16. Have you travelled to China before? If yes, where _____, when _____, why _____ and for how long _____?

17. At what level do you speak Chinese?
(1 is very low, 10 is very high)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

18. At what level do you understand spoken Chinese?
(1 is very low, 10 is very high)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

19. At what level can you read Chinese characters?
(1 is very low, 10 is very high)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

20. At what level can you write Chinese characters?
(1 is very low, 10 is very high)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

As a further part of my research, I would like to interview a small group of Chinese learners for approximately 30 minutes. If you are interested in volunteering for this at a time and place convenient to you (face to face or by telephone), please leave your email address below.

Thank you very much for your participation. If you have any other comments about this survey, please feel free to contact: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Appendix B: Interview Protocols

Learner Interview Protocol (semi-structured)

Previous second language learning experience:

1. Have you studied any foreign languages before? If so, what languages have you studied? When and where did you study them, and for how long?
2. Why did you choose to study them?
3. How would you describe the learning experience?
4. How would you describe yourself as a language learner? Is learning a language something that you find easy and enjoyable, or rather difficult and frustrating?

Previous Chinese language learning experience:

1. Have you ever taken any Chinese lessons before? If so, when and where did you take them, and for how long?
2. How would you describe the experience of taking Chinese classes?
3. Have you ever studied Chinese in a non-classroom setting? If so, when and how?
4. How would you describe the experience of studying Chinese in a non-classroom setting?

CFL learning motivation:

1. Why and how did you decide to take this Chinese course?
2. Do you have family or friends who encourage or push you to learn Chinese?
3. Have you ever travelled to China or a Chinese-speaking area? If so, where, when and for how long?
4. Do you believe you will get better future opportunities if you speak Chinese?
5. When you think about China, Chinese people and Chinese culture, what comes to your mind first of all?
6. How many people (family, friends, and neighbours) in your life are native speakers of Chinese? Do they have any impact on your Chinese learning? In what way?
7. Do you have any plans to live and work in China?
8. Has the level of your motivation to learn Chinese changed at all since....?
9. How do you manage these changes in your motivation level?

Chinese learning experience:

1. Do you find learning Chinese easy or difficult, and why?
2. How do you cope with difficulties in Chinese learning?
3. How would you describe your experience of learning Chinese so far?
4. How do you balance the demands of learning Chinese and your main degree/job?
5. How well do you think your Chinese teacher supports you in your learning??
6. Do you have any other support channels for your learning?
7. Do you have any plans to continue with your Chinese learning?

Teacher Interview Protocol (semi-structured)

1. Could you please tell me about how you came to be a teacher of Chinese in England and about your career trajectory?
2. What did you study at university? What teaching qualifications do you have?
3. Do you enjoy teaching Chinese in the UK?
4. Think of your most successful classroom activity. What makes it successful?
5. What has been the biggest challenge for you as a Chinese teacher?
6. Why do you think your students learn Chinese?
7. Do you think their levels of motivation are easy to enhance or decrease?
8. What sort of role do you think the teacher plays in students' motivation?
9. Are there any differences between Chinese and UK language pedagogy? What are they, in your view?
10. Do you have any suggestions for improving CFL teaching and learning in the UK?

In terms of motivating students, in your opinion, which of the following behaviours given on these cards are important in influencing student motivation? Could you please rank them in importance, then explain the ranking of each one? If you think anything is missing, could you please write any additional behaviours on one of these cards?

- 1) . . . **helping students improve their learning strategies** . . .
 - 2) . . . **letting students face right level of challenges** . . .
 - 3) . . . **identifying changes in student's motivation levels** . . .
 - 4) . . . **respecting and caring for students** . . .
 - 5) . . . **using the teaching style that students enjoy in class** . . .
 - 6) . . . **introducing Chinese cultural elements in class** . . .
 - 7) . . . **promoting the benefits of speaking Chinese** . . .
 - 8) . . . **giving students positive and constructive feedback** . . .
11. Is there any other aspect we have not spoken about that you feel an impact on student motivation?

Appendix C: The Classroom Observation Scheme

Motivation Orientation in Chinese Language Class (MOCLC)																																					
Activity	Learner's Behaviour											Teacher's Motivational Practice															Feedback	Evaluation									
	Classroom Setting		Alertness		Active Participation		Passive Participation			Teacher's Discourse							Teacher's Activity Design					Constructive Feedback	Neutral Feedback	Self/Peer Correction	Effective Praise	Class Applause											
	Speaking - Individual	Speaking - Pair	Speaking - Group	Individual Seatwork	Very Low Alertness (< 1/3)	Low Alertness (1/3 - 1/2)	High Alertness (> 2/3)	Very Low Participation (< 1/3)	Low Participation (1/3 - 1/2)	High Participation (> 2/3)	Referential Questions	Promoting Autonomy	Promoting Co-operation	Scaffolding	Arouse Curiosity or Promoting Instrumental	Promoting Integrative	Establishing Relevance	Stating Communicative	Sign Posting	Social Chat	Tangible Reward							Personalisation	Creative/Interesting/Fant	Intellectual Challenge	Tangible Task Product	Individual Competition	Team Competition				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	
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Short questionnaire after the lesson (for learners to fill in):

Please circle the level between 1- 10 which best matches how you feel (1 is the lowest and 10 is the highest)

1. How would you rate your enjoyment of this lesson?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
2. How would you rate the overall classroom support you had in this lesson?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
3. How would you rate your confidence in learning Chinese after this lesson?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
4. How would you rate your desire to review and do homework after this lesson?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
5. How would you rate your motivation level after this lesson?
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
6. What was the most interesting thing that happened in this lesson?

7. What was the least interesting thing that happened in this lesson?

Post-lesson evaluation of the class (for the researcher's use):

	Low						high
1. Appropriate use of the Target Language	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2. Focused, task-oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	
3. Increases students' expectancy of success	1	2	3	4	5	6	
4. Clear instructions and explanations	1	2	3	4	5	6	
5. Creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	
6. Radiates enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5	6	
7. Kind, caring, creates a pleasant atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5	6	
8. Encouraging	1	2	3	4	5	6	
9. Humours, light-hearted style	1	2	3	4	5	6	

Field Notes (for the researcher's use):

Appendix D: Ethical Approval from the University of Reading

University of Reading
Institute of Education
Ethical Approval Form A (version November 2018)



Tick one:

Staff project: _____ PhD EdD _____

Name of applicant (s): Chuyi Wang

Title of project: A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK

Name of supervisor (for student projects): Professor Suzanne Graham

Please complete the form below including relevant sections overleaf.

	YES	NO	
Have you prepared an Information Sheet for participants and/or their parents/carers that:			
a) explains the purpose(s) of the project	✓		
b) explains how they have been selected as potential participants	✓		
c) gives a full, fair and clear account of what will be asked of them and how the information that they provide will be used	✓		
d) makes clear that participation in the project is voluntary	✓		
e) explains the arrangements to allow participants to withdraw at any stage if they wish	✓		
f) explains the arrangements to ensure the confidentiality of any material collected during the project, including secure arrangements for its storage, retention and disposal	✓		
g) explains the arrangements for publishing the research results and, if confidentiality might be affected, for obtaining written consent for this	✓		
h) explains the arrangements for providing participants with the research results if they wish to have them	✓		
i) gives the name and designation of the member of staff with responsibility for the project together with contact details, including email. If any of the project investigators are students at the IoE, then this information must be included and their name provided	✓		
k) explains, where applicable, the arrangements for expenses and other payments to be made to the participants	✓		
j) includes a standard statement indicating the process of ethical review at the University undergone by the project, as follows: ‘This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct’.	✓		
k) includes a standard statement regarding insurance: ‘The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request’.	✓		
Please answer the following questions			
1) Will you provide participants involved in your research with all the information necessary to ensure that they are fully informed and not in any way deceived or misled as to the purpose(s) and nature of the research? (Please use the subheadings used in the example information sheets on blackboard to ensure this).	✓		
2) Will you seek written or other formal consent from all participants, if they are able to provide it, in addition to (1)?	✓		
3) Is there any risk that participants may experience physical or psychological distress in taking part in your research?		✓	
4) Have you taken the online training modules in data protection and information security (which can be found here: http://www.reading.ac.uk/internal/imps/Staffpages/imps-info-sec-selfenrol.aspx Please note: although this is on staff pages it is also for students.	✓		
5) Have you read the Health and Safety booklet (available on Blackboard) and completed a Risk Assessment Form to be included with this ethics application?	✓		
6) Does your research comply with the University’s Code of Good Practice in Research?	✓		
	YES	NO	N.A.
7) If your research is taking place in a school, have you prepared an information sheet and consent form to gain the permission in writing of the head teacher or other relevant supervisory professional?	✓		
8) Has the data collector obtained satisfactory DBS clearance?	✓		
9) If your research involves working with children under the age of 16 (or those whose special			✓

educational needs mean they are unable to give informed consent), have you prepared an information sheet and consent form for parents/carers to seek permission in writing, or to give parents/carers the opportunity to decline consent?			
10) If your research involves processing sensitive personal data ¹ , or if it involves audio/video recordings, have you obtained the explicit consent of participants/parents?	√		
11) If you are using a data processor to subcontract any part of your research, have you got a written contract with that contractor which (a) specifies that the contractor is required to act only on your instructions, and (b) provides for appropriate technical and organisational security measures to protect the data?			√
12a) Does your research involve data collection outside the UK?		√	
12b) If the answer to question 12a is “yes”, does your research comply with the legal and ethical requirements for doing research in that country?			√
13a) Does your research involve collecting data in a language other than English?		√	
13b) If the answer to question 13a is “yes”, please confirm that information sheets, consent forms, and research instruments, where appropriate, have been directly translated from the English versions submitted with this application.			√
14a. Does the proposed research involve children under the age of 5?		√	
14b. If the answer to question 14a is “yes”: My Head of School (or authorised Head of Department) has given details of the proposed research to the University’s insurance officer, and the research will not proceed until I have confirmation that insurance cover is in place.			√
If you have answered YES to Question 3, please complete Section B below			

- Complete **either** Section A or Section B below with details of your research project.
 - Complete a risk assessment.
 - Sign the form in Section C.
 - Append at the end of this form all relevant documents: information sheets, consent forms, tests, questionnaires, interview schedules, evidence that you have completed information security training (e.g. screen shot/copy of certificate).
 - Email the completed form to the Institute’s Ethics Committee for consideration.
- Any missing information will result in the form being returned to you.**

A: My research goes beyond the ‘accepted custom and practice of teaching’ but I consider that this project has no significant ethical implications. (Please tick the box.)	√
Please state the total number of participants that will be involved in the project and give a breakdown of how many there are in each category e.g. teachers, parents, pupils etc.	
There will a total number of 602 participants that will be involved in the project. There will be 12 teachers and around 590 learners.	
Give a brief description of the aims and the methods (participants, instruments and procedures) of the project in up to 200 words noting:	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. title of project 2. purpose of project and its academic rationale 3. brief description of methods and measurements 4. participants: recruitment methods, number, age, gender, exclusion/inclusion criteria 5. consent and participant information arrangements, debriefing (attach forms where necessary) 6. a clear and concise statement of the ethical considerations raised by the project and how you intend to deal with then. 7. estimated start date and duration of project 	
The project is entitled <i>A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK</i> . This study aims to understand Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) motivation by analysing the relationship between motivational factors identified by individuals and their classroom experiences; and whether, how and why motivation changes over time. Both quantitative and qualitative data will be collected, including through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation. This research will also survey Chinese teachers who teach Chinese in the UK regarding their understandings of students' motivations and the motivational teaching strategies they employ. This study aims to address	

¹ Sensitive personal data consists of information relating to the racial or ethnic origin of a data subject, their political opinions, religious beliefs, trade union membership, sexual life, physical or mental health or condition, or criminal offences or record.

both the theoretical gaps in the field of motivation research for adult amateur CFL learners in the UK and offer suggestions for improving levels of motivation within that group.

The *Adult Learner Motivation for CFL Questionnaire* will be sent out to 35 Higher Education (HE) universities and 24 Further Education (FE) institutions across different regions of the UK, by using strategic convenience sampling, and responses from around 10 students in each institution are expected. The questionnaire will ask respondents about their age, gender, first language, previous learning experience as well as their motivation for learning Chinese. Classroom observation will take place in the Chinese IWLP course in one University and in the adult evening classes of one FE College. Classes will be observed in the autumn term 2019, with two hours per week for each class, over ten weeks. An adapted version of the *Motivational orientation of language teaching (MOLT) Observation Scheme* (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2009) will be used to record teachers' motivational practice and learners' behaviour in class. Face to face interviews with three students (selected from those who volunteer) and the teacher of each class will form a third round of data collection.

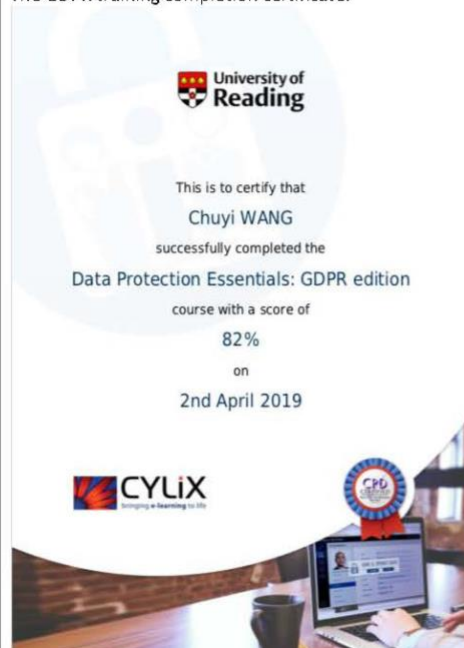
The participants will not include children or vulnerable people, and the questions will not be of a sensitive nature. All participants will be assured of anonymity and student responses will not be shared with their teachers. Students will be reassured that their participation or non-participation in the project will not affect any course grades. Information from teachers or students will not be shared with the college or University. Lesson observations will be non-judgemental in nature and teachers will be reassured about that aspect. By observing all classes over the autumn term, I hope to minimise disruption to normal routines as students and teachers become used to my presence. I will sit out of direct sight of the teacher and class and will not intervene in lessons. If any student who does not agree to my observing classes, I will ensure that I sit completely out of their line of vision and will not record any information relating to them on the observation schedule.

The estimated start date for the pilot study is May 2019, the formal data collection starts period is September 2019 to May 2020.

Attachments list:

1. Emailed letter for head of department whose students I want to complete just the online questionnaire
2. Information sheet to go at the start of the online questionnaire
3. Information sheet and Consent form for language department directors (re questionnaires, observations, interviews)
4. Information sheet and Consent form for learners (re questionnaires, observations, interviews)
5. Information sheet and Consent form for teachers (re questionnaires, observations, interviews)
6. Research instruments
- 7.

The GDPR training completion certificate:



B: I consider that this project may have ethical implications that should be brought before the Institute's Ethics Committee.	
Please state the total number of participants that will be involved in the project and give a breakdown of how many there are in each category e.g. teachers, parents, pupils etc.	
Give a brief description of the aims and the methods (participants, instruments and procedures) of the project in up to 200 words.	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. title of project 2. purpose of project and its academic rationale 3. brief description of methods and measurements 4. participants: recruitment methods, number, age, gender, exclusion/inclusion criteria 5. consent and participant information arrangements, debriefing (attach forms where necessary) 6. a clear and concise statement of the ethical considerations raised by the project and how you intend to deal with them. 7. estimated start date and duration of project 	

RISK ASSESSMENT: Please complete the form below

Brief outline of Work/activity:	Survey, interview, classroom observation	
Where will data be collected?	In universities/colleges and online	
Significant hazards:	No	
Who might be exposed to hazards?	Not applicable	
Existing control measures:	The college and University have their own health and safety procedures and measures in place	
Are risks adequately controlled:	Yes	
If NO, list additional controls and actions required:	Additional controls	Action by:
	Apply relevant health and safety rules and regulations	Self

C: SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT:

Note: a signature is required. Typed names are not acceptable.

I have declared all relevant information regarding my proposed project and confirm that ethical good practice will be followed within the project.

Signed: Print Name..... Chuyi Wang..... Date..... 04/04/2019.....

STATEMENT OF ETHICAL APPROVAL FOR PROPOSALS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE ETHICS COMMITTEE

This project has been considered using agreed Institute procedures and is now approved.

Signed: ... (IoE Research Ethics Committee representative)*
(IoE Research Ethics Committee representative) *
Print Name: Karen Jones
Date: 29 April 2019

* A decision to allow a project to proceed is not an expert assessment of its content or of the possible risks involved in the investigation, nor does it detract in any way from the ultimate responsibility which students/investigators must themselves have for these matters. Approval is granted on the basis of the information declared by the applicant.

Appendix E: Information Sheets and Consent Forms

1. Information sheet and consent form for learners in the interview:



PhD Research Project: A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK

PGR researcher: Chuyi Wang

Supervisors: Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Dr Daguo Li: d.li@reading.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study about the motivation for Chinese as a foreign language in the UK.

What is the study?

The study aims to investigate the motivation for Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) among adult learners studying in universities and colleges on additional courses in the UK by analysing the relationship between motivational factors identified by individuals and their classroom experiences; and whether, how and why motivation changes over time. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best help improve motivation for Chinese learning in the UK. The study will form part of a PhD thesis entitled *A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK*.

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part in the project because you have been taking the Chinese course at a university or college language centre. You have been selected as you have participated in the online questionnaire, and you have been identified your level of Chinese and motivation to be suitable for the research. Your participation will give a sample of learners in a Chinese language class in a UK Higher Education or Further Education institution.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you participate. You may also withdraw at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher using the details above.

What will happen if I take part?

This will involve an interview about your Chinese learning experience. If you agree to take part, it will take place at a time and location convenient to you, lasting about 30 minutes. With your permission, this interview will be audio-recorded and transcribed.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information you give will remain confidential and will only be seen by the researcher. Neither you nor the institutions will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with anyone in the course. Taking part will in no way influence the grades you receive on your course. Information will not be shared with teachers.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and useful to reflect on their learning. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers and learners. A copy of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence, and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer, and only the researcher will have access to the records. In line with the University's policy on the management of research data, anonymised data gathered in this research may be preserved and made publicly available for others to consult and re-use. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences and in written reports and articles. We can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

We do hope that you will agree to take part in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to your teacher for my collection.

This application has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. Thank you for your time.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chuyi Wang

Participant Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what you want me to do. All my questions have been answered. I agree to take part in this project.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this project and that I can stop at any time without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on my grades.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I am willing to take part in an interview which will be recorded.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

2. Information sheet and consent form for learners in the observed class:



PhD Research Project: A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK
PGR researcher: Chuyi Wang
Supervisors: Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Dr Daguo Li: d.li@reading.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet

I would like to invite you to take part in a research study about the motivation for learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) in the UK that I am conducting as part of my PhD at the Institute of Education at the University of Reading.

What is the study?

The study aims to investigate the motivation for learning CFL among adult learners studying in Higher Education and Further Education institution on additional courses in the UK by analysing the relationship between motivational factors identified by individuals and their classroom experiences; and whether, how and why motivation changes over time. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best help improve motivation for Chinese learning in the UK. The study will form part of a PhD thesis entitled *A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK*.

Why have I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part in the project because you have been taking the Chinese course at a Higher Education or a Further Education organisation. All students in the class are invited to take part, to give a sample of CFL adult learners in the UK.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you participate. You may also withdraw at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher using the details above.

What will happen if I take part?

This will involve visits from the researcher to the class this term. During the observation, the researcher will complete an observation schedule to record which kinds of activities occur in the classroom. The researcher will not need to interact with anyone during the class. The observations will not disrupt lessons in any way. The aim of the observations is not in any way to make a judgement about the nature of the teaching but rather to gain insights into learners' classroom experiences. The researcher has full DBS clearance and is a Chinese language teacher myself. Should any student not consent to the observation, I will seat myself so that they are out of my line of vision and will not include any data relating to them in my records of the lesson.

After the class, I will ask you to fill in a short questionnaire to get an idea of your motivations. It takes less than one minute to complete.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information you give will remain confidential and will only be seen by the researcher. Neither you nor the institutions will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with anyone in the course. Taking part will in no way influence the grades you receive on your course. Information will not be shared with teachers.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting and useful to reflect on their learning. The researcher anticipates that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers and learners. A copy of the findings of the study can be made available to you by contacting the researcher.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence, and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer, and only the researcher will have access to the records. In line with the University's policy on the management of research data, anonymised data gathered in this research may be preserved and made publicly available for others to consult and re-use. The results of the study may be presented at national and international conferences and in written reports and articles. We can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

I do hope that you will agree to take part in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to the researcher.

This application has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. Thank you for your time.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Chuyi Wang

Oct. 2019

Participant Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what you want me to do. All my questions have been answered. I agree to take part in this project.

I understand that it is my choice to help with this project and that I can stop at any time without giving a reason and that it won't have any effect on my grades.

I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the Information Sheet.

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the observation of my Chinese classes

I consent to complete short questionnaires after the lesson

Signed: _____

Date: _____

3. Information sheet and consent form for teachers in the observed class:



PhD Research Project: A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK

PGR researcher: Chuyi Wang

Supervisors: Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Dr Daguo Li: d.li@reading.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet

Dear XX

I am writing to invite you and your class to take part in a research study about the motivation for Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) in the UK.

What is the study?

I am conducting a study looking at the learning motivation for CFL in the UK. I am also interested in finding out more about the kinds of motivational strategies teachers use in Chinese classes. The study will form part of a PhD thesis entitled *A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK*, whose aim is to understand motivation among adult learners studying in universities and colleges on additional courses in the UK.

Why have my class and I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part because you teach Chinese on a university IWLP or Further Education College course within easy reach of my own institution. I have had initial, informal contact with you, and you have kindly indicated that you would be interested in taking part in our study.

Do my class, and I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you consent to participate. You may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher, Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk.

What will happen if my class and I take part?

If you do agree to take part, this will involve visits from the researcher during the Autumn term. I will observe you teaching Chinese to level one/two learners for ten lessons in the autumn term, two hours per week. During the observation, I will complete an observation schedule to record which kinds of activities occur in the classroom. I will not need to interact with anyone during the class. The observations will not disrupt lessons in any way. The aim of the observations is not in any way to make a judgement about the nature of the teaching but rather to gain insights into learners' classroom experiences. I have a full DBS clearance and am a Chinese language teacher myself.

After the class, I will ask students to fill in a short questionnaire to get an idea of how their motivations fluctuate through the term.

I would also like to interview you three times to know more about your opinions on motivating students before the term starts, halfway through the term and after the term ends. The interviews will last around 30 minutes each time and will be carried out at a time and place to suit you. With your consent, they will be audio-recorded and transcribed. I would also like to interview three voluntary students in class after the term ends about their motivation for approximately 30 minutes each.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by the research team listed at the start of this letter. Neither you nor the students of the department will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the department. Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. I anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in motivating their students and improving the teaching quality in the UK.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence, and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking the teacher, the department or any student to the study will be included in any sort of report or academic paper that might be published based on the data. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer, and only the research team will have access to the records. In line with the University's policy on the management of research data, anonymised data gathered in this research may be preserved and made publicly available for others to consult and re-use. The researchers can send the results of this research to you electronically if you wish to have them.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. You may withdraw your consent to participate by contacting the researcher, Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk.

If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the department's data appropriately.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; Tel: 0118 378 2684, email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk.

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact the researcher Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk.

I do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurance in place. Full details are available on request.

Please indicate whether you are willing to take part in this project by completing the enclosed Consent Form and returning it to me. I very much hope that you will be willing to contribute to this project, which we feel will be of value to the development of Chinese language teaching in the UK.

If you have any queries or wish to clarify anything about the study, please feel free to contact us.

Yours faithfully
Chuyi Wang

Participant Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.
I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of teacher: _____

Name of institution: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

	Yes	No
I consent to participate in classroom observations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I consent to participating in an audio-recorded interview	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Signed: _____

Date: _____

4. Information sheet and consent form for teachers in the interview:



PhD Research Project: A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK

PGR researcher: Chuyi Wang

Supervisors: Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Dr Daguo Li: d.li@reading.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet

Dear XX

I am writing to invite you to take part in a research study about the motivation for learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) in the UK that I am conducting as part of my PhD at the University of Reading's Institute of Education.

What is the study?

I am conducting a study looking at the learning motivation for CFL in the UK. I am also interested in finding out more about the kinds of motivational strategies teachers use in Chinese classes. The study will form part of a PhD thesis entitled A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK, whose aim is to understand motivation among adult learners studying in universities and colleges on additional courses in the UK.

Why have my class and I been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to take part because you teach Chinese on a university IWLP or Further Education College course within easy reach of my own institution. I have had initial, informal contact with you, and you have kindly indicated that you would be interested in taking part in my study.

Do my class, and I have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you consent to participate. You may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher, Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk.

What will happen if my class and I take part?

If you do agree to take part, this will involve an interview about your teaching experience and motivational practice. The interviews will last around 30-40 minutes and will be carried out at a time and place to suit you. With your consent, they will be audio-recorded and transcribed.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by the researcher and the supervisor. Neither you nor the students of the department will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the department. Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. I anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for teachers in motivating their students and improving the teaching quality in the UK.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence, and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking the teacher, the department or any student to the study will be included in any sort of report or academic paper that might be published based on the data. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer, and only the research team will have access to the records. In line with the University's policy on the management of research data, anonymised data gathered in this research may be preserved and made publicly available for others to consult and re-use. I can send the results of this research to you electronically if you wish to have them.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. You may withdraw your consent to participate by contacting the researcher, Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk.

If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the department's data appropriately.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; Tel: 0118 378 2684, email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk.

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact the researcher Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurance in place. Full details are available on request.

I do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me. I very much hope that you will be willing to contribute to this project, which I feel will be of value to the development of Chinese language teaching in the UK. If you have any queries or wish to clarify anything about the study, please feel free to contact me.

Yours faithfully
Chuyi Wang

May 2019

Participant Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.

I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of teacher: _____

Name of institution: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to participate in an audio-recorded interview.

Yes

No

Signed: _____

Date: _____

5. Information sheet and consent form for language department directors:



Participants Information Sheet

PhD Research Project: A study of the motivation of adult learners who learn Chinese as a foreign language in the UK

PGR researcher: Chuyi Wang

Supervisors: Professor Suzanne Graham: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk
Dr Daguo Li: d.li@reading.ac.uk

Dear XX

I am writing to seek your consent for your department to take part in a research study about the motivation for Chinese as a foreign language in the UK that I am conducting as part of my PhD at the University of Reading's Institute of Education.

What is the study?

The study aims to investigate the motivation for Chinese as a foreign language among adult learners studying in universities and colleges in the UK, exploring the relationship between motivational factors identified by individuals and their classroom experiences; and whether, how and why motivation changes over time. It hopes to make recommendations regarding how we can best enhance and maintain motivation for Chinese learning in the UK.

Why has this department been chosen to take part?

Your institution offers Chinese as a foreign language course for adult learners and is within easy reach of the Institute of Education. Following informal discussions, Teacher X has expressed an interest in involvement with our project.

Does the department have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you give permission for the department to participate. You may also withdraw your consent to participate at any time during the project, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher, Miss Chuyi Wang, Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if the department takes part?

With your agreement, further participation would invite the students to participate in a survey, classroom observations in the class of Mrs X and conducting interviews with her and three students from the class. In the survey phase, a questionnaire will be administered to students who are currently on the Chinese course. In the observation phase, I would like to observe ten lessons during the term, two hours per week. My focus would be on patterns of motivation and engagement within the classroom. There would be no interaction with students or the teacher in class in order to minimise disruption. I have full DBS clearance and experience teaching Chinese in the UK. At the end of each observed lesson, I would ask learners to complete a further short questionnaire (taking no

more than 5 minutes) (see it in the 6. *Enclosed research tool: Short questionnaire after the lesson*) about their motivation levels during the lesson. The observations will not be audio or video recorded.

Additionally, in order for us to set the learner's Chinese learning in context, it would be helpful for us to have information regarding the number of students enrolled on Chinese language courses in the last five years and, if available, a breakdown of the nationality and gender of students.

We would also like to conduct an interview with Mrs X about her experiences of Chinese teaching in the UK at three time points: before the course starts, halfway through the course and again after the term ends. Additionally, we would like to interview three students from the class once after the term ends. Interviews would take around 30 minutes and would take place at a time and place convenient to all participants, and would be audio-recorded with their consent.

If you agree to the department's participation, we will seek further consent from all participants themselves.

What are the risks and benefits of taking part?

The information given by participants in the study will remain confidential and will only be seen by the research team listed at the start of this letter. Neither you nor the students of the institutions will be identifiable in any published report resulting from the study. Information about individuals will not be shared with the institutions.

Participants in similar studies have found it interesting to take part. We anticipate that the findings of the study will be useful for improving Chinese learning motivation.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence, and no real names will be used in this study or in any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you, the students of the department, to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Participants will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number in all records. Research records will be stored securely in a locked filing cabinet and on a password-protected computer, and only the research team will have access to the records. In line with the University's policy on the management of research data, anonymised data gathered in this research may be preserved and made publicly available for others to consult and re-use. The results of the study will be presented at national and international conferences and in written reports and articles. We can send you electronic copies of these publications if you wish.

What happens if I change my mind?

You can change your mind at any time without any repercussions. If you change your mind after data collection has ended, we will discard the data appropriately.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact Professor Suzanne Graham, University of Reading; Tel: 0118 378 2684, email: s.j.graham@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Chuyi Wang

Tel: 07421075258, email: chuyi.wang@pgr.reading.ac.uk

We do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study.
If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it to me.

This project has been reviewed following the procedures of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurance in place. Full details are available on request.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely

Chuyi Wang

April 2019

Participant Consent Form

I have read the Information Sheet about the project and received a copy of it.
I understand what the purpose of the project is and what is required of me. All my questions have been answered.

Name of director: _____

Name of institution: _____

Please tick as appropriate:

I consent to the involvement of my department in the project as outlined in the Information Sheet

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix F: Interview with Participants from the Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted for the researcher to understand whether the design was appropriate for the envisioned study by establishing access, making contact, conducting the research and analysing the data. Through this process, the researcher could step back, reflect on the experience and revise the research approach based on what had been learnt from the pilot experience so that improvements in every practical aspect could be made to the main data collection (Seidman, 2006).

Besides the relative ease of accessibility, participants selected for the interview also possessed specific key characteristics related to the purpose of the investigation. Therefore, convenience with partially purposeful sampling was also endorsed. For example, nine students volunteered to participate in an interview by adding their email addresses to the questionnaire. As a result, they had a relatively even distribution regarding backgrounds, years and levels. In addition, two teachers participated in an interview. They were both experienced teachers with more than ten years of Chinese teaching experience in various institutions.

Unfortunately, the classroom observation was not conducted with the same students and teachers, as the teaching for the summer term was finished when the researcher started the data collection. As an alternative, a two-hour classroom observation was conducted in a weekend class in a Chinese community school in the same town to evaluate the ease of use of the schedule and its ability to capture the relevant data.

In the pilot study, information on nine learners including their nationality, year in university, level of Chinese course, family language, main life stories with Chinese language, culture or people, as well as information on two teachers including their nationality, family language, and teaching experience are shown below in Table F. Pseudonyms are used for confidentiality reasons.

Table F*Participants in the Pilot Interview*

Name	Nationality	Year	Level	Heritage/family language	Main life story/teaching experience
Hana	South Korea	PhD	1	Korean	Married a Chinese man
Larri	British	2nd	1	English only	Practising Kungfu for many years
Sherey	Malay	1st	1	Cantonese, Hakka	Asian culture, want to use Chinese for work
Akio	British	2nd	2	Japanese	Half Japanese, know Kanji, interested in the cultures
Emma	British	2nd	Fast track	Pilipino	Asian culture background, study business, want to use Chinese at work
Daniel	British	2nd	2	Mandarin, Cantonese	Chinese is the home language, want to do a Master's in China
Adelaide	Bulgarian	1st	1	English only	Very passionate about China, speak many languages
Linh	Vietnamese	1st	1	English only	Asian culture background, want to use Chinese at work
Amena	British	2nd	2	English only	Half Arabic, had Malay background
Hu (teacher)	Taiwanese	N/A	N/A	Chinese and Hokkien	Have taught English in Taiwanese secondary school; hold Qualified Teacher Status; taught Chinese in English secondary schools and universities.
Huan (teacher)	Chinese	N/A	N/A	Chinese only	Studied English as a university main degree in China; have worked as an English translator in England; taught Chinese in English universities and weekend schools.

Appendix G: Quantitative Data Analysis for the Pilot Study

Thirty-five students volunteered to participate in the first pilot study, but only 32 students completed the whole questionnaire without any missing questions for their demographic information. The responses were extracted from the Online Surveys in Microsoft Excel. The raw data were checked for obvious errors and modified in the following steps: (1) Standardise and spell check the manual responses, such as changing ENGLISH into English. (2) Numbers 6 to 1 were allocated to ratings for “Absolutely true, Mostly true, Partly true, Not really true, Partly untrue, Not true at all”. (3) Reverse negatively worded items by giving the inverse score, such as changing 1 to 6 and 2 to 5. (4) Calculate the average score in each of the 15 categories and the overall average score for all items. A test of normality was conducted after the data check. The Shapiro-Wilk test has been recommended as the best choice for testing the normality of data (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). The result of a Shapiro-Wilk test for the questionnaire as a whole indicated the normal distribution of scores ($p = .40$).

The sample of responders were typically young university-age students, with the majority (76%) being in the 19 to 22-year age group, with females totalling 20 (62.5%) and males 12 (37.5%). 51% of students in the sample were in their third year, 24% in their second year, 17% in their first year, and 8% were postgraduates. Law students comprised the biggest portion of the sample (21%), with other main degrees relatively evenly distributed. There were no participants who studied a foreign language as their main degree. Only a third of the sample indicated that they had an ‘influencer’ regarding their decision to study Chinese, and these were all family members. The majority, 63% of the sample, indicated that they had not been taught Chinese before; 37% had studied in a Chinese community/elementary/weekend school when they were in primary school age, from three to six years. Time spent on studying Chinese for class requirements ranged an average from 1-5 hours per week. 52% indicated

that they had not travelled to China, with the remaining 48% spending an average of 1-2 weeks, with none longer than a month in China. Nearly half (41%) of the participants self-reported their Chinese as at the A1 level. The higher the level, the lower the proportion of learners; no one was at the C2 level.

A total score for “Motivational Strength”, combining all 14 motivational factors, was calculated for each participant, and then an overall mean computed: $M=4.40$, $SD=.56$, $Min=3.42$, $Max=5.45$. Among these 14 factors, “Attitude to Learning Chinese” had the highest mean score ($M=5.27$, $SD=.64$), and “Lack of Chinese anxiety” had the lowest mean score ($M=3.30$, $SD=1.38$). Out of the six items in “Attitude to Learning Chinese”, “I like the Chinese language” had the highest mean score ($M=5.40$, $SD=.77$), and “I always looking forward to my Chinese classes” had the lowest mean score ($M=5.07$, $SD=.91$).

Descriptive statistics were also calculated for the nine semantic difference statements and added to the 14 motivational factors. For example, “Interest in learning Chinese” had the highest mean score ($M=8.43$, $SD=1.46$); “Usefulness in speaking Chinese” had a high mean score ($M=7.97$, $SD=2.34$), but there was a large range, from 1 to 10.

Cronbach’s Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were computed. All values in the Inter-Item Correlation Matrix were positive, indicating that the items measured the same underlying characteristic (Pallant, 2020). Ideally, the most commonly used indicator of internal consistency – Cronbach Alpha Coefficient – should be above .7 (Pallant, 2020). The overall Cronbach’s Alpha value was .835, suggesting good internal consistency reliability for the whole questionnaire scale with this sample (Pallant, 2020). Cronbach’s Alpha reliability for the various multi-item scale of the pilot study was conducted, and all the reliability coefficients were above the recommended .70 threshold (Pallant, 2020).

Factor analysis (FA) was attempted. FA is used to identify a small set of factors representing the underlying relationships among a group of variables (Pallant, 2020). Before

conducting the FA, the assessment of the suitability of the data was considered. First, the sample size was far less than Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested. Ideally, more than 150 samples are needed with a ratio of five cases for each variable. However, in this pilot study, the sample size was only 30. Second, the correlation matrix of coefficients should be greater than .3, as Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommended. Unfortunately, FA indicated that the correlation matrix was non-positive definite (NPD), so the requirement of the correlation matrix of coefficients was not achievable. FA was therefore not adopted for the pilot study, but it would be considered for the national study.

Appendix H: The Questionnaire Structure of 54 Items in 14 Categories

To make the questionnaire structure clear to follow, Table H lists the 54 questionnaire items that relate to different categories.

Table H
54 items representing factors that influence motivations

Category	Questionnaire Item	Number
Cultural Interest	I think that it is important to learn Chinese in order to understand more about the culture and arts of its speakers.	2-18
	I like Chinese films. In the final version, it is changed to: I have no interest in Chinese films.	1-17
	I often wish I could watch TV, read newspapers and magazines in the Chinese language.	2-6
Attitude Towards China	I like Chinese people.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I think that China has an important role to play in the world.	2-14
	I think that China is an advanced and developed nation.	2-15
	I like making friends with people from China.	2-4
Interest in Foreign Languages	If I planned to stay in another country, I would study the local language.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I think I would study a foreign language even if it weren't necessary.	2-12
	I would like to learn many foreign languages.	3-3
	If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak its language.	3-7
	If I made the effort, I could learn a foreign language.	Deleted from the pilot study
Instrumentality	I think Chinese is an important language in the world today.	2-9
	I think that being able to speak Chinese would help you to become a more knowledgeable person.	2-13
	I think speaking Chinese would help your future career. In the final version, it is changed to: I don't think speaking Chinese would help my future career prospects.	1-9
	For me to become an educated person I should learn Chinese.	Deleted from the pilot study
	Ability to speak Chinese would help me get a better paying job.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I believe the Chinese will be an internationally important language one day.	1-7
	I don't relate to people with different customs and values from my own. I find it easy to work with people who have different customs and values.	1-13
Ethnocentrism	I am not very interested in the values and customs of other cultures. In the final version, it is changed to: I have no interest in the values and customs of other cultures.	2-3
	I find it difficult to work together with people who have different customs and values.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I find it difficult to comprehend the values and customs of other cultures.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I respect the values and customs of other cultures. I appreciate the values and customs of other cultures.	1-6
	Chinese Anxiety	I am worried that other speakers of Chinese would find my Chinese strange. In the final version, it is changed to: I would feel uneasy speaking Chinese with a native speaker.
I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my Chinese class.		1-15

	I'm not very good at volunteering answers in our Chinese class.	2-16
	I would feel uneasy speaking Chinese with a native speaker.	3-12
Attitude to Learning Chinese	I like the Chinese language.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I think that learning Chinese is really great.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I really enjoy learning Chinese.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I am always looking forward to my Chinese classes.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I find learning Chinese really interesting.	1-3
	Learning Chinese is important to me.	1-5
	Going to classes to learn Chinese is important to me.	
Milieu	Most people around me tend to think that learning Chinese is a waste of time.	3-17
	People around me tend to think that learning Chinese is a waste of time.	
	Hardly anybody really cares whether I learn Chinese or not.	Deleted from the pilot study
	Few people around me think that it is a good thing to learn Chinese.	Deleted from the pilot study
	For people where I live, learning Chinese doesn't really matter that much. In the final version, it is changed to: In my environment, learning Chinese doesn't really matter that much.	3-11
	My family members do not consider Chinese as an important course in university/college.	3-16
	I don't think that Chinese is important to my higher education.	Deleted from the pilot study
L2 Self-Confidence	I am sure I will be able to learn a foreign language.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I worry that the others will laugh at me when I speak a foreign language.	Deleted from the pilot study
	Learning a foreign language is a difficult task for me.	3-12
	I think I am the type who would feel anxious and ill at ease if I had to speak to someone in a foreign language.	2-10
	I always feel that my classmates speak a foreign language better than I do.	1-8
Intended Learning Effort	I am working hard at learning Chinese.	1-4
	In the final version, it is changed to: I am not willing to work hard at learning Chinese.	
	If a Chinese course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.	3-4
	I can honestly say that I am really doing my best to learn Chinese.	Deleted from the pilot study
	If I could have access to Chinese -speaking TV channels, I would watch them often.	Deleted from the pilot study
	If the Chinese were not taught in the university/college, I would try to go to Chinese classes somewhere else.	3-5
	I am prepared to put a lot of effort into learning Chinese.	1-10
Motivated Behaviours	If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra Chinese assignment, I would certainly volunteer.	3-9
	I frequently think over what we have learnt in my Chinese class.	1-14
	I work very carefully on Chinese homework, making sure I understand everything. In the final version, it is changed to: 11. I don't work very carefully on Chinese homework.	1-11
	I have a very strong desire to learn Chinese.	1-18
	After I get my Chinese assignments, I always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.	
	I am determined to push myself to learn Chinese.	1-2
	When I am in Chinese class, I volunteer answers as much as possible. In the final version, it is changed to: I volunteer answers as much as possible when I am in my Chinese class.	3-2
	I am willing to work hard at learning Chinese.	Deleted from the pilot study

	If I had the opportunity to speak Chinese outside of class, I would do it as much as I can.	3-10
	When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in Chinese class, I immediately ask the teacher for help. In the final version, it is changed to: I immediately ask the teacher for help when I have a problem understanding something in Chinese class.	2-2
	If I could have access to Chinese - speaking videos, I would watch them to help learn Chinese.	3-6
Strategic Self-Regulation and Buoyancy	When doing a task in my Chinese class, I make sure I know what is required of me to do before I begin.	2-5
	I try to organise an approach in my mind before I actually start tasks in my Chinese language class.	3-1
	When I am learning Chinese, I don't give up until I reach the goal.	Deleted from the pilot study
	I continue with a difficult task even when the others have already given up on it in Chinese class.	Deleted from the pilot study
	When I run into a difficult problem, I keep working at it until I think I've solved it.	3-18
	I remain motivated even in activities of Chinese learning that spread over several months.	2-7
Teacher-Student Relationship	My Chinese teacher relates well to me.	2-8
	I feel like there is a bond between my Chinese teacher or classmates and myself.	1-12
	I have a positive relationship with my Chinese teacher or classmates.	1-16
	I look forward to seeing my Chinese teacher or classmates.	Deleted from the pilot study
Teacher Support	My Chinese teacher respects our opinions.	2-1
	My Chinese teacher really understands how we feel about things.	2-17
	My Chinese teacher tries to help us when we are demotivated. In the final version, it is changed to: My Chinese teacher can tell when we are demotivated.	2-11
	We can count on our Chinese teacher for help when we need it.	3-15
	My Chinese teacher cares about how much we learn.	3-14
	My Chinese teacher gives us enough academic support.	3-8

Appendix I: Quotations about Chinese Teachers and Their Approaches from the National Interview

Table I

Quotations about Chinese Teachers and Their Approaches from the National Interview

Being supportive	<p><i>'She was really good, super supportive and always willing to help if I'm stuck.'</i></p> <p><i>'She was very willing to come over and help, like correct things if they were wrong. But not in a condescending way.'</i></p> <p><i>'And she was available outside lessons too; if we needed her, I could text her. She used to text me to ask if I was coming to the lesson, which I've never had before, like a teacher texting me or anything. I was like, oh, she is thinking about me. I think if it was a bad teacher, I definitely wouldn't have carried on with it.'</i></p>
Being sympathetic	<p><i>'Our teachers have been very good, to be honest, very helpful. And I said that they're always sympathetic. So they help people who are struggling with particular pieces of homework.'</i></p> <p><i>She was sort of understanding and could see the effort I put into trying to understand. So I think they understand it's quite hard and takes a long time.'</i></p>
Having a close rapport with students	<p><i>'Our teacher was maybe only three years older than us. She was our teacher in and outside class, like our friend. So we were talking a lot, and she would send us pictures of things popular in China at the minute, like funny pictures or tell us about her family.'</i></p>
Being challenging	<p><i>'She pushes us quite a lot, and she gets us to ask each other questions each week and try to remember different structures.'</i></p>
Having well-prepared materials	<p><i>'She always prepared really good PowerPoint for us, and extra handouts so that we had times to write down things, have like visuals as well.'</i></p>
Using English and being fun	<p><i>'I think she is very funny, and I think she tells us lots of stories. But, I mean, at the moment, she does have to speak mostly in English because we're not that good yet.'</i></p>
Using online tools well	<p><i>'We also used Quizlet online quite a lot, online flashcards and little tests every lesson to put us in groups to try and challenge so you can remember them all.'</i></p>

Appendix J: The Reliability Analysis of Seven Factors of CFL Motivation

Table J
The Reliability Analysis of Seven Factors of CFL Motivation

Factor	Items	Cronbach's Alpha	No. Items
Perceived Value	1.7. I believe Chinese will be an internationally important language one day.	.815	7
	2.9. I think Chinese is a relevant language in the world today.		
	2.14. I think that China has an important role to play in the world.		
	2.15. I think that China is an advanced and developed nation.		
	2.13. I think that being able to speak Chinese would help me to become a more knowledgeable person.		
	1.9. I do think speaking Chinese would help my future career prospects.*		
	2.4. I like making friends with people from China.		
Attitude	1.1. I am always looking forward to my Chinese classes.	.779	5
	3.6. If I could have access to Chinese – speaking videos, I would watch them to help me learn Chinese.		
	1.3. I find learning Chinese really interesting.		
	1.5. Going to classes to learn Chinese is important to me.		
	3.4. If a Chinese course is offered in the future, I would like to take it.		
Teacher Support	3.8. My Chinese teacher gives us enough academic support.	.885	9
	3.15. We can count on our Chinese teacher for help when we need it.		
	3.14. My Chinese teacher cares about our learning progress.		
	2.1. My Chinese teacher respects us as learners.		
	2.11. My Chinese teacher can tell when we are demotivated.		
	2.17. My Chinese teacher really understands how we feel about learning.		
	1.12. I feel like there is a bond between my Chinese teacher and myself.		
	1.16. I have a positive relationship with my Chinese teacher.		
2.8. 8. My Chinese teacher relates well to me.			
Confidence	3.12. Learning a foreign language is a not difficult task for me.*	.803	6
	1.15. I do not get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my Chinese class.*		
	3.13. I would not feel uneasy speaking Chinese with a native speaker.*		
	2.10. I think I am the type who would not feel anxious and uncomfortable if I had to speak to someone in a foreign language.*		
	2.16. I'm very good at volunteering answers in my Chinese class.*		
	1.8. I never feel that my classmates speak a foreign language better than I do.*		
Cultural Engagement	1.6. I appreciate the values and customs of other cultures.	.623	6
	2.3. I have an interest in the values and customs of other cultures.*		
	1.13. I find it easy to work with people who have different customs and values.		
	1.17. I have an interest in Chinese films.*		
	2.6. I often wish I could watch TV and read newspapers, magazines and other cultural media in the Chinese language.		

	2.18. I think that it is important to learn Chinese in order to understand more about the culture and arts of its speakers.		
Intention	3.3. I would like to learn as many languages as possible.	.718	7
	3.7. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak its language.		
	3.10. If the opportunity arose to speak Chinese outside of class, I would use it as much as possible.		
	2.12. I think I would study a foreign language even if it weren't necessary.		
	3.4. If a Chinese course is offered in the future, I would like to take it.		
	3.5. If Chinese were not taught in the university, I would try to go to Chinese classes somewhere else.		
	3.9. If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra Chinese assignment, I would certainly volunteer.		
Milieu	3.17. People around me do not think that learning Chinese is a waste of time.*	.620	3
	3.16. My family does consider Chinese an important course at university.*		
	3.11. In my environment, learning Chinese does really matter that much.*		

*: the original statement in the questionnaire was reverse worded

Appendix K: The Similar Fluctuation Rates in Teacher's Behaviour and Student Number in Class

Figure K.1

Student Number in Six Lessons in Level One Class

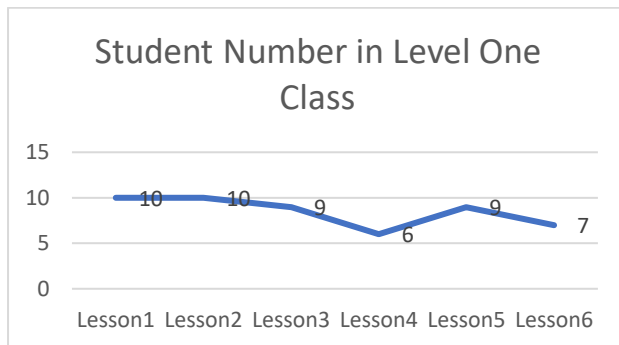
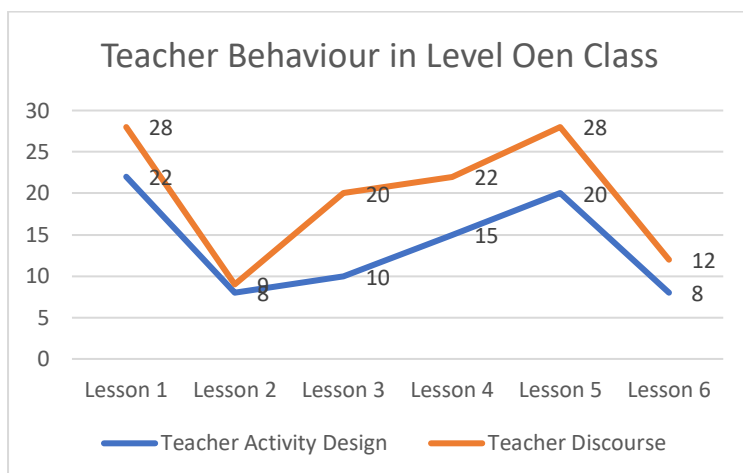


Figure K.2

Teacher Behaviour in Six Lessons in Level One Class



There was a connection between the number of students and teacher behaviour because they show similar fluctuation rates. For example, in Level One Class, shown in Figure J.1, there was a significant change in teacher behaviour from Lesson 1 to Lesson 2. When the teacher's motivational behaviour was low in Lesson 2, student numbers started to drop in Lesson 3. When student numbers dropped in Lesson 4, the teacher used more motivational activities in Lesson 5.

In the Chinese Level Two Class, student numbers in each class fluctuated as there was a significant drop in lesson 2 and again in Lessons 4 and 5 (shown in Figure J.3). Teacher

behaviour for Level Two Class (shown in Figure J.4) indicates that more motivating teacher activity design and discourse used in Lesson 2 brought a rise in student number in class in Lesson 3. Again, another rise in student number in Lesson 6 might be caused by more teacher activity design used in Lesson 5.

Figure K.3
Student Number in Seven Lessons in Class Two

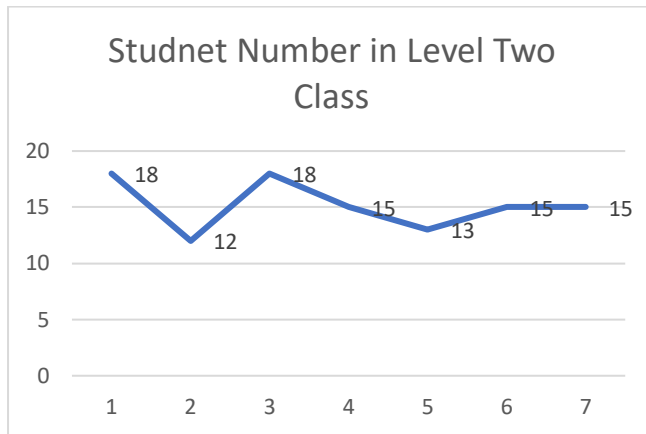
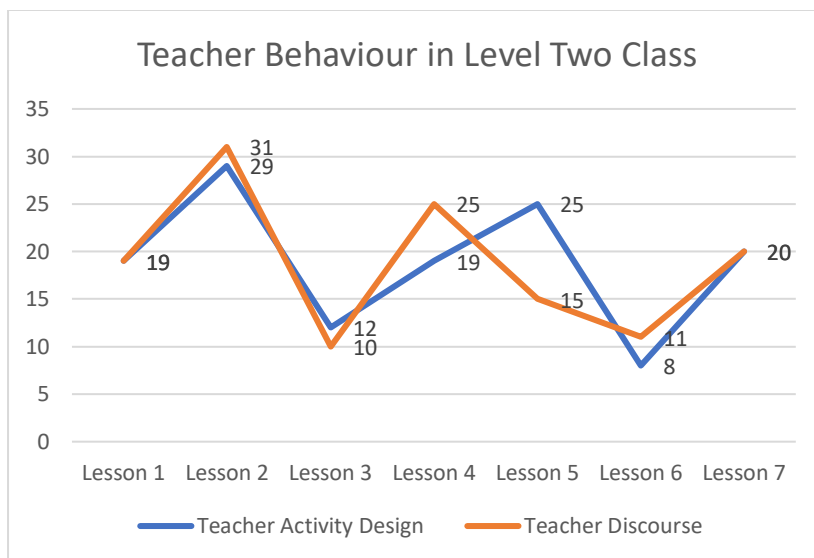


Figure K.4
Teacher Behaviour in Seven Lessons in Level Two Class



Appendix L: Extra Quotes for Findings of Research Question 3 - (a): What teaching strategies are used in class and why? Which kinds of activities do learners find the most and the least helpful? What strategies for motivating teaching practice did learners propose?

1 Teaching Strategies Used in Class

This section explores the motivational strategies used in Chinese language classes. Findings were summarised from the interviews with eight teachers from various UK institutions and one teacher from the two observed classes. Six key themes were categorised into three preconditions for applying strategies and three actual strategies.

1.1 The Three Preconditions for Applying Strategies

1.1.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Understanding the Educational Difference between China and UK

Teacher participants for the interview were asked what their biggest challenge was in using motivational teaching strategies. They all mentioned differences between China's education systems and pedagogical ideas, where they were educated, and the UK, where they were trained. These differences could become a barrier for them to understand students and bring challenges to their teaching practices. Yu (a teacher from a university in the Northwest)'s experience was representative of all the participants: *"It's not that easy to understand how students learn and how to support them. As a Chinese teacher, my education background was all in China, and my learning experience and how my teacher has taught me were quite different from here"*.

There is a contrast between rote learning approaches often used in China and a more learner-centred approach adopted in the UK, so the role of the teacher in class is different in the two cultures. English students may expect to be taught from the point of view of understanding, and they don't expect to be taught in a rote manner or just memorising. Ju (who had been working as a director of Chinese language in several institutions in the UK)

described those teachers from different education and training backgrounds had different understandings of the role of the teacher as she said, *“we know that for a long period education in China was the teacher telling students to do everything and students listening to teachers not to question or need to do any critical thinking”*. Yu echoes and described the Chinese teaching style as *“persuading and feeding”* but the British way as *“respecting and giving choices”*, as she suggested that Chinese teachers in the UK need to give students more respect.

Another typical Chinese teaching philosophy is to find students a role model and use it to encourage students to learn from the role models, as Yu pointed out, but in her view, it is not a good idea to use for students in the UK: *“Chinese people like role models; Chinese teachers often say to students, look at XX; he works very hard; you should learn from him. I am not saying using role models to encourage students is wrong, but it doesn’t work in the UK. It may make students resistant to doing it”*.

1.1.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Understanding Students’ Motivation and Potential Demotivation Reasons

Teachers were asked about their understanding of students’ motivation for learning Chinese. The answers mainly fell into two categories – the interest in the Chinese language and the benefit of knowing the language.

The interest in the Chinese language for many learners came from its difference from English because the Chinese language is very remote and mysterious, and the difference and the challenge may have motivated people to learn Chinese, according to Ju’s understanding of her students, many British learners had genuine interests in the Chinese language; some came to the Chinese class not to learn a useful skill but to explore their interests, for example: *“when I was teaching at the lifelong learning centre, the oldest person in my class was a gentleman in his late 80s; he said that he knew that would not take a flight to China, but he wanted to read Chinese classic literature”*. Living in the UK for many years, Ju realised

many British people were not as utilitarian as Chinese people in that they did not see learning Chinese as something that would help them earn more money or get better jobs.

On the other hand, many learners chose to learn the Chinese language because of China's economic growth and the usefulness of speaking Chinese. Ju commented thus: *"because the economic development and the influence in China have increased incredibly, that has created a lot of practical opportunities for young people to take a job in the future that has something to do with working with a Chinese company or Chinese organisation"*.

Yu also emphasised the importance of understanding why students became demotivated and, showing students that they care about their progress, paying attention to and listening to each of them, then developing a personal connection with students as she stated: *"teachers need to build up an emotional connection with students, so they are not too embarrassed to talk about their learning difficulties. They open up to you to share, and you don't judge them"*.

When asked what role the teacher played in motivating students when they were demotivated, Yu used the metaphor of being a mountain guide for students, and she saw herself as someone to help students to choose the right route based on their language abilities and cognitive competence, and then climb the mountain together with them, but not for them, as she said:

Learners may not feel very good at reading the map, but as a teacher, you need to know which part of the journey they are at now, and you can show a complete picture to students and let them know how far they have already achieved, or show them the next stage of the mountain, share some good learning practice, give them feedforward from your previous students, also make sure the whole learning journey is checkable.

1.1.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Improving English Proficiency

Low English language proficiency was one of the biggest challenges for teachers from China teaching in the UK. It could cause difficulties in teaching, even some inappropriateness and misunderstandings; as Ju stated: *“they (other teachers) didn’t mean to be very rude arrogant, but they didn’t know how to say it in an appropriate way. Well, it does happen in class frequently, I can tell you. I think it has a lot to do with the English language skill”*. Ju, therefore, has been advising her trainee teachers to improve their English because: *“we must encourage other teachers to improve their English skills; otherwise, there will be loads of misunderstanding issues going on”*. Another reason why Chinese teachers need to have a good level of English proficiency, in Ju’s view, was to aid in understanding the perspective of students: *“you should have very good English skills to understand what linguistic barriers or difficulties your students may have when they are learning Chinese, so we all understand why they think it is difficult, and you tackle that problem from their perspectives”*.

1.2 The Three Teaching Strategies

1.2.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Setting Up the Right Level of Challenge for Adult Learners

The second most mentioned strategy was to set up the correct level of exercise, which would challenge students at the appropriate cognitive level to encourage their independent thinking skills. Ju explained the reason for it: *“if you don’t help them, they may lose motivation towards the end of the study because it’s very tiring and demanding. But, on the other hand, if the teacher cannot challenge them at the right level, it’s very easy for them to lose interest”*. She also pointed out that learners need to learn authentic language from the real world and use it to connect with people and understand the world from another perspective. This would provide learners with intrinsic motivation with both challenges and rewards, especially for adults, as she said: *“language teachers need to encourage students to*

look out to the world critically and express their opinions using that language, to relate their language skills to reality, to their own real personal life”.

Every interviewee recognised the differences between teaching adults and children. In addition, they were all aware of using different teaching methods for the different age groups of learners because their cognitive levels are different. Ju also mentioned the importance of respect for their cognitive competence a few times in the interview, as she said: *“for adults, you use overt methods to guide them; for very young learners, you have to use covert methods. So if you use teaching methods that do not suit that particular age group, that method will not go down very well”.*

Teachers from the interviews emphasised several key points they should consider, especially for teaching adults. These included encouraging students to use the language and telling them not to be afraid of making mistakes; explaining to students why a certain expression or word is not correct or inappropriate, so they understand the reason and avoid making the same mistakes; not patronising them or treating them like children. Regarding this last point, Ju explained: *“if not offended, they will feel patronised if you ask them to be engaged in silly games because they would think that they don’t gain anything from it. Respect their cognitive competence is the key”.*

1.2.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Adopting A Student-centred Approach

The second most mentioned strategy was to adopt a student-centred or student-led approach. Yu believed this was the most important teaching principle she had learnt through the years while teaching in the UK, and she further explained the rationale behind this approach: *“you need to see your student as a person; first, you respect and care for them. Then, you’re going to help them more, such as improving their learning strategies or using different styles that they enjoy; they are all based on your understanding of your students”.* Adopting a student-centred approach can also help students to realise their potential, as Ju

mentioned: *“When I hear students thank me for helping them understand themselves better, I liked that comment. That’s what teachers should do to help students to understand their own potential because you do not always know how good you are until someone tells you”*.

To adopt a student-led approach, when Yu was designing classroom activities, she reminded herself that students were only interested in the activity related to their own life. For example, Yu encouraged a student who had been involved in animal protection to make a presentation on it in Chinese. In this way, she discovered the learner’s intrinsic motivation and gave individual learners greater autonomy. Ju believed that bringing very relevant topics to students, even for beginners, was very important. She explained: *“they can talk about the captain of the English national football team, or activists like Greta Thunberg, or Simpsons, so when you choose materials, especially facing a big class, you need to find the material that could catch all the students’ attention and arouse their curiosity”*. She gave another example for *“keeping it relevant”*, as she said: *“last week, we were learning words related to colours with level one students. We would learn how to say Black Friday, and everybody loved it, and they talked about their plans for Black Friday in Chinese”*.

1.2.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Embracing IT Technologies

The third most mentioned strategy was embracing IT technology in the classroom. Integrating technology into teaching needs teachers to be creative and make the learning fun. For example, First, Hu encouraged students to write blogs on Blackboard Collaborate to practise Chinese writing by typing instead of handwriting on a weekly basis. Providing prompt feedback on the writing would keep students motivated to continue practising Chinese in this way, she claimed, and she would not only correct grammar mistakes but also give a personal touch to each student in the feedback. She believed writing practice is essential for language learning, but handwriting characters might be too challenging for

beginner students. In her view, typing was a good way to reduce students' anxiety in writing and make the exercise more creative and personalised for students.

Second, Hu embraced technology in her class. She believed that the best way to adopt digital technology in teaching is to integrate technologies into the class to make them part of the teaching; as she said: *"you need to work with your students, and they will get used to it. If it is just one-off gamification, it doesn't really help students learn in the long run"*. Hu integrated 'Nearpod' into all her classes. Nearpod is a platform that provides real-time interactive videos, gamification, and activities for the teacher and students as part of an interactive lesson. Instead of using PowerPoints or handouts, Hu designed the teaching content and put all materials for every lesson on that website, and students could access it by entering a code and have interaction such as answering questions by typing or handwriting on the screen so that all the class can see what they had written. She said her students got used to it quickly, which became a part of their learning routine. The teacher found it helpful to keep a record of lesson materials and students' answers and use it as a formative assessment tool; as she said: *"the best function of Nearpod is the interactions because I get instant feedback from the students. When I put a grammar activity to find whether they have understood it or not, with Nearpod, I can discover it easily"*.

Third, being creative and having imagination was emphasised by Hu; as she said: *"a systematic teacher can be a good teacher, but a creative teacher can be an outstanding teacher. If your imagination is in class, your students will fly high with you"*. Hu wrote a film script with the same vocabulary and grammar as the learning objectives but with funny stories, and she also tried to use a thriller film script with a detective being the main character to replace the textbook stories. She also built a database for learning Chinese words from Chinese songs, and she had her personal website with plenty of YouTube links to Chinese videos for students to watch. Hu explained that being creative and doing something different

was part of her nature, and she was proud of that. She believed that if the teacher made the class fun with creativity and imagination, the students did not need to be disciplined, and they would not feel nervous or disengaged in class either. According to Hu, students' stable motivation came from the constant enjoyment of the class learning experience.

In summary, three preconditions created a helpful background for applying three strategies. First, teachers need to understand the educational difference between China and UK and understand students' motivation and potential demotivation reasons. This understanding provides a primary rationale for deciding the appropriate strategies. Second, teachers need to understand students' motivation and potential demotivation reasons. Third, continuously improving English proficiency was also essential for Chinese teachers teaching in the UK. For strategies teacher participants have used in their classes, three common views focused on students, including (1) setting up the right level of challenge; (2) adopting a student-centred approach; (3) embracing IT technologies in language teaching was essential to creating an engaging learning environment.

2 Activities that Learners Find the Most and the Least Helpful

Participants were interviewed to explore their perceptions of teaching strategies that were effective for learning Chinese compared with those that might be effective for other languages. Chapter Six reported that an unsuitable teaching style could cause demotivation or a high dropout rate. The least helpful teaching practices were summarised as follows: (1) teacher's non-interactive pedagogy and non-stimulating teaching materials could cause a not-so-good teacher-student rapport; (2) the intense class setting like the long hours and small class size could cause learners anxiety; (3) students found the forceful style of asking questions was cognitively demanding.

On the other hand, good teaching practice in Chinese class was also identified from the interviews with learners both from the national survey and classroom observation. When

interviewees were asked what the best part of learning Chinese was, they mentioned a number of practices like having oral practice or role-play, giving regular tests and feedback, explaining words and characters thoroughly, having cultural involvement, having an online learning community, and having an online learning community well-designed lesson slides. These ideas are summarised in the following four categories.

2.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Having Sufficient Oral Practice

The mastery of speaking skills in Chinese is a priority of learning CFL and the most important skill for learners in terms of their accomplishments in spoken communication, and some CFL learners even regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing the target language. Therefore, developing communicative competence and improving the ability to use the target language has been considered the most helpful teaching activity for teachers because they help learners establish communicative competence and use that knowledge.

The most mentioned favourite classroom practice was oral activities. Florence liked that teacher asked students to read aloud the conversation in class. Violet also mentioned it was a good classroom activity because getting the correct pronunciations gave her a sense of achievement, as she described: *“it was such a nice feeling if you got it right”*. Again, this suggests that learners are motivated by feelings of success in challenging tasks.

Teachers also asked students to do presentations or role-play in groups besides reading the dialogue. For example, Samantha’s teacher tried to make the practice material relevant to students’ daily life so that students were motivated to practise the oral skills in real scenarios; as she said: *“we had to do a presentation about ordering food at a restaurant or going to a supermarket or going to a store and asking like, can I get this in my size or colour, and we have to get props and objects in the class. So that was quite fun”*.

Learners were fully aware that if the tone is mispronounced, the word’s meaning could be changed in Chinese. Therefore, they appreciated the oral practice, especially those

focused on pronunciation in their Chinese classes. Participants like Violet valued the importance of practising speaking rather than writing characters; she believed that speaking and pronunciation needed more focus and support. Violet suggested the teacher spend more time on correcting students' pronunciation, especially as it was crucial in the initial learning stage, so the correct pronunciation could stay on with them; as she said: *"it would be useful to correct a few more pronunciations, to get it right the first time, especially some of the trickier consonant blends. Once you get them, it's not difficult. But spend your time making sure you get them"*.

2.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Having Cultural Input

The second favourite classroom activity indicated by participants was activities that involved cultural elements. For example, Tim said his teachers always gave them suitable cultural materials: *"they are very keen to show us videos of cities, Chinese movies, give us ideas about reading Chinese poetry. It is nice because you get, I call it 360 degrees experience"*. In addition, three interviewees enjoyed having Chinese New Year-related activities.

Four learners mentioned the importance of integrating cultural elements into classes. Ruby's teacher generated her motivation like this: *"my teacher showed us footage of traditional dancing and impressive art, calligraphy, and she taught us all the Chinese New Year traditions, we even ordered Chinese food in class, and it was like, oh, this's sick"*. Violet also suggested that an evening event of tasting different Chinese food and introducing different Chinese cultures would interest everyone because she believed experiencing Chinese culture was the best way to learn the language. Jasmine also stated that developing cultural awareness would help language learning. She suggested introducing more history or the stories behind the character and explaining the radical or pictographic character would also help motivate learners.

One of the primary sources where teachers input cultures are through audio-visual media with authentic materials because they are easy to access using modern technology. Participants recognised their features – abundant spoken language input and cultural introduction; such materials are invaluable for developing learners’ linguistic and cultural competencies.

2.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Having a Right Class Makeup

The interviewees were asked to describe their Chinese classes, such as contact hours, class size and source of students. Half of the universities had Chinese courses for two hours per week; the other half had three hours. Five universities from the national interview set up Chinese courses as evening courses. Three interviewees had mixed-age classes, and they believed it was a good idea because they could learn from each other in a diverse environment where people from different backgrounds had different learning experiences. For example, Violet liked having younger classmates because she learnt an organised way of taking notes from younger classmates. Tim liked the mixed class because he could learn from different people with different backgrounds.

Learners had different opinions on the perfect class size. Some learners, such as Anita, said small classes made them feel more self-conscious, whereas others believed that a small class size of fewer than five students was a good class size for language learning, as Ruby believed “*it was more interactive, and it was more personal*”. In addition, in small classes, students could have more confidence in speaking Chinese, and the teacher could give more individual feedback in a small class; as Violet said: “*it was a small group, mostly four or five of us, it was easier to have the confidence to speak. That might not be economical; it’s easy probably for the teacher to give individual attention*”.

Creating a cohesive learner group was valued by learners. In this kind of group, teachers could promote interaction and cooperation among learners; learners could share

personal feelings and learning strategies with other learners. For example, Florence mentioned that they had a learning community online: *“our class started a WeChat group together, and we chatted a lot there; our teacher used to share a lot of funny things there as well, which was quite good”*.

In summary, the three most helpful classroom activities were found to be (1) sufficient oral practice; (2) cultural input; (3) and making the class right. However, the least helpful classroom activities were seen as (1) non-interactive pedagogy or teaching materials; (2) undesirable teacher-student rapport; (3) intense and demanding classes.

3 Strategies for Motivating Teaching Practice that Learners Proposed

Helpful activities their teachers used in class were summarised above. Learner participants in the national interview also proposed a series of strategies for motivating teaching practice for teachers from the learners’ perspective. These views were categorised into four strategies, as follows.

3.1 Key Qualitative Findings (I): Teaching in Small Steps and Scaffolding

When encountering learning difficulties, learners tended to get anxious or have other negative emotions; thus, motivation levels tended to drop, as mentioned in Section 6.3 in Chapter Six. According to three participants, teachers needed to build up new knowledge based on previous knowledge to protect learners’ motivation when they feel unconfident or nervous in class. Felicia had a background of being a secondary school maths teacher, and she believed that teachers could teach only one small area at a time in each lesson. Although, in her view, in an ideal language class, a structured teacher would only add on a little bit more each time, with a lot of practising of what students have already learnt. *“New vocabulary or phrase cannot be randomly grabbed but slowly built up from the earlier ones. As a result, students are not overwhelmed”*, according to Felicia.

Using good scaffolding in teaching was also suggested by learners. “*Good teacher scaffolds*”, Cynthia emphasised, “*particularly for older students, because the scaffolding gives you security and a foundation*”. Felicia described the problem of teaching without scaffolding as “*when you’re just building a brick here, a brick there, it’s very difficult to try and build something out of it when it is scattered everywhere*”. Cynthia expressed the same opinion: “*if you don’t have the basic understanding, it makes it very difficult to grapple and make sense of what comes*”.

3.2 Key Qualitative Findings (II): Adopting a Sympathetic Approach to be Encouraging

Building learners’ confidence by providing regular encouragement was an important strategy for teachers. For example, when learners were nervous about speaking Chinese in class, they wished their teacher could encourage them to practise and increase their self-confidence. Three participants indicated they thought their teachers “*probably could have encouraged students a little more and reminded them that it’s fine to make a mistake*”, Anita said.

It was considered essential for teachers to allow learners to maintain a positive social image while engaged in the learning tasks. For example, Florence had a young teacher, and students in her class all got on with her, but she thought her teacher could have said something like, “*look, we’re all the same, we’re all at a similar age, we all can make mistakes, it’s OK, whereas people saw her as like, oh, she’s a Chinese expert, I don’t want to mess it up*”. These students could be timid and nervous in class and not get enough oral practice if they were not feeling comfortable with making mistakes and confident in taking opportunities to practice. Therefore, according to learner interviewees, teachers needed to help learners accept that they would make mistakes as part of the learning process, and teachers themselves needed to diminish language anxiety for learners.

3.3 Key Qualitative Findings (III): Presenting the Learning Content in a Stimulating Way

Presenting the learning content in a stimulating way was also considered important by learners. Especially in teaching vocabulary, teachers could explain the new words by linking them to the old words and creatively practise them. For example, Ruby liked how the teacher explained Chinese vocabulary because it was related to their prior experience learning basic words and made vocabulary items concrete. Jasmine mentioned that her teacher did the same when explaining how Chinese characters work, and she believed these approaches were learner oriented.

Four learners mentioned they disliked their learning materials, especially their textbooks because they were not interesting enough for learners. They suggested that learning material needed to be attractive, relevant and adaptable to learners' interests to make the learning more stimulating and enjoyable. Sometimes when there was no excellent ready-made teaching material, teachers needed to elaborate learning tasks by personalising them and adding some fantasy elements.

3.4 Key Qualitative Findings (IV): Encouraging Students to Have More Chinese Exposure

For learners in this context, the in-class learning hour was not enough for them to get enough language input. Building intrinsic motivation for understanding more about the language and the culture was essential in learners' views. Having a language partner was an excellent way to have more exposure to the Chinese language, people and culture. Two learners said that what was missing in their learning experience was not to have enough exposure to Chinese outside of the class. They implied that teachers could encourage students to join a language exchange programme or tandem language learning outside of the class hour. Tim explained, *“we need things outside of that hour and a half to have a Chinese buddy to speak to, to interact with who can give you suggestions or expand your knowledge*

during the week". Therefore, teachers could arrange a Chinese corner or language tandem scheme if the institution was supportive and learners believed it would benefit their learning.

In summary, teaching in small steps and scaffolding, adopting a sympathetic approach to be encouraging, having suitable lesson materials and presenting the learning content in a stimulating way, and encouraging students to have more Chinese exposure were proposed by learners as the most four important motivational teaching strategies. Henceforth, the first part of Research Question 3 addresses the motivational strategies for teachers used in Chinese class from both views of teachers and learners. Teaching strategies used in class that contributed to generating and maintaining learners' motivation were summarised as three preconditions and three strategies. Teachers adopted them to generate students' motivations or react to their pre-existing motivations and prevent them from decreasing. Activities in class that learners found the most helpful were summarised into three categories: having sufficient oral practice, having cultural input that includes creating a cohesive learner group, and having the proper class makeup. Learners proposed strategies for motivating teaching practice were illustrated in the above four aspects.