

Motivation Types of Chinese University Undergraduates

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Previous studies on Chinese students' English learning motivation mostly followed Gardner and associates' classical model and its expansions, which were originated primarily in North American and European contexts. The purpose of the present research was to achieve a bottom-up classification of Chinese university students' English learning motivation. The participants were 2,278 undergraduates from 30 Chinese universities. The instrument was a Likert-scale questionnaire which included 30 items regarding learning motivation, based essentially on a summary of open responses. Seven motivation types resulted from a factor analysis: 1) intrinsic interest; 2) immediate achievement; 3) learning situation; 4) going abroad; 5) social responsibility; 6) individual development; 7) information medium. These 7 factors were further generalized as instrumental, cultural, and situational motivations. While bearing similarities with those in the classical and expanded models, these motivation types also demonstrated characteristics distinct of the context. The study offers a motivation framework for Chinese EFL context, as a refinement upon or revision of the generally adopted classical and expanded models. It may also have some implications for other Asian contexts.

Introduction

Research Background

Motivation is a major learner factor in SLA research. In this respect, the classical model of

Gardner and his associates (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985) has been followed for decades. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), there are mainly two types of learning motivation: *instrumental motivation*, i.e., learning the language as an instrument to achieve practical goals, and *integrative motivation*, i.e., learning the language out of interest in or desire to identify with the target culture. *Intrinsic motivation* and *extrinsic motivation* (Atkinson, McClelland, Clark & Lowell, 1953) form another pair of commonly accepted concepts. The former aims at achieving pleasure and satisfaction from language learning process, whereas the latter emphasizes language learning as a means to achieve certain goals. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations may inhibit each other (Brown, 1994). The above two pairs of concepts are considered well matched. “Integrative motivation” is to a large extent “intrinsic,” and “instrumental motivation” is “extrinsic” (Chambers, 1999). Compared to instrumental or extrinsic motivation, integrative or intrinsic motivation is believed to be related to better learning outcome (Brown, 1994; Liu, 2001).

Since 1990's, it has been proposed that Gardner's classical model should be expanded in light of psychological theories of a broader range (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Expanded models have included new factors such as “learning situation” (Dörnyei, 1994), “self-confidence” (Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994) , “salience of goals”, “ valence”, and “self-efficacy” (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Empirical studies mostly focused on learning results, i.e., what kind of motivation led to better achievements (test scores), how motivation worked with other learner factors to influence learning results, and how the influencing factors were related to one another (Gardner, Day & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). Meanwhile, more importance has been attached to learner differences such as sex, age, learning strategy and communicative

requirement; it has been proposed that language teaching should be tailored to different learner groups. (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002; Nunan 2001).

It should be noted that the classical and expanded motivation models reviewed above were essentially developed in North American and European contexts. Their applicability in other contexts is yet to be verified.

China is a developing country with a strong cultural and educational tradition and a huge number of English learners. Yet existing studies on Chinese students' English learning motivation have mostly followed the classical model and its expansions regarding motivation types (Qin & Wen 2002; Shi, 2000; Wang & Liu, 2002; Wen & Wang, 1996; Wen, 2001; Wu, Liu & Jeffrey, 1993; Yang, 2002; Zhang, 1998; Zhou, 1996). Some influential studies tried to identify the relationship between various learner factors and learning results in terms of English proficiency scores. They often gave priority to the behavioral aspect of motivation -- motivational intensity (how much effort was devoted to English learning). As to motivation types, i.e., the psychological "driving force," both the scope and depth of exploration was limited (e.g., Wu et al., 1993). In recent years, research on the internal structure of motivation emerged (e.g., Qin & Wen, 2002), which followed the expanded models and explored the complex relationship between factors such as learning achievements, attribution of learning results, learning interest, self-efficacy, orientation of goals. With the aim of constructing an overall relational model of various factors, the measuring instruments were largely based on existing ones developed from North American and European contexts. The inclusion of various learner factors, while conducive to overall model building, limited the number of items for each factor, and made exhaustive classification of motivation types impossible.

While following classical and expanded models, some researchers found concepts such as “integrative motivation” not as common in China. Hua (1998) claimed that the predominant motivation of “80% of the Chinese English learners was a pure ‘certificate motivation (*zhengshu dongji*),’” i.e., to obtain widely used English certificates such as *College English Band 4* and *Band 6*.¹ The author based the above claim on a questionnaire study conducted on 334 students from three universities in Suzhou, a city in southeast China. The design of the questionnaire and the statistical results were not reported in the article, however. Shi (2000) reported a similar study on 78 students majoring in science at a university located in Xi’an, a city in northwest China. The results showed that 84.6% of the subjects checked “yes” for the item “I learn English in order to pass exams and obtain the diploma.” The author concluded that these learners’ had a “certificate motivation,” which was a sub-type of instrumental motivation. Compared to Hua (1998), Shi (2000) presented an essentially complete empirical report, yet again there was no explicit description of the instrument design and theoretical construct. Despite such methodological weakness, the “certificate motivation” proposed by these two studies was echoed in the “required motivation” found in a neighboring Chinese community, university students in Taiwan (Warden & Lin, 2000). For Warden and Lin, students had “required motivation” when they felt motivated to make progress in their EFL because it was required by the system. The link between these two was that in mainland China, where centralized control was important in the education system, “certificates” associated with English learning was an essential requirement. However, such a motivation remained to be examined in large-scale empirical research in the specific context. To

¹ Band 4, Band 6 and Band 8 are levels of a national English proficiency test in The People’s Republic of China. According to *Guidelines for the Teaching of College English* issued by China’s Ministry of Education (2000), all university students are required to pass College English Band 4. On job markets, a Band 6 certificate is preferred by many foreign enterprises. The band levels set for English majors are higher than those for non-English majors.

discover Chinese students' EFL motivation types, it was desirable and necessary to take an inductive (bottom-up) approach rather than a deductive (top-down) approach, i.e., first having learners in the specific context generate motivation items as freely and exhaustively as possible, and then abstracting factors from the resulting list. As far as we know, no such research has ever been conducted. Apart from the knowledge of teaching experience and of the insufficiently examined theories imported from the West, the motivation types of contemporary Chinese EFL learners and their group differences largely remain empirically unknown.

Research Questions

This paper presents part of a research project on Chinese university undergraduates' English learning motivation and self-identity changes. This part of the study aimed at an essentially bottom-up classification of Chinese university undergraduates' English learning motivation – the driving force behind their English learning. There were two research questions.

1. What are the motivation types for English learning among Chinese university undergraduates?
2. Do students of various demographic features (sex, university major, English proficiency, university year, and starting age of English learning) differ in their motivation types?

Method

Subjects

Subjects of the study were 2,278 undergraduates at 30 universities from 29 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities across mainland China. A stratified sampling was performed according to the ratio of school types and corresponding numbers of students, as issued by the Chinese Ministry of Educational in the spring of 2002 (Table 1). The distribution of subjects' demographic

features is presented in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 1. Sampling Stratification

Type of University	Number of universities (% among all universities)	Number of sampled universities (% among total number of sampled universities)	Number of undergrads (% among all undergrads)	Number of sampled students (% among all sampled students)	Sampling method	Number of students sampled in different majors
Comprehensive U.	81 (13.57%)	4 (13.33%)	1,123,038 (21.55%)	540 (21.7%)	45(students) x 3(majors)x 4(universities)	Arts 180 Sciences 180 English 180
U. of Foreign Languages	11 (1.84%)	1 (3.33%)	52,479 (1%)	40 (1.6%)		English 40
Normal U.	109 (18.26%)	5 (16.67%)	950,309 (18.23%)	450 (18.45%)	30(students) x 3(majors) x 5(universities)	Arts 150 Sciences 150 English 150
U. of Science & Technology/ Medical Science	255 (42.71%)	13 (43.33%)	2,235,511 (42.89%)	1,040 (41.9%)	80(students) x 13(universities)	Sciences 1,040
Agriculture/ Forestry U.	41 (6.87%)	2 (6.67%)	357,541 (6.86%)	160 (6.5%)	80(students)x 2(universities)	Sciences 160
U. of Finance/ Law/Ethnic Studies/Arts	100 (16.75%)	5 (16.67%)	493,128 (9.46%)	250 (10%)	50(students)x 5(universities)	Arts 250
Total	597	30	5,212,006	2,480		Sciences 1,530 Arts 580 English 370

Table 2. Distribution of Subjects' Age, Sex, University Year and Major

	Age				Sex		University Year				Major		
	<17	18-22	23-29	>30	M	F	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Sciences	Arts	English
No. of cases	6	2,060	208	1	1,100	1,163	830	745	513	185	1,247	565	404
%	0.3	90.5	9.1	0	48.6	51.4	36.5	32.8	22.6	8.1	56.3	25.5	18.2

Table 3. Distribution of Subjects' Family Background, Starting Age of English Learning, and English Proficiency

	Family Background			Starting Age of English Learning				English Proficiency			
	Coun-try	Town	City	< 8	9-12	13-15	>16	< Band 4	Band 4	Band 6/4 for Eng. major	Band 8 for Eng. major
No. of Cases	833	921	484	80	705	1,425	54	1,410	428	399	19
%	37.2	41.2	21.6	3.5	31.1	62.9	2.4	62.5	19.0	17.7	0.8

(Missing values have been omitted.)

Instrument

A questionnaire was designed (See Appendix), which included 30 statements on motivation types, measured by a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). The instrument development went through the following steps: First, undergraduate students of four universities from north, southeast, west and mid China were invited to provide open responses to the question “Why do you study English?” In three universities, the question was given by a guest speaker before her talk for a large audience; in one university it was posed by an instructor of the course “Sociolinguistics” at the beginning of a class. In each and every case, students were encouraged to express themselves freely and told there was no right or wrong answer. Responses were written anonymously on paper slips, and then collected by student helpers. Then, based on several hundreds of original responses, some 30 items were abstracted. A few items concerning learning situations (quality of textbooks; feeling about the class) were added, drawing on Dörnyei (1994)’s

“learning situation.” Five pilot studies were carried out in three universities in Beijing, and the items were adjusted accordingly – adding new items suggested by students and merging largely redundant ones.

The resulting version of the questionnaire was formally administered between March and May, 2002. Subjects were instructed before the questionnaire distribution that they were helping with an investigation aimed to classify English learning motivation. They were supposed to provide true answers freely; there was no right-or-wrong for any of the questions. Their responses would be used for research purposes only, and would not affect their school performance evaluation in any sense. Copies of the questionnaire were issued by teachers of various courses in class, and collected after the approximately 10-minute anonymous completion, mostly in the teachers’ presence. Altogether 2,473 copies were issued and 2,278 valid copies were obtained, amounting to a valid return rate of 92.1% . Cronbach α was calculated and a reliability of 0.77 was obtained.

Data Analysis

Data analysis, performed with SPSS 10.0, consisted of two parts. First, a factor analysis was conducted to explore motivation types. Second, MANOVA was carried out to examine whether demographic features had significant effects on various types of motivation.

Results and Discussion

Factor Analysis of Motivational Types

KMO and Bartlett’s Test indicated that the data could be processed through factor analysis. Principal components method and oblique (direct oblimin) rotation were employed and 8 factors were extracted, which accounted for 57.9% of the total variance. The 8th factor (Eigenvalue =

1.01, % of variance = 3.36) covered the 2nd and 3rd item of the questionnaire. When the number of factors extracted was reduced to 7, these two items were grouped together with items 4,6 and 11 in one factor (See later analysis of Factor 2), and altogether 54.54% of the total variance was explained. The 7-factor extraction seemed to be more economic and appropriate. Table 4 presents the loadings of the seven factors.

Table 4. Factor Structures and Loadings²

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
% of Variance	19.20	10.34	7.83	5.14	4.34	4.05	3.64
Eigenvalue	5.76	3.10	2.35	1.54	1.30	1.22	1.09
Q21 Like the language itself	.81 (.80)						
Q19 Enjoy language learning	.79 (.78)						
Q1 Fell in love with English at the first sight	.73 (.73)						
Q20 Interested in English movies or songs	.58 (.58)						
Q23 English literature kindles my interest in English learning	.56 (.57)						
Q18 Interested in English-speaking people and their culture	.47 (.56)						
Q4 Driven by test scores (before entering university)		.70 (.64)					
Q6 Driven by test scores (after entering university)		.59 (.56)					
Q3 Learn English in order to pass exams		.58 (.61)					
Q11 Learn English in order to get the degree		.54 (.58)					
Q2 Driven by parents		.41 (.45)					

² The figure in the first line (bold, italicized) of each cell is the result of oblique rotation; that in the second line (in parentheses) is the result of orthogonal rotation. Factor loadings less than 0.4 are suppressed.

Q8 Affected by the quality of teaching (after entering university)			.78 (.75)				
Q9 Affected by teaching materials (after entering university)			.73 (.71)				
Q10 Affected by my affiliation with the class (after entering university)			.69 (.68)				
Q7 Depends on if I like the teacher (after entering university)			.66 (.70)				
Q5 Depended on if I liked the teacher (before entering university)			.42 (.50)				
Q26 In order to seek better education or job opportunities abroad				-.78 (-.76)			
Q28 In order to emigrate abroad				-.77 (-.75)			
Q27 In order to experience English-speaking cultures abroad				-.73 (-.73)			
Q24 In order to make China prosperous					.64 (.66)		
Q25 In order to live up to my parents' expectation					.56 (.55)		
Q22 I learn English in order to make the world understand China					.51 (.54)		
Q29 English is an important tool for life						-.69 (-.70)	
Q30 English is a symbol of education and cultivation						-.62 (-.64)	
Q16 English can help me find a good job						-.56 (-.60)	
Q13 English is an important instrument of communication						-.53 (-.56)	
Q14 Learning English will give me a sense of achievement						-.51 (-.54)	
Q15 In order to learn other subjects better							.72 (.69)
Q17 To keep up with development of world economy, science & technology							.68 (.68)

Factor 1 included six items, such as the love of the English language, the love of language learning, interest in English songs/films, interest in English people and their culture, and interest

in English literature. These items demonstrated learners' interest in the target language and its culture, and language learning in general. Such interests had features of both "intrinsic motivation" "integrative motivation" in previous studies. However, this does not necessarily indicate willingness of comprehensive integration, or the change of cultural identities. The interests here were largely limited to appreciation or fondness of the target language and certain aspects of its culture. Factor 1 was named *intrinsic interest*.

Factor 2 contained five items, most of which targeted at immediate external achievements -- high test scores, high scores in university entrance examination, and a bachelor's degree. These reminded us of "certificate motivation" (Hua, 1998; Shi, 2000) proposed in existing literature. The last item "parents/schools require me to learn English" could be viewed as the social pressure for such achievements, which corresponded with "required motivation" found in Taiwan (Warden & Lin, 2000). The "immediate" nature of the goal was prominent when compared with longer-term interests in Factor 6. Thus Factor 1 was labeled as *immediate achievement*.

Items in Factor 3 included the quality of teaching, teaching materials, teachers, and affiliation with the learning groups. All these were constituents of the learning environment, which were in accordance with the "learning situation level" in Dörnyei's expanded model (1994). We named this factor *learning situation*.

Factor 4, with all the factor loadings greater than .70, consisted of items pertaining to going abroad. The specific purpose might be "integrative" in Gardner and Lambert's sense, such as "experience English-speaking cultures" or "emigration;" it might also be "instrumental," such as "seeking better education or job opportunities." Thus, it was named *going abroad*.

Factor 5 had three items: "to make China prosperous," "to live up to parents' expectation,"

and “to make the world understand China.” It was a Confucian tradition to combine “harmonizing the family” and “putting the country in order,” indicating an individual’s responsibility to fulfill social expectations. This type of motivation might be quite peculiar to the Chinese students, as no similar findings were found in the existing literature. Factor 5 was termed *social responsibility*.

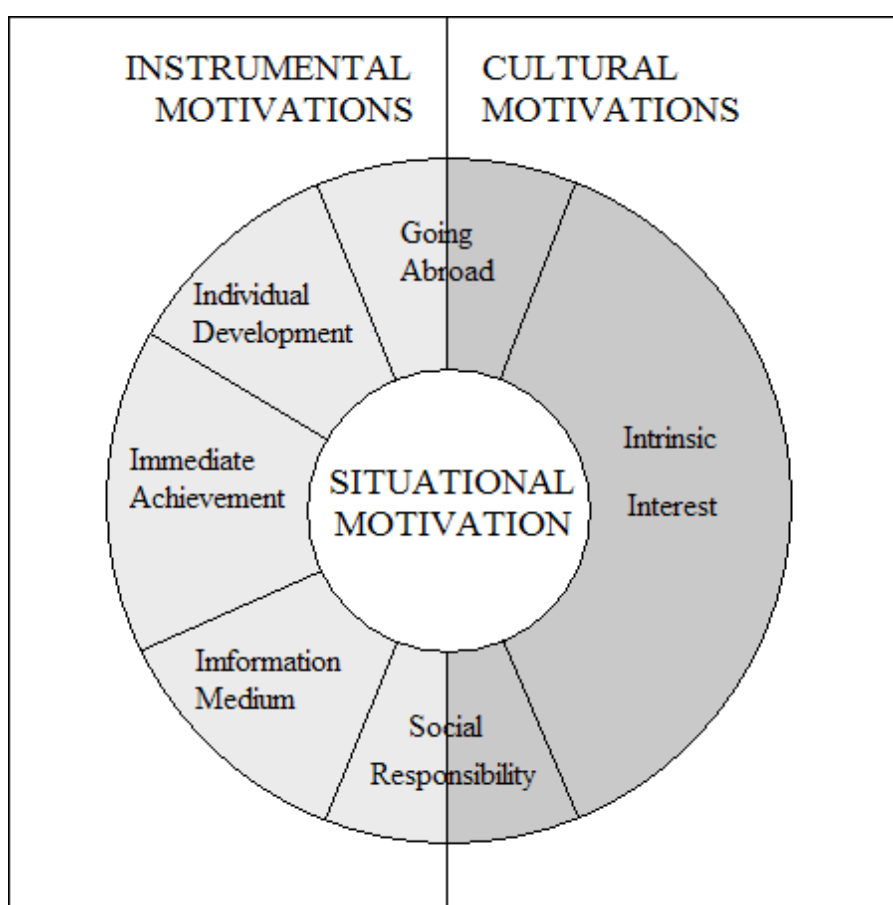
Factor 6 pointed to the practical value of English as an instrument for communication, job opportunity, and “life” in general. At the same time, it included an element of “cultural investment” (Norton, 1995), as seen in “a symbol of education and cultivation” and “sense of achievement.” As a whole, this factor seemed to reflect the desire of increasing one’s own ability and social status in future development. This factor was labeled as *individual development*.

Factor 7 had only two major items, but the loadings were rather high. The content in this category exhibited a tendency of viewing English learning as a means to obtain information of various kind, whether it was related to “other subjects,” or general “development of world economy, science and technology.” In addition, the item “an important instrument of communication,” with its primary loading on Factor 6, had a strong secondary loading of .46 here (oblique/orthogonal rotations). Therefore, the last factor was termed *information medium*.

At a higher level of conceptualization, these seven motivations could be placed in three categories -- instrumental, cultural and situational. “Instrumental motivations” referred to the employment of the target language as an instrument to achieve certain goals. Immediate achievement, information medium and individual development belonged to this category, their differences lying in the purposes the instrument served. “Cultural motivations” were related to the learners’ cultural interests and concerns. Under this category, intrinsic interest was target-culture oriented; social responsibility was native(home)-culture oriented. It was partially similar to the

“integrative motivation” in Gardner and Lambert’s model, yet “integrative motivation” did not have a native-culture dimension. In addition, the target-culture oriented intrinsic interest in our study was largely intellectual, which did not necessarily involve personal “integration” into the target culture.

Figure 1. Conceptual Classification of Motivation Types



Besides their intrinsic interest in the target culture, participants also exhibited their desire of presenting their native culture to the world by using the target language. In other words, the target language was used as an instrument to promote the native culture. Therefore, “social responsibility” was both instrumental and cultural. Likewise, “going abroad” contained both

instrumental and cultural elements. “Situational motivation” was independent of the other two motivation types, indicating the influence of learning environment. This classification of instrumental, cultural, and situational motivations was in many respects similar to the classical model (Gardner and Lambert, 1972) and its expansion (Dörnyei, 1994), yet the native-culture orientation it contained was quite unique.

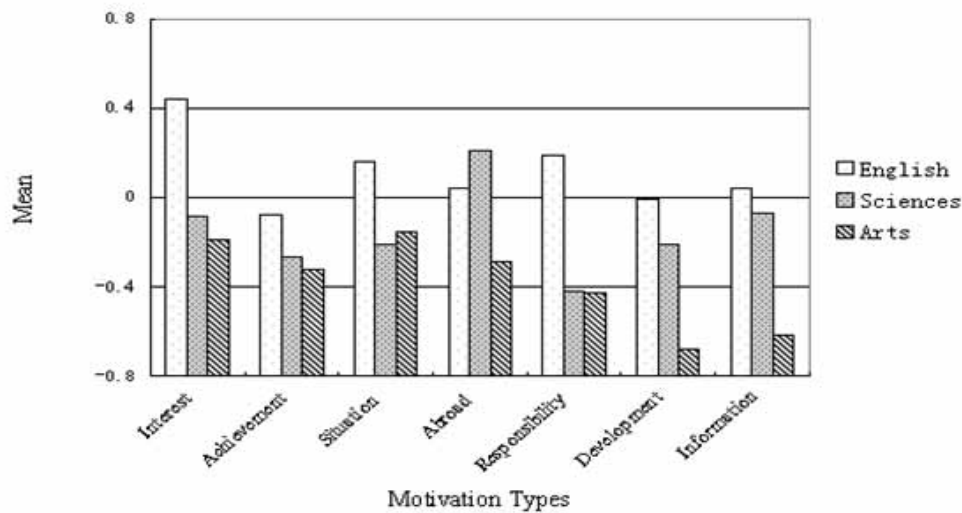
Group Differences in Types of Motivation

In order to examine the effect of demographic features on motivation types, an MANOVA test was performed, with motivation types as dependent variables (factor scores with oblique rotation), and subjects’ sex, university year, university major and English proficiency as independent variables.

Multivariate tests showed that university major ($F[14, 3690]=2.57, p=.001$) and proficiency ($F[21, 5298]=2.59, p=.000$) had significant main effects on motivation types. Significant interaction effects were also found between major and proficiency ($F[42, 8657]=1.78, p=.001$) and between university year and proficiency ($F[84, 11308]=2.15, p=.000$). Sex had no significant effect on motivation types. Due to space limitation, only significant main effects will be reported.

University Major and Motivation Types. Motivation scores of different majors are shown in Figure 2. Significant cross-major differences ($p<.05$) appeared in “intrinsic interest” ($F[2, 1851]=4.75$), “social responsibility” ($F[2, 1851]=4.84$), “individual development” ($F[2, 1851]=3.65$) and “information medium” ($F[2, 1851]=3.76$). On the whole, differences emerged between English majors and non-English majors, with English majors scoring higher on cultural motivations and certain instrumental motivations.

Figure 2. Effect of University Major on Types of Motivation



On “intrinsic interest,” students majoring in English scored much higher than those majoring in natural sciences (MD=.531, $p=.028$) and other branches of liberal arts/social sciences (MD=.630, $p=.025$). No significant difference was found between students of sciences and arts. In China, students are required to choose departments before university entrance, and change of majors is quite difficult after admittance. So for students of English, choosing English as their major might be related to some “pure” interest in the language prior to university entrance. After entering university, they had more opportunities than non-English majors to be exposed to the English language and cultures, which in turn increased their intrinsic interest.

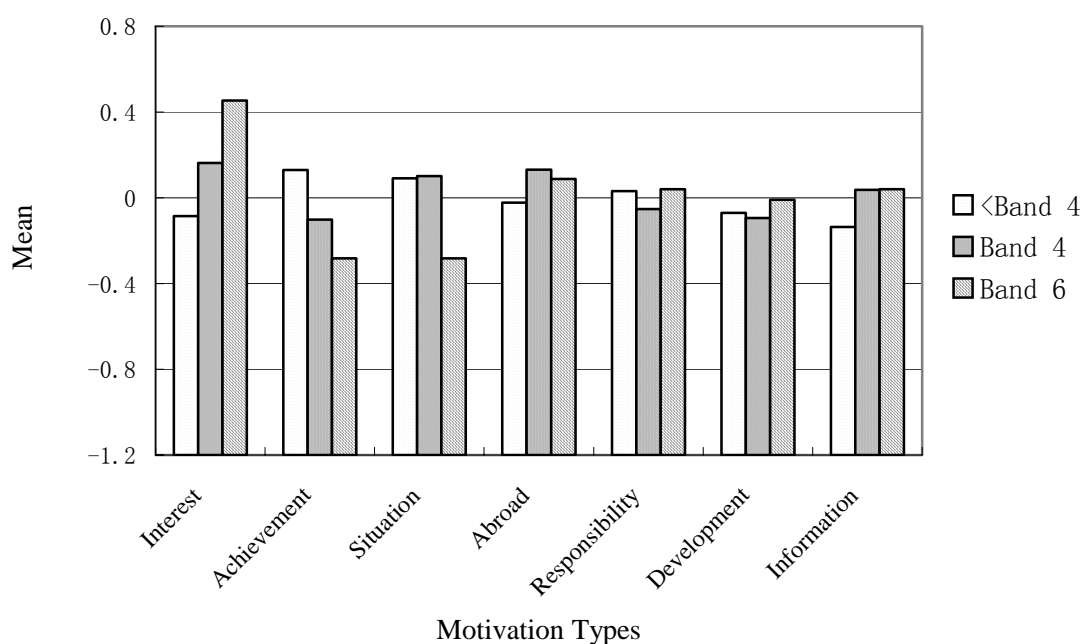
On “social responsibility,” English majors scored higher than natural science majors (MD=.604, $p=.015$) and social science majors (MD=.611, $p=.044$). Knowing more about English-speaking cultures, English majors’ awareness of their own native cultural identity might be aroused. They might be better enabled to appreciate the characteristics and strengths of their native culture, and better motivated to work for the prosperity of their families and of their country.

As for “individual development,” significant difference was only found between English

majors and social science majors ($MD=-.668$, $p=.022$). After the negative loadings are reversed, English majors demonstrated higher scores. For them, English competence was more closely associated with their future careers and social status. Therefore, they normally possessed much clearer goals in English learning. Similarly, on “information medium” motivation, English majors scored higher than social science majors ($MD=.658$, $p=.025$), once negative loadings reversed. It can be inferred that English majors were not contented with mastering language skills only. They tended to employ the language as an instrument to gain more information and knowledge in other fields. In this sense, English had a stronger instrumental value for English majors.

English Proficiency and Motivation Types. For students of various English proficiency levels, significant differences were found in “intrinsic interest” ($F[3, 1851]=7.32$, $p=.000$) and “immediate achievement” ($F[3, 1851]=5.39$, $p=.001$) (Figure 3). Since there were only 14 subjects in the Band 8 group (0.6% of the sample), our discussion will focus on the other three groups.

Figure 3. Effect of English Proficiency on Types of Motivation



On “intrinsic interest,” significant difference was found between students under Band 4 and those who already reached Band 4 ($MD=-.248$, $p=.030$), and between those of under Band 4 and those who already reached Band 6 ($MD=-.539$, $p=.000$). It indicated that students with English proficiency below Band 4 had less intrinsic interest in English learning.

On “immediate achievement,” significant difference was detected between the under Band 4 group and the Band 6 group ($MD=.412$, $p=.012$). This suggested that students who did not pass Band 4 were much more driven by exam scores in their English learning. On the one hand, such an “external” motivation may not be very effective in its result. On the other hand, it might inhibit learners’ intrinsic interest. As passing Band 4 was a requirement for graduation, those did not pass yet had no time and energy to cultivate their interest in the target language and culture. In comparison, those who already passed Band 4 could afford to learn English out of their own will and interest. Such a mutual inhibiting relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations was in accordance with previous findings (Brown, 1994).

Conclusion

This research attempted at a primarily exploratory, bottom-up classification of English learning motivations in the People’s Republic of China. The relationship between various motivation types remained unexplored. Due to the limitation of sampling, the Band 8 English proficiency group was omitted from the analysis. Future research can recruit more balanced subject groups and further examine the effect of English proficiency. Some of the findings, however, may have general theoretical and practical implications.

The Study Provides General Support for the Classical and Expanded Models. The motivation types found in the present study demonstrate similarities with classical and expanded

models, thus showing considerable cross-context appropriateness of these models. The three macro-level types – instrumental, cultural, and situational motivation-- are to a large extent in line with “instrumental” and “integrative” motivation in Gardner and Lambert (1972)’s classical model and “learning situation” in Dörnyei (1994)’s expanded model. The finding that target language proficiency is positively related to intrinsic interest and negatively related to extrinsic motivation such as test scores, and that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation inhibit each other, are also consistent with previous findings (e.g., Brown, 1994).

However, the motivation types found among Chinese students also exhibited characteristics distinct of the context. The classical instrumental-integrative division has not precisely accommodated the subtle and multi-folded motivations of the Chinese learners.

Instrumental Motivations Are Diverse. There are different types of “instrumental” motivation. In the classical model, the prototypical “instrumental motivation” is related to goals such as salary and job opportunity. The present study has identified a range of distinct instrumental motivations, from immediate objective to long-term investment. Among these the most striking one is perhaps “immediate achievement” centered on certificates, as required by external environments. This motivation already emerged in existing studies in one form or another (e.g., Hua, 1998; Shi, 2000), and now it is grounded on empirical evidence. The “immediate” nature of this motivation and its institutional context can be further examined in depth in future. It would also be interesting to see if this motivation is common among Asian countries and regions that have similar cultural backgrounds and educational systems.

Cultural Motivations Can Be Directed to the Native Culture. “Cultural motivations” are not necessarily “integrative”; they can be directed toward the native culture as well as the target

culture. This native-culture orientation is absent in either the classical model or expanded models, and could not have been found by using a deductive approach. Its existence might be related to the deep-rooted Chinese cultural tradition of “harmonizing the family and put the country in order,” or the nationalist ideology reinforced in socialization and schooling. Yet it might also indicate a general tendency in developing countries, especially when we consider the recent thriving of “world englishes” which calls for the embracement of native culture in the English language. Further investigation is needed to explore the existence of such a native-culture orientation in China and in other Asian contexts.

The present study offers a motivation framework for Chinese EFL learners, as a refinement upon or revision of the generally adopted classical and expanded models originated primarily in North American and European contexts. This framework may offer new ideas for future studies on Chinese EFL learners. It may also offer insights and implications for research on English learning in other Asian countries and regions.

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Appendix: Questions on Motivation Types

在下面的各项多选题中，请选择一个合适的数字打勾，表明您对该陈述的认可程度。					
1 = 很不同意	2 = 不同意	3 = 不确定	4 = 同意	5 = 很同意	
1. 我对英语一见钟情，说不出有什么特别的原因。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我开始学英语是因为父母/学校要我学。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 上大学前学习英语，主要是为了升学考试。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 上大学前，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于我的学习成绩。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 上大学前，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于是否喜欢英语老师。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 上大学后，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于我的学习成绩。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 上大学后，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于是否喜欢英语老师。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 上大学后，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于英语课的质量。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 上大学后，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于所用的教材。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 上大学后，我学英语的劲头很大程度上取决于是否喜欢我的英语班。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 我学英语的一个重要目的是获取毕业证书。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 我学英语的直接目的是在出国或国内升学、求职考试中取得好成绩。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 学好英语对我很重要，因为它是当今社会非常有用的交流工具。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 学好英语能让我获得成就感。	1	2	3	4	5
15. 我学习英语，是为了更好地学习其他专业。	1	2	3	4	5
16. 学好英语，将来我才可能找到一份好工作。	1	2	3	4	5
17. 我学习英语是为了了解世界各国的经济、科技发展情况。	1	2	3	4	5
18. 我学习英语是因为对英语国家的人以及他们的文化感兴趣。	1	2	3	4	5

19. 我对语言学习有特别的爱好。	1	2	3	4	5
20. 对英语歌曲/电影的爱好使我对英语产生了很大兴趣。	1	2	3	4	5
21. 我学习英语是因为我喜欢这门语言本身。	1	2	3	4	5
22. 我学习英语是为了让世界了解中国。	1	2	3	4	5
23. 对英语文学作品的爱好使我对英语产生了很大兴趣。	1	2	3	4	5
24. 学好英语，我才能很好地为中国的富强尽力。	1	2	3	4	5
25. 学好英语，我才能不辜负父母的期望。	1	2	3	4	5
26. 我学习英语是为了出国寻找更好的受教育和工作机会。	1	2	3	4	5
27. 我学习英语是为了出国亲身体会英语国家的文化。	1	2	3	4	5
28. 我学习英语是为了最终移民外国。	1	2	3	4	5
29. 英语是人生前进路上一块重要的敲门砖。	1	2	3	4	5
30. 讲一口流利的英语，是教育程度和修养的象征。	1	2	3	4	5