INFLUENCE OF TEACHING TARGET LANGUAGE CULTURE ON ESL STUDENT MOTIVATION

by

Lisa D. Pierce

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
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of
George Mason University
in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy
Education

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Date: _____ Summer Semester 2014
George Mason University
Fairfax, VA

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family: my loving, patient husband, Kenneth, my sweet, inspiring daughter, Allison, my loving parents, Richard and Karen, for their support and encouragement.

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Writing this dissertation has been a long and oft times isolating endeavor, yet my entire doctoral journey was one that I did not make on my own, nor could I have. This experience of pursuing a doctorate is one of paradox. It is a strange feeling to spend so much time in isolated thought knowing that the outcome is dependent only on my work and yet to know at the same time that just outside of the thought world is an entire community supporting me. It has been a very humbling and at the same time emboldening experience. It is with deep gratitude that I think upon everything that was given to me to help me be successful in my journey.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

English as a Second Language ..... ESL
Extrinsic Motivation ..... EM
Intrinsic Motivation ..... IM
Self Determination Theory ..... SDT
Second Language L2
Second Language Acquisition ..... SLA
Target Language ..... TL

ABSTRACT

INFLUENCE OF TEACHING TARGET LANGUAGE CULTURE ON ESL STUDENT MOTIVATION

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Second language research demonstrates a strong correlation between student motivation to learn a second language and student attitudes towards native speakers of the target language and the target language culture (Gardner, 2006). To date, we have limited knowledge about how teaching about the target language culture, or lack thereof, in the second language classroom affects student attitudes and motivation to learn. This study draws from second language motivation research grounded in self-determination theory (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000; Pae, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and the ideal L2 self (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). This study is intended to deepen understanding of student motivation in second language learning, specifically in the formal classroom context. There are three areas of focus in this study: (1) student attitudes towards native speakers of the target language and the target language culture, (2) teacher support for students' autonomous regulation, and (3)

target language culturally supportive classrooms. The outcome variables in the study are persistence in second language learning as measured by student self-reports on indicators such as effort and intended effort, and gain scores from a speaking and listening assessment given to all students enrolled in the college English-as-a-second language program. Using confirmatory structural equation modeling to test the models proposed in the study, significant, direct relationships were confirmed among the variables with the exception of the variable of target language culturally supportive classrooms.

Keywords: ESL, SDT, L2, second language, English, culture, motivation, autonomous regulation

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Not many generations ago learning a second language was limited primarily to ambitious traders, pioneering missionaries, and wealthy individuals. Fueled by advances in travel and communication, today, people from different countries and regions who speak different languages and have different cultures intersect with ever growing numbers of people from all walks of life. Second language learning has more economic, political, and relational implications than ever. A high premium is placed on acquiring a second language and there are many factors that affect achievement in second language (L2) learning. Demographic variables, ability, past experience, and family influences represent factors over which educators have little to no control. Fortunately, there are also malleable inputs, such as teacher behaviors and instructional content, which are foundational to the formal learning environment. Past research tells us that teacher behavior affects student outcomes (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon, & Roth, 2005; Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006) such as engagement in schoolwork (Assor et al., 2002), emotions, motivational orientations, academic engagement styles (Assor et al. 2005), and self-regulatory capacity in L2 vocabulary learning (Tseng et al., 2006). There is also evidence that student attitudes affect student intentions, behaviors, and outcomes such as intended effort toward learning English

(Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009), self-regulatory capacity in L2 vocabulary learning (Tseng et al., 2006), and overall academic achievement (Gardner et al., 2004).

Outside of formal linguistics, language and culture are not independent of each other (Rubenfeld, Clément, Lussier, Lebrun, & Auger, 2006). Gohard-Radenkovic, Lussier, Penz, and Zarate (2004) explain the relationship of language to culture through the concept of *social representations*, whereby images, beliefs, and attitudes are created through interindividual and intergroup communication (as cited in Rubenfeld et al., 2006). Individuals identify, organize, and master their social world through the use of social representations (Rubenfeld et al., 2006). Thus, it has been argued (Byram, 1988; Kramsch, Cain, & Murphy-Lejeune, 1996; Krasner, 1999; Samovar, Porter, & Jain, 1981) that at least some aspect of the target language (TL) culture should be part of the curriculum in the L2 classroom. For example, English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom instruction should include something of the English culture[1]. An L2 classroom with a teacher who is supportive of the idea of teaching the TL culture and who teaches TL culture purposefully would be considered culturally supportive. However, there is presently a lack of research on culturally supportive classes, evaluating the relationship between the type and amount of the TL culture that is taught in classrooms and student

[1] The TL of this study is English and the TL culture is referred to as English. Some native English speakers might perceive a difference of culture represented between the two terms English and American (culture); perhaps thinking of British culture upon hearing English culture. However, a focus group of students in the same population as the study, reported that in their minds English culture is a broad category that includes American culture – in other words the students do not separate types of English culture. For that reason, and because it is often hard to distinguish many aspects of American culture from British culture, English is the term being used to describe the target language culture.

attitudes towards native speakers of the TL as well as student attitudes toward the culture of the TL.

Positive student attitudes about the target language, people, and culture are correlated with higher levels of motivation, which in turn are correlated with higher levels of achievement (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). To some extent, curriculum is a malleable input to the classroom environment. It is also one that would seem to have a likely relationship to student attitudes to the target language people and culture. Thus it is important to expand our knowledge about teaching the TL culture in the hopes of supporting student motivation. Increased understanding about the effect of teaching about the culture of the TL on the motivation of L2 students might influence teachers to incorporate more cultural activities into their curriculum and could be used in L2 teacher training. Ideally, the knowledge contributed to the field would lead to further research that would answer teachers' questions about what kind of culture to teach, how much, and in what way.

Higher levels of motivation are indicative of greater persistence and higher achievement (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002) and so are important in an academic environment. However, the advantages of supporting student motivation and achievement reach beyond the confines of the L2 classroom. Being able to competently use an L2 will benefit all students regardless of their personal learning goals. Typical goals for learning an L2 include: enhanced employment opportunities, making friends, facilitating travel, and furthering their education. Furthermore, people with autonomously regulated motivation, motivation that is fueled by a desire to achieve goals that have been chosen

by oneself or identified by oneself as important to achieving related goals, have been found to have greater levels of self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1995) and general well-being (Miquelon & Vallerand, 2006; Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995). Autonomously regulated motivation is referred to in this study as *autonomous regulation*.

Purpose

This study is intended to deepen understanding of student motivation in L2 learning, specifically in the formal classroom context. There are three areas of focus in this study: (1) student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and the TL culture, (2) teacher support for students' autonomous regulation, and (3) TL culturally supportive classrooms. There are many more variables involved in L2 learning such as different types of motives/orientations (work, travel, family, etc.), attitudes towards the learning situation, language aptitude, anxiety, perceived ability, and parental encouragement. However, these are beyond the scope of this study.

The outcome variables of interest to the study are students' persistence in L2 learning as measured by student self-reports on indicators such as effort and intended effort, and gain scores from a speaking and listening assessment given to all students enrolled in the college ESL program.

Background of the Problem

Three Periods of Second Language Motivation Research. There have been three main periods of L2 motivation research since 1959, when Gardner and Lambert first pioneered research in this area (Dörnyei, 2005). The first period (1959-1990) is known as

the Social Psychology era. This era was dominated by the work of Gardner and his associates and the concept of integrative motivation (Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985, 2006; Lambert, 1955). The second period covering 1990-2000 was much shorter. Known as the Cognitive Situated Period, the 1990s incorporated theories such as the self-determination theory (SDT) (Dörnyei, 2005; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) and pioneered new constructs such as willingness to communicate (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). The current period of Process-oriented L2 motivation research began in 2000 and overlaps somewhat with the Cognitive Situated Period (Dörnyei, 2005). The Process-oriented period is defined by work in the ideal L2 self, and is characterized by the process of identification of L2 attributes within the individual's self-concept. This idea originates in research in social psychology on ideal and possible selves (Dörnyei, 2003).

Motivation. There are many definitions of motivation and many types of motivation. The most fundamental type of motivation in educational literature from the L2 perspective is what is known as cognitive motivation. For consistency in this paper, it will be referred to as motivation rather than cognitive motivation. Keller's definition of motivation (as cited in Crooks & Schmidt, 1991) captures well the concept of motivation in L2 research as it will be used in this study: "Motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will make in that respect" (p. 389). Thus, L2 motivation, as defined in this study, is the combination of desire (motive) to study an L2 and the effort one exhibits in studying an L2.

Motivation provides many benefits to learning. Zimmerman and Schunk (2008) describe five of them. Motivated students pay more attention to the means by which they learn and how beneficial those means are. Students who are motivated to choose a task, when given the opportunity, make more progress on that task than unmotivated students. Motivation fuels increased effort to master a difficult task. Motivated students are more likely to persist and learn on their own. Finally, they express higher levels of satisfaction.

L2 Learning Motivation. At the heart of all L2 learning is a desire to communicate with people that do not share your first language. However, L2 learners differ in their individual motives for wanting to learn and communicate in the L2. Motivation to learn an L2 is complex. It is entangled in one's identity and attitudes toward the people and culture of the target language (Gardner, 2001, 2006; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004), personal needs and desires (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Noels et al., 2000; Vandergrift, 2005), language environments (Chen et al., 2005; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Masgoret & Gardner, 1999), and resources, academic environments, anxiety, and one's perceived ability in the L2 (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; MacIntyre et al.; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Yashima et al., 2004). There is still much to be learned about how these factors interact together for L2 learners.

A core goal of learning an L2 is developing the ability to communicate with people who speak the language. However, one does not learn an L2 in isolation from the culture from which it originates (Rubenfeld et al., 2006). Our globally interconnected world has added new nuances to this relationship of language and culture. With English

as the lingua franca[2] of our day, English-speaking countries are often accused of cultural and linguistic imperialism (Shin & Kubota, 2008). It is more important than ever to consider the implications of culture and language learning.

Learning a language necessarily results in taking on cultural aspects of the language (Piller, 2002). Inherent in any language are characteristics such as the tone and rhythm used by speakers of the language to express their thoughts and emotions. There is a tenuous balance between taking on L2 aspects while preserving one's native language identity. Even expert L2 speakers usually have a desire to remain identified with their first language, or at least not become an indistinguishable part of the L2 culture (Piller, 2002).

It is reasonable to assume that since the process of L2 learning involves taking on some characteristics of native speakers that there would be a positive correlation between students' attitudes towards the L2 speakers and culture and L2 motivation, such as has been borne out in research (Gardner, 1985). The more highly a student thinks of speakers of the L2, the more that student is willing to be like the L2 speakers, the more appealing speaking the L2 is (Dörnyei, 2009). Thus, students who are more willing to be like the native speakers of the L2 are more likely to have greater L2 achievement because they will be more likely to take on the characteristics for speaking the language. Nonetheless, openness to being like native L2 speakers is insufficient to turn a student into an expert L2 speaker. High levels of proficiency require years of practice and thousands of hours of

[2] *Lingua franca:* a language commonly used for communication, often for commerce, by people who do not share a first language, usually distinct from first language of the people using it.

language use. Intrinsic motivation, doing something for the reward inherent in the activity, and other highly self-regulated types of motivation, doing something that is not inherently pleasant in order to achieve a desired personal goal, are correlated with higher levels of effort on learning tasks (Pintrich, 1999; Vollmeyer & Rheinberg, 2006) and long-term effort (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008), and is also correlated with higher levels of achievement (Gardner et al., 2004).

Despite the number of language learning programs that purport to have you effortlessly speaking an L2 in four weeks, learning an L2 takes a lot of time and effort, which spans across one's lifetime, if one plans to continue to use the L2 throughout one's lifetime. Motivated students are more likely to persist in the task to learn and accomplish their goal, becoming proficient L2 speakers. Thus, motivation, a key to proficiency in learning a L2, is one of the most studied variables in L2 learning. Many L2 studies indicated a strong positive correlation between motivation and achievement; the more highly motivated a student is, the higher the achievement (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

Whether one studies abroad or at home, there are many obstacles to practicing and using the L2. These obstacles can understandably decrease motivation over time (Gardner et al., 2004). Even among high achieving adult L2 students, there is a decline in motivation over the course of the academic experience (Gardner et al., 2004). To improve support of L2 motivation, a better understanding of the variables in L2 motivation theory and their relationship to each other is needed.

Statement of the Problem

L2 research demonstrates a strong correlation between student motivation to learn an L2 and student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and TL culture (Gardner, 2006). To date, we have limited knowledge about how teaching about the TL culture in the L2 classroom, or lack thereof, affects student attitudes and motivation to learn.

Research Questions

1. Do factors of TL culturally supportive classrooms impact student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and their culture?
2. Do the classroom and attitudinal factors impact student autonomous regulation?
3. Does student autonomous regulation mediate the impact of classroom factors and student attitudes towards TL culture and native speakers of the TL on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?
4. Do the classroom and attitudinal factors have direct effects [independent of student autonomous regulation] on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?

To address these questions, I designed an empirical study investigating L2 motivation in adult ESL students in college ESL classes. This study draws from L2 motivation research grounded in SDT (Noels et al., 2000; Pae, 2008) and in the ideal L2 self (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). I will use confirmatory structural equation modeling to test a theoretical model, consisting of both latent and manifest variables, in which autonomous regulation (motivation) is a mediating

variable. The first two research questions are depicted in the model in Figure 1. If the data fits this model, then the more complex version model seen in Figure 2 will be used to test questions three and four. SEM allows for the measure of direct effects and indirect effects simultaneously. If a variable does not have a statistically significant effect on a target variable, then we can say that that variable is not involved. If a variable has both a direct and indirect effect on a target variable, then the sum of the direct and indirect effects is the total effect of that variable.

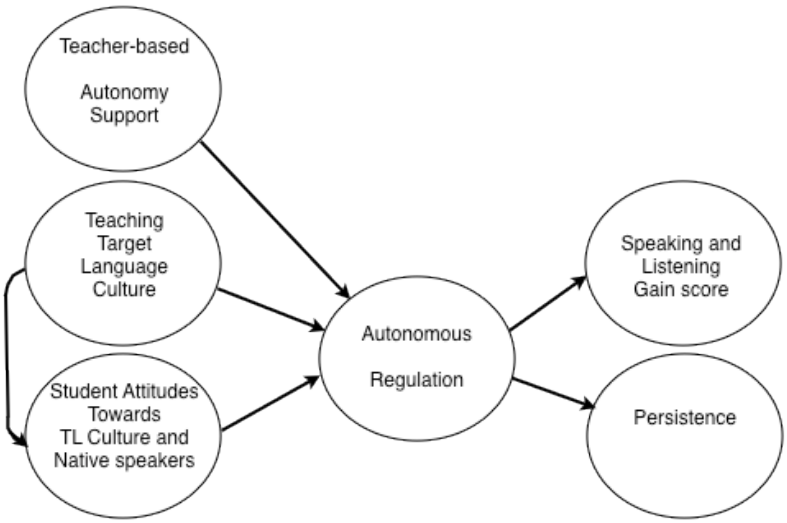

Figure 1. Model of Three Antecedents to Motivation and Two Outcomes

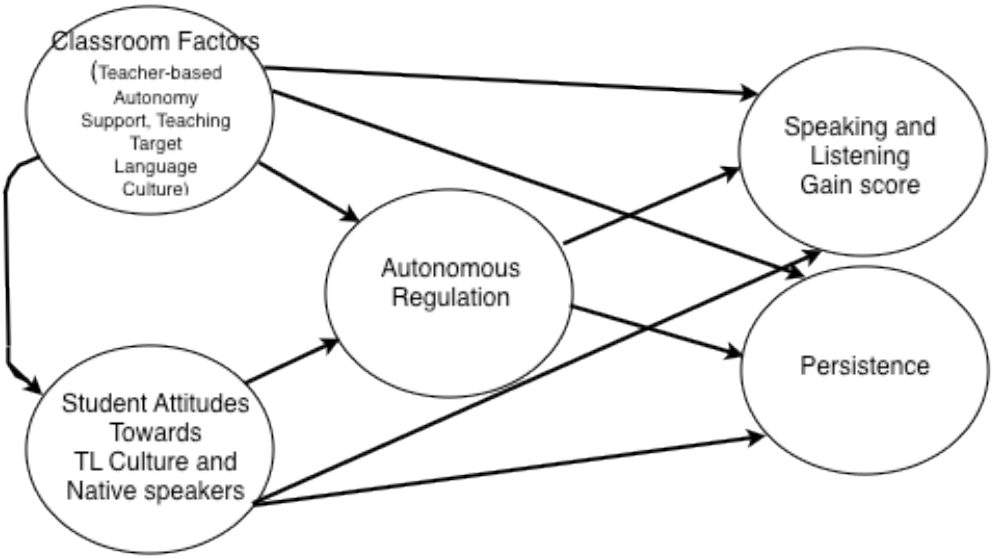

Figure 2. Complex Model of Predicted Relationships of Three Antecedents to Motivation and Two Outcomes

The following chapters will lay out in more detail the history of the problem and the design of the study. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature covering in more detail an overview of motivation, SDT, the leading representative theories of the three historical periods of L2 motivation, correlation studies of these theories, and student attitudes towards L2 speakers. Chapter 3 details the methodology that will be used in this study. The questionnaires employed in the study are listed with their respective research questions and proposed analysis method in Table 1 in Chapter 3, where they are addressed in greater detail. The study will also include observation of some of the classes. This will help with triangulation of the data gathered on culturally supportive classrooms.

Definition of Terms

First language. One's native language; mother tongue, the first language learned at home in childhood, from birth.

Second language (L2). Any language learned after the first language or mother tongue; similar in meaning to foreign language.

Target Language (TL). A second language that one is learning.

Native speaker. One is a native speaker of the first language learned completely in childhood, from birth.

Autonomy-supportive teacher behavior. The students' and teachers' perceptions of the behaviors of the teachers within the L2 classroom context with regard to the extent that they support student autonomously regulated motivation; that is to the extent that they support the students' motivation to study in order to meet their individually self-determined goals (the goals need not be explicitly identified).

Attitudes towards NS and culture. The degree to which students want to associate with native speakers of English, visit their countries, and participate in cultural activities such as watching movies, listening to music, and reading books.

Second language (L2) motivation. The combination of desire (motive) to study an L2 and the effort one exhibits in studying an L2.

Intrinsic motivation. That which moves someone to do something for the pleasure that is inherent in that activity.

Autonomous regulation. Motivation that is fueled by a desire to achieve goals that have been chosen by oneself or identified by oneself as important to achieving related goals, in contrast with motivation that results from expectations or pressures from other people.

Persistence to learn a second language (L2). Student effort and intended effort to learn the L2 when it's difficult, boring, and/or not required.

Gain score/Achievement. The measure of achievement is a gain score that is determined by comparing the students' placement scores on an oral exam with their end of term scores on the same type of oral exam.

Self-determination Theory (*SDT).* The reasons or motives for a person taking a particular action can be explained in terms of the degree to which it was freely chosen and congruous with that person's conception of self, or in other words, the extent to which they were self-determined. SDT postulates that individual motivation and thus the degree of self-determination is affected by environmental factors which act upon three innate needs of relatedness (the need to feel a positive relational connection with others- in the classroom this includes both teachers and students), autonomy (the capacity of a person to choose and pursue one's own goals), and competency (the ability of a person to do a task properly).

Integrativeness (Gardner). A person's openness towards the target language (TL) or TL cultural community and a desire to learn the TL in order to become psychologically closer to members of the community.

Integrative motivation. A construct that is an amalgam of integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, and motivation.

Ideal L2 Self. The person that the student wants to become with regard to competency and use of the L2.

Instrumentality (promotional). Goals that in themselves may be unpleasant, but which are chosen for potential to help a person reach personal goals.

Instrumentality (preventional). Goals that in themselves are unpleasant, and which are chosen for potential to help a person avoid negative consequences.

Culturally Supportive L2 Classroom. An L2 classroom with a teacher who is supportive of the idea of teaching the TL culture and who teaches TL culture purposefully.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study is intended to deepen understanding of student motivation in L2 learning, specifically in (1) student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and the TL culture, (2) teacher support for students' autonomous regulation, and (3) target language culturally supportive classrooms. The literature review starts with a survey of general motivation for learning, followed by the specifics of L2 motivation, and closing with a brief review of student attitudes towards L2 culture and people.

Motivation for Learning

Motivation provides many benefits to learning. Zimmerman and Schunk (2008) describe five of them. Motivated students pay more attention to the means by which they learn and how beneficial those means are. Students who are motivated to choose a task, when given the opportunity, make more progress on that task than unmotivated students. Motivation fuels increased effort to master a difficult task. Motivated students are more likely to persist and learn on their own. Finally, they express higher levels of satisfaction.

In his article, which records a conceptual exploration of the literature in student motivation, Pintrich (2003) focused on three themes in the field of motivation research that he saw as being important and on which future research should consider: the importance of scientifically rigorous research in this area, the value of multi-disciplinary work, and "the importance of use-inspired basic research on motivation" (p. 667). Much

of the earlier research on learning has focused on social-cognitive models because of their comparative simplicity and research trends. However, the trend is moving now towards looking more at needs and motives because of their affective strength (Pintrich, 2003). The leading research is looking at the following needs: competence, autonomy, relatedness, which are found SDT, and personal self-worth, achievement, power, and affiliation. These motives and needs have been found to have an indirect influence on outcomes and are mediated through malleable social-cognitive constructs (Pintrich, 2003).

L2 motivation

Socio-educational model of second language acquisition (SLA). Integrative motivation and its core variable, integrativeness, are key elements of the larger framework of the Socio-educational Model of SLA, conceived of by Gardner (1985). The concept of integrative motivation stemmed from the belief that language and culture have a key foundational relationship. They are inextricably intertwined. Integrative motivation is based on "a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001, p. 12). The level of integration desired is varied. It ranges from as comprehensive as becoming a member of the community to wanting to be able to enjoy media forms in the target language (TL).

Gardner and Lambert developed the variable of integrativeness in 1972 based on Mowrer's 1950 study of identification as a motivation in children learning their native language. Children are naturally motivated to learn the basics of their native language in order to communicate with the people around them and be a more fully participating

member of their family. They proposed that there would be a similar motivation in learning an L2. Integrativeness describes a person's openness towards the TL or cultural community; distinguished from identification, where an individual desires to become a member of the cultural community (Gardner, 2006).

Gardner (2006), as well as other researchers (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000), found that integrative motivation correlates positively with achievement. Integrative motivation also correlates positively with production (Hashimoto, 2002), and by its very nature is linked to intercultural understanding and communication. In previous research, integrative motivation was also found to be affected by the classroom experience (Gardner et al., 2004) and by experiences with the native speakers of the TL (Masgoret & Gardner, 1999).

The Socio-educational Model (see Figure 3) looks at motivation from the L2 student perspective. Nonetheless, contributions are made from teachers as well, and also from the backgrounds of both teachers and students (Gardner, 2001). *External influences, individual differences, language acquisition contexts,* and *outcomes* comprise the four dimensions of the model (Gardner, 2001).

External influences broadly include any variables outside of learners that might impact their language learning. This dimension is subdivided into two classes of influences, *history* and *motivators*. History includes all of the social and personal variables inherent in individual learners' experiences (Gardner, 2001). This encompasses influences such as the cultural environment and family background. A student studying English in Virginia is likely to have a different experience from one studying English in

Syria, if only because they have different family backgrounds and are studying in different environments. Even within a particular socio-cultural milieu there will be differences among learners, including socio-economic status and languages spoken in the home (Gardner, 2001). The socio-cultural background and environment in which people live can impact the learning of any school subject. However, socio-cultural background and environment are even more influential in L2 learning, which requires the learner to acquire speech, grammar, and behavioral patterns that are a part of a different culture and by definition foreign to their own (Gardner, 2001).

The effect of the historical influences is played out in the construct of integrativeness, one of two individual differences considered by the model to have a direct effect on motivation. "The variable, Integrativeness, reflects a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer psychologically to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001, p. 7).

Individual differences is one of the four dimensions of the model. It includes the variables of *attitudes toward the learning situation*, *integrativeness*, *motivation*, other motivating factors, and aptitude for L2 learning. The variable attitudes towards the learning situation is common to any learning situation, not just SLA; in the classroom context that would include attitudes towards classroom elements such as the teacher, fellow classmates, and the curriculum.

Research indicates that motivators, the other class of external influences (besides history), affect attitudes toward the learning situation. In the model, attitudes toward the

learning situation is a variable expressing an individual difference that directly affects motivation (Gardner, 2001).

In the Socio-educational Model, *motivation* is defined simply as "the driving force in any situation" (Gardner, 2001, p. 8). That simple definition is then fleshed out in the L2 context as requiring three elements: expended effort, desired goal, and enjoyment of the process of learning the L2 (Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997). The third element is sometimes referred to as positive affect (Gardner, 2001). The level of these three elements connotes the difference between more motivated and less motivated individuals. Motivated individuals will display all three elements (Gardner, 2001). This conceptualization of motivation was not intended to be a comprehensive description of the characteristics of motivation, rather was intended to establish a theoretical framework for research into SLA motivation.

Taken together, *integrativeness*, *attitudes towards the learning situation,* and *motivation* constitute *integrative motivation* (Gardner, 2001). Thus, the individual who is integratively motivated has a desire to identify with the L2 language community, has a goal, expends effort to reach that goal, enjoys the activities required to move toward the goal, and evaluates the learning situation positively (Gardner, 2001). As depicted in the model, motivation directly impacts SLA outcomes in both formal and informal contexts. SLA motivation mediates the impact of integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation.

Language aptitude is included in Gardner's model (2001) as an individual difference because of its robust ability to explain achievement in both formal and

informal language acquisition contexts. Language aptitude is considered to be a fixed variable, an innate ability possessed in quantities that vary by individual that is not easily altered by environmental factors. However, motivation is changeable and influenced by environmental factors (Dörnyei, 2009; MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009). Due to its malleable nature motivation is a more promising variable to study in context of classroom variables. There is the hope of finding out more about classroom factors that would support language acquisition among all learners, by sustaining or perhaps increasing motivation.

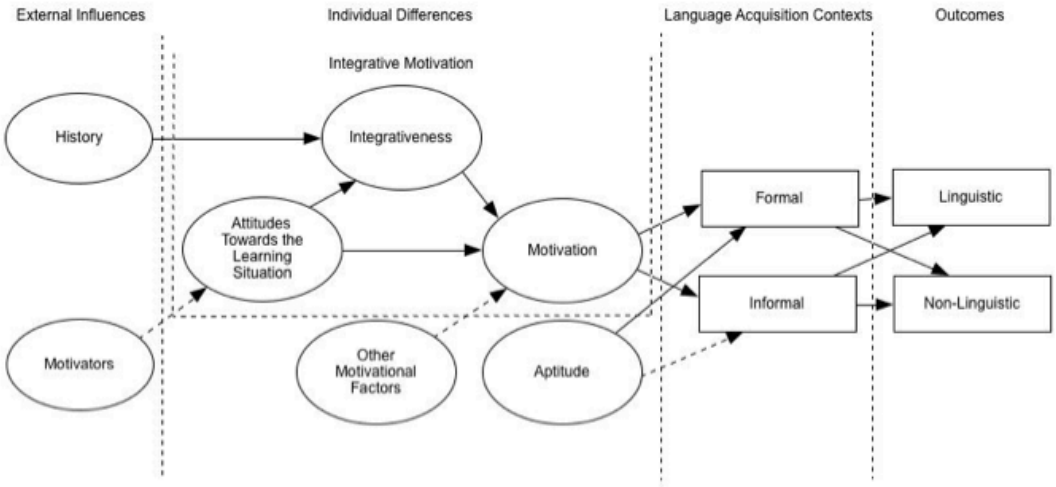

Figure 3. Revised Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 2001)

L2 Motivational Self System. Dörnyei (2009) wanted to improve on what he saw as limitations of the work first introduced by Gardner and Lambert (1959), which led the field of L2 motivation research for 20 years. The first limitation is that the terminology

'integrative' has been conceptually misunderstood in past L2 motivation research. For example, some have understood it to mean that L2 students with integrative motivation would be studying the L2 in order to leave behind their native language communities and culture and integrate into the L2 community and culture. Second, the concept is also believed to be limiting, in that some researchers do not see it as applicable in many L2 learning environments, due to its conception and the bulk of the research having taken place in the Canadian context. They have understood it to be a construct that would only apply to situations where L2 students were studying in a target language community and had access to native TL speakers. Lastly, the concept did not have any obvious connections to modern and still emerging cognitive motivational concepts (Dörnyei, 2009), such as goal theories or SDT. The L2 Motivational Self System, on the other hand, is set apart from other L2 motivational frameworks due to its explicit integration of psychological theories of the self.

Dörnyei first published on the L2 motivation theoretical framework called the L2 Motivational Self System in 2005. This theoretical framework is premised on the construct of possible selves; the concept of selves that one could become in the future (Dörnyei, 2009).

Dörnyei considers the L2 Motivational Self System to be compatible with motivation as it is conceptualized by Gardner (2001), McIntosh and Noels (2004), and Ushioda (2001), and practical for useful research into motivating language learners. Furthermore, MacIntyre et al. also believe Gardner's Socio-education Model is compatible with the concept of possible selves (2009).

There are many theories of 'self' published today. A search on the PSYCHINFO database using 50 items called up more than 75,000 articles. The search terms included items such as self-esteem, self-concept, and self-identity (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Dörnyei selected the theories of *possible selves* and *future self-guides* because of their implications for understanding human actions. Possible selves are often called future self-guides, though not all possible selves fulfill this role (Dörnyei, 2009). Possible selves are most simply understood as visualizations of oneself that one could become in the future. The concept of future self-guides contains the added element that a possible self will provide a guide for future actions so that one might either achieve or avoid a particular future self (Dörnyei, 2009). Within these theories are the more specific ideal selves, ought selves, and feared selves. Ideal selves are what people want to become. The goals of ideal selves are self-determined and marked by autonomously regulated motivation. For example, an ideal L2 self might be one who is able to watch and understand films in the L2. Ought selves are what individuals believe they should become based on the expectations of others; such as a student who passes his L2 class. Goals of ought selves are determined by others and pursued through externally regulated motivation, caused by outside pressure to reach the goals. Feared selves are what people do not want to become, such as a person who remains monolingual throughout life. There are more 'self' constructs in the literature, but these three reside in the core of Dörnyei's discussion of connecting the L2 Motivational Self System to the self literature (2009).

The ideal and ought-to selves do not represent an exhaustive taxonomy of selves, but rather provide a framework for categorizing and discussing possible selves within the

L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009). Dörnyei refers to the ought self in the L2 literature as the ought-to self.

It is when possible selves function as incentives that their value for motivation can be seen (MacIntyre et al., 2009). The motivation lies in the desire to reduce the variance between the actual self and the ideal and ought-to selves. According to possible selves theory, people want to be able to evaluate themselves as becoming closer to the ideal and ought selves that they desire to be. For example, students may have ideal concepts of themselves as global citizens who can speak more than one language. In their actual selves they may only be able to say a few words in an L2. Therefore, the desire to become more like their ideal selves may motivate them to do their homework, or enroll in another semester of classes. It is emotion that connects possible selves to motivation (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Fear of becoming who one doesn't want to become, or hope of becoming what one does want to become are two examples of the connection between emotion and motivation. Without the emotion, there is little incentive to change. Motivation based on imagined possible selves can be affected by other factors; most importantly, the elaboration of the imagined self, perceived plausibility, agreement between the ideal and ought-to selves, activating stimuli, achievement strategies, and the strength of a balancing feared self (Dörnyei, 2009).

A 2005 study (Csizer & Dörnyei) showed that integrativeness was the key factor in language choice and effort, and that it was comprised of instrumentality and attitudes toward the L2 culture. Both of these variables are also included in the ideal L2 self. Instrumentality and attitudes toward the L2 culture are two very different variables.

Instrumentality consists of impersonal pragmatic incentives, such as desires for better jobs and higher grades; while attitudes towards L2 speakers is a variable with a very human essence, describing how well L2 students like members of the L2 community. Dörnyei, who had been previously interested in possible selves research, found that the results of the 2005 study seemed to support reinterpretation of integrativeness as the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009).

According to the concept of the ideal L2 self, the more highly a student thinks of speakers of the L2, the more appealing speaking the L2 is (Dörnyei, 2009). If speakers of the L2 are thought highly of then it follows that being a speaker of the L2 will reflect positively on the student (in the student's own mind) and the student will have a greater motivation to learn to speak the L2. Additionally, it is a natural desire to be successful; thus it would follow that there would be a component of success in the ideal L2 self.

Instrumental goals often involve goals of success such as job advancement. These types of goals have a *promotion* focus and are associated with the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009). Promotion goals are meant to advance the learner towards positive goals. For example, learning an L2 can help people qualify for the types of jobs they are seeking, or help them earn a higher wage. There are also instrumental goals that have a *prevention* focus. Pleasing parents and passing a course are two examples of prevention goals. Prevention goals are designed to prevent a negative outcome. Prevention goals are associated with the ought-to self and feared selves in the Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009).

The ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self make up two of the three components of the L2 Motivational Self System. The third component is the L2 learning experience. This covers all aspects of the learning environment and experience, such as teacher behaviors, curriculum, and peer interactions. This area is still lacking empirical research connecting it to the L2 self system.

The reinterpretation of integrativeness has been proposed in order to circumvent the ambiguity encountered with the terminology associated with integrativeness, while at the same time not losing the benefits of the research performed under the original interpretation (Dörnyei, 2009). Additionally, the use of possible selves is educator friendly. There is some research in the field of education on possible selves and how educators can stimulate these in students to increase motivation (MacIntyre et al., 2009). The self perspective affords exploration into different areas of motivation. The self, like motivation, has multiple dimensions. It is affected by many factors and thus is often in flux (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Further, in this global age, where some people believe that world languages such as English are no longer associated with any one culture, the L2 self system may allow for a more widespread application of research findings (MacIntyre et al., 2009).

Empirical research. Following publication of the L2 Motivational Self System (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005), a large-scale study (Taguchi et al., 2009) was conducted including participants from Japan, China, and Iran. The study was designed to replicate Csizer and Dörnyei's Hungarian study (2005) in other cultural contexts, to confirm if integrativeness can be relabeled as the ideal L2 self, to discover if instrumentality could

be divided into the distinct components of promotion and prevention, and to provide validity and reliability for the tri-part L2 Motivational Self System (Taguchi et al. 2009). The study was successful on all four points.

However, the L2 Motivational Self System subsumes integrativeness. It is not just a matter that the name of the construct is changed, but the very questions asked are different (Taguchi et al., 2009). No longer are there questions that link the activity of learning an L2 to interactions with the L2 culture and people. Below are four sample items (two each) on measures of the ideal L2 self and integrativeness respectively (Taguchi et al., 2009).

"I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English."

" I can imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English."

"How important do you think learning English is in order to learn more about the culture and art of its speakers?"

"How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak English?"

The questions from the ideal L2 self measure revolve around using English, but do not imply that the use would be with native speakers; whereas the questions from the integrativeness measure directly reference English speakers and their culture.

The study confirmed that the L2 Self System model can be used in different cultural contexts and that the Hungarian results were not unique to that context. The data analysis for all three countries resulted in average correlations greater than 0.5 between integrativeness and the ideal L2 self. This supports Dörnyei's postulate that integrativeness can be relabeled the ideal L2 self (Taguchi et al., 2009). The study

revealed that the ideal L2 self accounted for more variance, 34%, than did integrativeness, 29%, further supporting the shift. The variable of instrumentality was divided into two types, prevention and promotion. Dörnyei (2009) and Taguchi et al.'s hypothesis that instrumentality could be divided this way was confirmed. The two variables showed low intercorrelations.

The tri-country study used self-report surveys. The surveys were built on past research questionnaires, modified, pilot tested in each country and modified some more. This happened in stages starting with Japan, then China, and lastly Iran. The questionnaires, though similar, were slightly different for each country (Taguchi et al., 2009).

In the studies (Dörnyei, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009), English was the L2 being studied and the students were studying it in a non-L2 environment. Dörnyei argues that in a foreign language context the students do not connect the L2 language with any particular people group or culture (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005, 2009). However, Dörnyei did not present empirical evidence to substantiate that. Thus, by assuming that students do not connect the L2 language with a particular people group, we are potentially losing data about learners' desires to be psychologically near in some way to the L2 groups and/or culture. Perhaps the ideal L2 self can subsume integrativeness because of the way the questions are worded. The ideal L2 self questions were vaguely worded, such as, "I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals." They are vague in the sense that they do not refer to native English speaking people nor cultural contexts where English is the native language. Thus we do not know

what was in the minds of the respondents when answering the questions. They could very well have been thinking of living abroad in England and speaking with native English speakers. It is important to not lose the cultural links. They remain part of our identity (of self and others).

The pros and cons of the L2 Motivational Self System. In the Socio-educational Model, instrumental orientation is subsumed by integrativeness and we lose the opportunity to learn more about it. This is one area where the L2 self model clearly adds value to L2 motivational research. The L2 self model breaks out instrumental orientation and divides it into two types, promotion and prevention. Recent research using this divided construct has found that not all types of instrumental orientation contribute to integrativeness. It has opened up a new vein to explore in L2 motivational research.

Cautions on the L2 Motivational Self System. Studies using possible selves are usually more qualitative in nature, using open-ended survey questions. This presents a challenge in obtaining consistency of measurement. It is important when trying to add to the body of knowledge for researchers to be able to accurately identify the phenomenon they have studied when comparing it to other studies. It doesn't help farmer John to know that fertilizer A helps Farmer Jane's tomatoes grow healthier than fertilizer B, when farmer John grows apples. This problem actually stems from the other potential problems discussed below: selection of terminology, cultural variations, possible selves as goals, the changing nature of possible selves, and the closely related concept of identity. Oyserman (2004), who pioneered early work in possible selves, has a well-established

coding system for his thesis. Nonetheless, even Oyserman's well-designed system is used inconsistently by other researchers (MacIntyre et al., 2009).

Terminology choice resulted in challenges for integrativeness, which remain a problem today, and it is also a challenge for possible selves (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Because the concepts are so nuanced, choosing terminology to adequately express the concept without being confounded with different concepts can be difficult. There is a large and diverse literature on concepts of self. One of the many concepts is possible selves as goals. A set goal does not imply that it will be met, nor that any effort will be expended to meet it. Possible selves as goals implies two processes, setting the goal and determining the action steps needed to reach the goal (MacIntyre et al.). In other words, it is not enough to just have possible selves. Previous research on goal setting tells us that goals need to be specific and moderately difficult if they are to impact motivation. Additionally, the research on goal setting seems to indicate that goal setting is helpful for boring or routine tasks, but may not be as beneficial for interesting tasks (MacIntyre et al.).

Another caution from MacIntyre et al. (2009) regards the fact that possible selves change over time. Adjoining the earlier discussion on boring or interesting tasks is the presumption on the nature of L2 learning that for most learners it is an interesting and long-term task. It is more beneficial to associate interesting tasks with long-term goals than with short-term evaluations of performance, and yet, the changing nature of possible selves would seem to require short-term goals (MacIntyre et al., 2009). Short-term goals for tasks are seen as intrusive if the tasks are interesting to people (Reeve, 2005 as cited

in MacIntyre et al., 2009). However, long-term goals require relative freedom for people to determine their own goals and designs to reach them (Manderlink & Harackiewicz, 1984 as cited in MacIntyre et al., 2009).

Allowing students the freedom to determine their own long-term goals and designs to reach them is not a practical option for the average classroom setting. The typical classroom provides a short-term, structured environment. Students can, and do determine their own long-term goals; however, their pursuit of them during their time in the classroom is constrained by classroom goals. Classroom instruction by nature is directed towards achieving short-term academic goals, such as completing tasks and passing exams.

Lastly, possible selves are not the first attempt to explain the interaction that individuals have within their social contexts. For the past two decades (MacIntyre et al., 2009), identity and social identity theories have offered explanations for the interaction that individuals have with their social environments, including in the L2 context (Noels et al., 2000).

Self-Determination Theory and L2 motivation. Noels is best known for her research that applied Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985) to the L2 field (Noels et al., 2000). According to Ryan and Deci, the nurture or neglect of the three innate needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy impacts student motivation (2000). The reasons or motives for a person taking a particular action can be explained in terms of the degree to which it was freely chosen and congruous with that person's conception of self (i.e., self-determined) (Deci & Ryan, 1985; McIntosh & Noels, 2004;

Ryan & Deci, 2000; Vallerand 1997). These orientations to action are on a motivation continuum of self-determined behavior (see Figure 4).

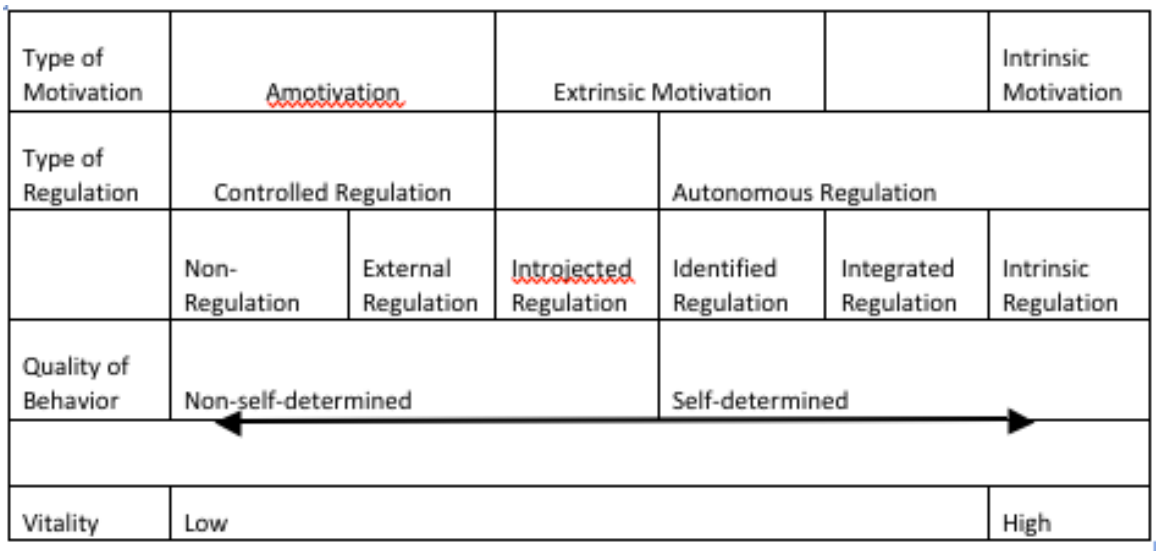

Figure 4. The self-determination continuum, with types of motivation, types of regulation, and vitality.

Self-determined behavior is behavior that through one's own agency is proactively engaged in achieving one's personal goals and desires through tasks of learning, skill mastery, and responsible application of the learned skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The least self-determined is amotivation, the absence of intent to act (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This is identified as non-self-determined behavior, because it is associated with powerlessness and an absence of regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Moving up the scale is extrinsic motivation (EM), a motivation that is demonstrated by engaging in actions in order to obtain a result that is separate from the action itself. SDT proposes that there can be varying levels of self-determined behavior within extrinsic motivation (Ryan

& Deci, 2000). Therefore, EM is subdivided into four types of regulation: external, introjected, identified, and integrated --- increasing in levels of self-determination respectively.

As one moves along the continuum from external regulation to integrated regulation the amount of self-determined behavior at each level increases (Ryan & Deci, 2000). External regulation is marked by complete control from outside the individual (McIntosh & Noels, 2004). Most students in compulsory education experience external regulation at one point or another. With introjected regulation, the individual may still feel controlled by an outside source even though the activity is not forced (McIntosh & Noels, 2004). In many cultures the children are expected to fulfill certain family obligations as adults even if it is not what they want for themselves. It might mean learning English so that they can get into the college of their parents' choice.

When actions are marked by identified regulation, people are exhibiting a high level of self-determined behavior and are doing something in order to achieve a personal goal (McIntosh & Noels, 2004). A student may want to study abroad in France, but to do so must meet the French language requirement. Therefore the student enrolls in French classes in order to achieve the personal goal of studying abroad. The most self-determined form of regulation within EM is integrated regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Integrated regulation is seen when people are motivated to engage in a task because engagement in the task supports some element of their identity and self-concept, not for the experiential pleasure of it (McIntosh & Noels, 2004). Most students do not enjoy studying for tests and they choose to study or not to study because of motives other than

the level of enjoyment derived from the immediate act of studying. Students who study for the French test because being someone who knows French is part of their self-image are exhibiting integrated regulation.

At the uppermost of the continuum and opposite to amotivation is intrinsic motivation (IM), which is exhibited by doing something for the inherent reward of it, rather than as a means to achieving a goal or receiving a reward. Intrinsic regulation is associated with IM and is marked by the greatest degree of self-determination. Intrinsic motivation has been defined in terms of "what people will do without external inducement" (Vockell, 2001, Chapter 5, para 5) by Malone and Lepper. The importance of intrinsic motivation to learning is well supported (Vockell, 2001).

Empirical research. Noels et al. (2000) found evidence that supports the existence of the motivation continuum in the L2 context. However, one problem with studies using the SDT continuum is the lack of clear distinction in the results between the constructs of identified regulation and integrated regulation (Deci, Schwartz, Sheinman, & Ryan, 1981; Noels et al., 2000). One way that this problem can be avoided is by grouping the motivation constructs into two "super" categories, autonomous regulation and controlled regulation. External and introjected regulations are combined to form controlled regulation, and identified, integrated, and intrinsic can be combined to form autonomous regulation (Deci & Ryan, n.d.).

Noels et al. (2000) recommended that the study be followed-up with experimental research, to build on the promise that autonomy-supportive classroom environments have for student motivation and future academic success, as indicated in the 2000 study and

earlier research cited in the 2000 study. To date, there have been the MacIntosh and Noels (2004) and Noels (2001) studies that have made use of the application of SDT to L2 motivational research. They were correlation studies.

Considering the ideal L2 self construct postulated by Dörnyei the overlapping results of these two concepts of self-regulation poses no problem and is in fact consistent with it. The concept of ideal self includes within it how one conceives of oneself presently, the possibility of what one could ideally become, and inherent to that, the goals that one is working towards to achieve the ideal self. This idea is supported in the suggestion by Noels et al. that, "students who learn an L2 in an autonomy-supportive environment where feedback enhances their sense of competence in the learning task are likely to be those students who learn because it is pleasurable or because it appeals to their self-concept" (2000, p.76).

The integrative and instrumental orientations are the early front-runners of variables in the field of L2 research. However, in the study conducted by Noels et al. (2000) comparing L2 orientations with the SDT motivational subtypes, these two variables, as conceived in the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985), were not considered in the study. These orientations have played a major role in L2 motivational research over the past thirty plus years, and the authors acknowledged the absence of these variables as a limitation of their study (Noels et al., 2000).

In order to examine the statistical similarity between the L2 orientations of integrative and instrumental and SDT subtypes of motivation, and as well to uncover the structural relationship between the variables of integrative orientation, instrumental

orientation, self-confidence, motivation, and L2 achievement, Pae (2008) conducted a study among 315 Korean university students. In this study, Pae used scales from the AMTB (Gardner, 1985) and scales from the 2000 study (Noels et al., 2000).

The results of Pae's study (2008) revealed that instrumental orientation was not statistically different from external regulation and was most highly different from intrinsic motivation. Instrumental orientation was also statistically different from introjected and identified regulation; integrated regulation was not compared in this analysis.

The analysis revealed that integrative orientation was statistically different from intrinsic motivation, as evidenced by a significant chi-square increase from the Baseline Model 2.0 to Model 2.1 (i.e., 377.40 – 335.34 = 42.06 with four degrees of freedom difference), though the difference was smaller than the other differences. This is not entirely surprising given that, as Pae touched on in the introduction to the study (2008), integrative orientation combines with a measure of motivational intensity and attitudes before forming integrative motivation (Gardner, 1985). In SDT the line between orientation and motivation is not as distinct. Instead, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be considered subcategories of motivation or of orientation (Pae, 2008). Thus, a slight misalignment is to be expected.

Integrative orientation was also statistically different from extrinsic motivation. Pae (2008) suggests that this might indicate that part of the construct of integrative orientation is shared with intrinsic motivation. More could have been learned about the relationship with the inclusion of integrated regulation. Integrated regulation was not

considered in this study because it has been difficult to distinguish in previous studies (Noels, 2001; Pae, 2008). Pae recommends inclusion of the variable in future studies after a valid and reliable scale is developed for measuring it.

Importance of SDT in L2 Research. Noels et al. (2000) found that integrated regulation and identified regulation correlated positively with integrativeness. If recent research (Dörnyei, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009) is correct and the ideal L2 self subsumes the construct of integrativeness, then it would follow that identified and integrated regulation would positively correlate with the ideal L2 self as well. Substantiating this would be a benefit to L2 motivational research, as it would open up access to the decades of educational research on SDT. Thanks to previous SDT research we already have many insights into aspects of the learning environment that help or hinder self-regulated learning behaviors and perceptions. Two such environmental inputs are teacher behaviors (Assor et al., 2002; Assor et al., 2005) and student choices (Assor et al., 2002; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Dörnyei is eager to see the field of L2 motivational research provide practical input to teachers (2001, 2005). This connection to previous and future SDT research would open up one avenue for that kind of practical research.

Attitudes Toward L2 Culture and People. In a study of Japanese students studying English in five tertiary and four secondary institutions in Japan, Ryan (2009) found statistical support for the argument that the context in which the L2 education takes place, makes a difference in the attitudes, motives and efforts of the L2 students. Ryan contends for the relevance of his findings in other contexts where there is not ready contact with the English-speaking world and where modern communicative language

techniques might not be used. The study employed 100 items measured on a six-point Likert scale and covered 18 motivational variables, including the antecedent to motivation of attitudes towards English speakers (US).

Most of the variables had been used in previous research on the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Ryan, 2009). The variable of attitudes towards English speakers was modified for the Ryan study to be limited just to the US. Previous studies had included questions regarding the US and the UK. The pilot studies showed that there was not a strong connection with the UK, so the questions were rewritten. A new contrast variable of *attitudes towards L2 speakers (English as an International language)* was also added (Ryan, 2009). The purpose was to discover if within the isolated Japanese context, where learning English was primarily a required academic exercise with little opportunity for use, if potential for using English with international L2 speakers of English was more motivating than the potential for use with English speakers from the US.

The results indicated that there was a stronger relationship between attitudes towards international L2 speakers and intended learning effort (0.51, $p<.0001$) than there was between attitudes towards native English speakers and intended learning effort (0.31, $p<.0001$), though both were statistically significant (Ryan, 2009). However, the wording of the items for attitudes towards international L2 speakers, such as, "Do you think that English-speaking countries (besides the USA) have an important role in the world?" (Ryan, 2009, p. 140) lead a reader to think more of native English speakers in undefined English-speaking countries than they do of an international community of L2 speakers of

English (Ryan, 2009). Yet the wording, L2 speaker of English, leads to the assumption of non-native speakers.

The question, if the potential for using English with international L2 speakers of English is more motivating than the potential for use with English speakers from the US (or any other English speaking nation), is an important one especially when such attitudes are included as antecedents in models of L2 motivation. It comes up often in various forms of arguments in L2 research. However, it is yet to be resolved, and is unfortunately beyond the scope of this study.

CHAPTER 3. METHODS

In keeping with the study purpose, the research questions are formulated to deepen understanding of student motivation in L2 learning, specifically the antecedents to L2 motivation of student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and the TL culture and teacher support for students' autonomous regulation in conjunction with target language culturally supportive classrooms.

Research Questions

1. Do factors of TL culturally supportive classroom impact student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and their culture?
2. Do the classroom and attitudinal factors impact student autonomous regulation?
3. Does student autonomous regulation mediate the impact of classroom factors and student attitudes towards TL culture and native speakers of the TL on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?
4. Do the classroom and attitudinal factors have direct effects [independent of student autonomous regulation] on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?

To address these questions, I designed an empirical study investigating second language motivation in adult ESL students in college ESL classes. Only students enrolled

in an ESL course at the time of the study participated. The student participants answered a demographic questionnaire, responded to four questionnaires concerning the variables of interest: (1) eliciting their attitudes towards the target language culture and native speakers of the target language, (2) assessing their levels of autonomous regulation, (3) regarding their perceptions of the type and amount of culture taught in the classroom, (4) eliciting students' perceptions of the behaviors of their teachers in regards to the autonomous supportive behavior of their teachers, and answer one questionnaire measuring the outcome variable of persistence. The students were also given a questionnaire on English exposure outside the classroom.

The participating teachers answered questions on three separate questionnaires: a demographic questionnaire, a questionnaire about their perceptions of their own autonomy-supportive behaviors, and one questionnaire regarding the type and amount of culture they taught in the classroom during the semester of this study. On the questionnaire about culture, teachers were asked about their opinion on the value of teaching the L2 culture an L2 class, the amount, type, and intentionality of the TL culture they taught, as well as the quality of the TL taught in the text books for the course.

It was originally proposed that the study should include observation of instruction in the ESL classes using an observation protocol created from the questionnaire on the amount of culture being taught. A protocol was then derived from the questionnaires on culture given to both students and teachers. It was intended to contribute to the richness of the data gathered, providing a fuller picture than might be reported by the students and teachers. When it was conceived of, it was thought that perhaps at most six classes of

students would participate. However, when the number increased to thirteen it became infeasible for resources available for this study. Thus, when the study commenced, the observation protocol was not part of the data collection instrumentation.

This study used confirmatory structural equation modeling to test theoretical models, consisting of both latent and manifest variables, in which autonomous regulation (motivation) is a mediating variable (see Figure1 and Figure 2 in Chapter 1).

Setting

The research took place at two public educational institutions, which conduct ESL instruction for adults; both are large colleges in the mid-Atlantic area. Due to the large number of students needed for the study, the study was conducted on more than one campus.

Participants

The participants were all volunteers. The student volunteers were adult ESL students, 18 years and older, enrolled in intermediate and advanced ESL courses. They came from many different countries and have different native languages. The primary language groups represented are Korean, Vietnamese, Spanish, Mandarin, Cantonese, Turkish, and Arabic. Due to the culturally mixed nature of the ESL classes and the large number of student participants needed, there were not enough potential volunteers to select a group from just one native language background. Tables 1 and 2 present selected characteristics of the students involved in the study. Table 10 in Appendix H provides further information on student characteristics.

Table 1

Student Demographics at Baseline and Study Completion

Group	Sex	n	Age Group in Years	n	Native Language	N
Baseline	Male	82	18-23	96	Amharic	1
	Female	84	24-29	45	Arabic	34
			30+	25	Azerbaijan	1
					Cantonese	1
					Chinese*	20
					French	6
					Indonesian	1
					Japanese	1
					Kazakh	1
					Korean	55
					Laotian	1
					Mongolian	2
					Nepali	1
					Romanian	1
					Russian	4
					Serbian	1
					Spanish	8
					Tajik	1
					Thai	3
					Turkish	6
					Vietnamese	17
					* The students wrote in the name of the language. They were not asked to specify.	
Total		166		166		169
Completion	Male	33	18-23	40	Arabic	12
	Female	46	24-29	26	Cantonese	1
			30+	13	Chinese*	10
					French	3
					Kazakh	1
					Korean	30
					Laotian	1
					Nepali	1
					Russian	1
					Serbian	1
					Spanish	4
					Tajik	1
					Thai	2
					Turkish	3
					Vietnamese	8
					* The students wrote in the name of the language. They were not asked to specify.	
Total		79		79		82

Table 2

Student Demographics at Baseline and Study Completion

Group	Visa Type	N	Number of Months in the USA	n		Studied a Foreign Language in addition to English	n	N
Baseline	Christian	49	Temporary	165	2-6	55	Yes	86
	Muslim	46	Permanent	4	7-12	61		80
	Buddhist	21			13-24	33	No	
	No Religion	41			24+	16		
	Unsure	6						
Total		163		169		165		166
Completion	Christian	25	Temporary	78	2-6	26	Yes	38
	Muslim	17	Permanent	0	7-12	35		41
	Buddhist	12			13-24	12	No	
	No Religion	20			24+	6		
	Unsure	3						
Total		77		78		79		79

The teacher volunteers were solicited first. Then, students currently enrolled in their respective speaking and listening classes were invited to participate. Thus, the teachers in this study were teaching the students in this study at the time the study was conducted. They are experienced ESL teachers who possess a master's degree in TESL/TESOL or a related field. Thirteen teachers began the study, however only six teachers had both teacher and student data at the completion of the study.

Studying English in the United States is likely to have a different influence on the motivation of students who are planning to immigrate to the United States or who have already immigrated, than it is for international students who will be returning to their

countries at the end of their coursework. The non-immigrant students are primarily F1 visa holders. I have observed in my twelve years of teaching ESL to students with backgrounds similar to those in this study, that students studying on visas are not all students who are highly motivated to learn English, as is often assumed. Without the benefit of a formal study, I would estimate that a quarter of the students are motivated to learn English purely from a desire to learn the language. Possibly, half are here to learn English, because it might help them get into college here or in their home country, or get a better job, and they think it will be better to study here rather than at home, if only because it is more interesting for them to go abroad. The remaining quarter is likely not here studying English of their own volition; some did not have scores high enough for entry into a college or university back home. For the students who come to study English because their parents want them to, being here is a bit of a punishment. Unfortunately, this information was not included on the demographics questionnaire and not discovered by this study.

The visa holding students also generally do not interact with the wider American culture around them, as is also often assumed, unless ordering a hamburger and fries at McDonald's counts for cultural engagement. I would not consider eating out at McDonald's cultural engagement; after all, most of them had already done that in their home country before coming here. The entirety of cultural engagement for most of these students consists of eating out, at mostly fast-food restaurants, going shopping, and going to the movies. These activities require very little English, in fact sometimes none at all in this very international region, little engagement, and they are often done with students

who come from the same country or who share the same native language. Therefore, the student demographic questionnaire in this study asks for the student's visa information in an effort to ascertain which students at the time of the study have not immigrated, nor are in the process of immigration, and which students have immigrated.

Measures

There are seven student questionnaires. One questionnaire gathered demographic data. It has questions about gender, nationality, age, legal status (e.g. type of visa), first language, number of years studying first language, number of years studying English, L2 (English) age of onset, length of residence, previous residence in a TL country, previous history of native TL instructors, other L2's, age of onset for first L2, and religion. Three questionnaires, with four scales total, will measure the three antecedents to motivation being studied: students' perceptions of teacher classroom behaviors (autonomy-supportive and culture teaching), attitudes toward native speakers and L2 culture. There is one questionnaire assessing the theoretical construct of motivation, autonomous regulation (SDT) and one questionnaire about the type and amount of exposure to English that the student experiences on average. Finally, one questionnaire elicited student self-perceptions of their effort expended in their L2 education during the semester being studied and their intentions for future L2 study (intended effort). Persistence is one of two criterion measures in this study.

Demographics. This questionnaire will begin with common demographic questions, such as gender, age, and nationality. It will then progress to second language acquisition (SLA) related questions. Because there are many variables that contribute to

learning in general, and SLA in particular, it is important to try to account for as many variables as possible. The questions come from common criteria used in SLA research; questions gathering data such as present level of ESL course enrollment, age of onset for their first L2, previous residence in an L2 country, and previous history of native L2 instructors. This information shed light on differences found among the students. For example, students who began to learn English before puberty may have more native like abilities in the language. Just as students who lived previously in an English speaking country or had native English speaking teachers in previous times of instruction, might have an advantage over students who had not. While such demographic data is common in SLA research from the linguistics field, they have been largely absent from reports of research coming from the fields of social and educational psychology.

Religion was also included, though largely absent from L2 research. We, in the United States, live in a culture that publicly shuns the discussion of religion, particularly in academic circles. However, it is a key element in culture and identity, one that crosses national boundaries and extends beyond familial cultural traditions, and there are many people groups around the world that see it as such and are much more open about it. Asking the students what country they are from tells me where they lived before coming to the United States. Students could be grouped by geographic region, as they often are. Yet, atheist students from China might have more in common with atheist students from Columbia than with Buddhist students from the same country, for example. This demographic data allowed for a more detailed look at the correlations, as needed. The questions from this questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Learning Climate Questionnaire (Autonomy Support). Previous research has shown that the autonomy-supportive behavior of the teacher in the classroom has positive on affects student motivation and behavior (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon, & Roth, 2005; Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006). The work of Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio, & Turner (2004) divides autonomy-supportive behaviors of teachers into three categories, organizational, procedural, and cognitive. Organizational autonomy-supportive behaviors would include for example letting students choose their own groups or seating arrangement. Procedural autonomy support could be, for example, students being allowed to choose how to display their work, or choosing how their competence in a task will be evaluated. Cognitive autonomy-support includes such behaviors as giving students ample time for decision-making, allowing students to debate ideas, and giving students informational feedback. This breakdown of the behaviors into types can be especially useful for instructing teachers in autonomy supportive behaviors or for a classroom observational protocol. However, the wording in the questionnaire for this study seeks more to ascertain the students over all perception of these behaviors. For example, "*My instructor handles people's emotions very well. I feel that my instructor cares about me as a person*." There were also some more specific ones such as, "*My instructor made sure I really understood the goals of the course and what I need to do. My instructor encouraged me to ask questions*."

Conversely to supportive behaviors, controlling behaviors, or behaviors that suppress autonomy are negatively correlated with desirous student motivation and behavior. Since teacher behaviors are strongly related to student motivation (Assor et al.

2005) and behaviors (Assor et al., 2002), it is important to include a measure of teacher autonomy-supportive behavior, such as the Learning Climate Questionnaire. When the Learning Climate Questionnaire was employed in the Black and Deci (2000) study, it had a reliability coefficient of .93. The measure consists of one scale that includes fifteen questions. The questions are measured on a seven-point Likert scale. The scale is more extensive than is perhaps needed for this study; however, it was used in totality to preserve the integrity of the scale.

This questionnaire was given to students in order to ascertain their perceptions of the autonomy-supportive behaviors of their teachers. There were no changes made to the student questionnaire. The teachers responded to a modified version of the questionnaire as to their perceptions of their own autonomy-supportive behaviors. The questions from both the student and teacher questionnaires can be found in Appendix B.

Scoring. Scores on the 15-item questionnaire is calculated by averaging the individual item scores. Before averaging the item scores, you must first "reverse" the score of item 13 (i.e., subtract the score on item 13 from 8 and use the result as the item score for this item--for example, the score of 3, when reversed would become 5). Higher average scores represent a higher level of perceived autonomy support. (Deci, & Ryan, n.d.).

Student and teacher perceptions of teaching culture. This measure is designed to discover the perceptions students have of the type and amount of instruction their teachers presented on the L2 culture. The measure used in this study is a modified version of a self-evaluative questionnaire given to teachers in the Stapleton (2000) study of

English-as-a-foreign-language teachers in Japan. The original study consisted of fourteen questions. For this study they have been paired down to eight for both the student and teacher questionnaires and re-written from the student perspective for the student questionnaire. For example, the teachers were asked, “Do you include cultural information about your native country or English language culture in your country?” The students were asked, “Did your teacher include information on English language culture?” The questions use a seven-point Likert scale for student answers. Some of the questions are matched with open-ended questions that allowed students to write in their own answers if they chose. These questions elicit examples from the students about material that their teachers taught, if it was present; “Can you give an example?” One new question has been added, “What type of instruction on English language culture did you or would you enjoy having?” There were no reliability coefficients reported on the original measure (Stapleton, 2000). However, this original measure was nonetheless selected as a model from which to write the questions for the students because it had been used before in a published study in a reputable journal. The questions from both the student and teacher questionnaires can be found in Appendix C.

Attitudes toward TL native speakers and TL culture. This questionnaire is a combination of two scales, cultural interest and attitudes toward L2 community, used in Taguchi et al. (2009) and consists of eight questions. Combining the two scales results in fewer questions than were used in the measure used in the work of Gardner and associates (1985) without sacrificing reliability. The attitudinal items had Cronbach’s alpha scores of .86, .76, and .76 for studies done in Japan, China, and Iran, respectively.

An example of an attitudinal question is, “Do you like to travel to English speaking countries?” The cultural items had alpha scores of .77, .67, and .76, for studies done in Japan, China, and Iran respectively. An example of a cultural question is, “Do you like the music of English speaking countries (e.g. pop music)?” The questions from this measure are presented in Appendix D.

LLOS-IEA (Autonomous Regulation). The LLOS-IEA is an adaptation of the Academic Motivation Scale for the L2 context (Noels et al., 2000). The LLOS-IEA has been used in previous research and is thought to be valid and statistically reliable. The scale is designed to assess the types of motivation conceptualized by the SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000): “Amotivation, the three types of external motivation, including external, introjected, and identified regulation, and the three types of intrinsic motivation, including Knowledge, Mastery (Accomplishment), and Stimulation” (Noels et al., 2000). The different sub-scales were maintained in the questionnaire used in this study in order to add to the richness of the data gathered. The external, introjected, and identified regulations subscales consist of three items. The intrinsic motivation subscale contains nine items and the Amotivation subscale contains only two items. For the purposes of this study the intrinsic motivation (alpha = .86) sub-scale will be collapsed with the sub-scale for identified regulation (alpha = .78) to form a single measure of autonomous regulation (Deci, & Ryan, n.d.). In motivation research these sub-scales are argued to be along a continuum of autonomous regulation (Ryan, & Deci, 2000). Two sub-scales that are of lesser concern to this study, external (alpha = .75) and introjected (alpha = .57) regulation are collapsed into a single category of controlled regulation. Amotivation (alpha = .79) is

identified with behavior that is absent of motivation (Deci, & Ryan, n.d.) and thus will remain a separate sub-scale. The reliability coefficients reported are from the study by Noels et al. (2001). In the actual questionnaire given to students, the students did not see the sub-scale headings and the questions were not presented in scale order.

It is evident from reading the original scales that they were written for native English speakers outside of the United States of America. They are understandable to native English speakers within the United States of America, though the wording is not natural. However, a larger potential limitation of the scales for this study is that they were not written with L2 speakers of English in mind. Thus when administering the questionnaire, it was important for me to be available to explain the statements to the participants and to answer any further questions. It was also useful for me to take notes on the statements that the students had trouble with in order to make edits for use in future studies. The questions for this measure are presented in Appendix E.

Persistence. The persistence questionnaire solicited student self-perceptions of their effort expended in their L2 education during the semester being studied and their intentions for future L2 study (intended effort). Persistence is one of two criterion measures in this study. The questions for this measure are presented in Appendix F.

The questions that were most representative of the measure in the final analysis were the following: *I am prepared to spend a lot of effort in learning English, even when it is difficult. I am prepared to spend a lot of effort in learning English, even when class is boring. If my teacher would give the class an optional volunteer assignment, I would certainly volunteer to do it. I would like to study English even if it were not required.*

When I have access to English-speaking TV stations and movies, I try to watch them often. Effort in the face of boring or difficult learning situations is key to achievement. Certainly in every learning situation there will be times where the lesson is boring or difficult. Only those students willing to make the effort to persist through those times will succeed. Additionally the other three questions point towards a willingness to work on learning English outside of what is required in the class. Considering that research by Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Römer (1993) supports the theory that consistent, deliberate practice is a better indicator of future skill than early indicators of inherent talent, and that it can take approximately 10 years for someone to develop expertise in a skill, in this case the language proficiency of an average adult, native speaker. This kind of long-term practice is important for building a strong base of knowledge and skill while minimizing the possibility of the student becoming burnt-out and quitting. While it may not seem as important to some people in the short term, and may not be as glamorous to present as achievement scores might be, in the long term it is a much more important indicator of success.

As an outcome variable, especially the only outcome variable, it is important that the data be valid and reliable, not just statistically, but also in the content and administration of the questionnaire. There are both advantages and disadvantages to using self-report questionnaires. Many of the disadvantages can be overcome or at least mediated by careful design of the study, questionnaires, and administration of the questionnaires. Thus I must agree with psychiatrists such as Harre´ (1974) and Kelly (1955), for example, that participants should be given the opportunity to express their

own views (as cited in Barker, Pistrang, & Elliott, 2003), "unless there are compelling reasons not to do so". (p. 2) Self-report answers provide information that cannot be otherwise obtained and are thus invaluable to many studies.

Ericsson & Simon (as cited in Barker et al., 2003) argue having limits to the method does not invalidate the data; though it might mean the data cannot be trusted in some circumstances. All methods of inquiry have limitations. Those limitations should be considered when constructing the study, particularly when selecting variables and measurement tools and as well when analyzing and interpreting the data.

Bias is one of the disadvantages to self-report. There are three types of bias that could be a potential limitation, social desirability bias, interviewer bias, and acquiescence bias. Social desirability bias occurs when respondents answer in a way that they perceive will put them in a better light. Interviewer bias is similar, but the respondents are concerned with the good opinion of the interviewer, perhaps due to the position, personality or looks of the interviewer. Acquiescence bias occurs when saying yes seems easier to the respondent than saying no. In a review of 73 papers, Bowling (2005) found that self-administration of the questionnaires greatly minimizes the possibility of these biases occurring by minimizing the role of the researcher and increasing the privacy of the participant. Self-administration also improves the likelihood of respondents being willing to divulge sensitive information (Bowling, 2005).

Exposure to English outside of class. This questionnaire was designed for this study. There was not a pilot test for this measure. It asks the students questions about the

amount and type of exposure they have to English outside of class, on average. An example question is, "Outside of class, I watch English TV programs _." The time choices the students have to select among for each item are daily, weekly, bi-weekly, and monthly. The data gathered from this questionnaire will act as a control in the study, as needed. The questions from this measure are presented in Appendix G.

Oral exam. Every student must take an oral exam one time before entering a course and then once again in order to receive full credit for finishing a course. Thus, the typical student will have two exam scores, for which a gain score can be calculated. The exams given at the different points in time are not the same exam, but have the same design and assess the same skills. Efforts are made to ensure the students do not get the same exam twice. Faculty members who are familiar with the different proficiency requirements of the various course levels administer the oral exam. For new students, only one faculty typically evaluates the oral exam. The end-of-the-semester exams have two faculty evaluators and their scores are summed for the total score. In standard practice, students are not evaluated on the end-of-the-semester exams by their current teacher. As often as possible, they are evaluated by faculty teaching at the next higher level. The exam consists of listening comprehension questions requiring verbal response from the students. There are different levels of comprehension questions within the exam. The questions are assigned point values based on difficulty. Students are placed based on their total exam score.

There are many people who view achievement scores to be a more valid indicator of student growth, than answers obtained from a self-report questionnaire such as the

persistence questionnaire used in this study. The variable of gain score was included in the study for that reason. Unfortunately, the gain scores that could be calculated were not able to be included in the study. Further discussion of the reasons for this can be found in the limitations section of chapter 5. The wording including gain scores in the study has been retained throughout this dissertation even though the scores were not used in the analysis.

Design

The Likert scales used in the questionnaires were all set to seven-point scales in order to provide consistency across the questionnaire and to minimize potential confusion that different scales might have caused. The optimum minimum range of a Likert scale is four and the optimum maximum is seven (Lozano, García-Cueto, & Muñiz 2008). The reliability and validity of the scale increases with the number of choices, though not at the same rate. While this is statistically sound, there is a potential issue of the weakness of the construct validity because it is responsive to changes in the number of choices (Lozano et al., 2008). Additionally, at some point between four and seven, there may be a trade-off with meaningfulness of the choices for the participant.

Table 3

Research Questions and Instruments Chart

Research Question	Measure
1. Do factors of TL culturally supportive classroom impact student attitudes towards native speakers of the target language and their culture?	* Attitudes Towards the Target Language Culture and Native Speakers of the Target Language * Teaching TL culture (student and teacher) * Autonomy support (student and teacher) * Autonomous Regulation scale (LLOS-IEA)
2. Do the classroom and attitudinal factors impact student autonomous regulation?	* Attitudes Towards the Target Language Culture and Native Speakers of the Target Language * Teaching TL culture (student and teacher) * Autonomy support (student and teacher) * Autonomous Regulation scale (LLOS-IEA) * Persistence questionnaire * Gain score
3. Does student autonomous regulation mediate the impact of classroom factors and student attitudes towards the TL culture & native speakers of the TL on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn a second language?	*Attitudes Towards the TL Culture and Native Speakers of the TL * Teaching TL culture (student and teacher) * Persistence questionnaire * Gain score
4. Do the classroom and attitudinal factors have direct effects [independent of student autonomous regulation] on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn a second language?	* Attitudes Towards the Target Language Culture and Native Speakers of the Target Language * Teaching TL culture (student and teacher) * Autonomy support (student and teacher) * Attitudes Towards the TL Culture and Native Speakers of the TL * Teaching TL culture (student and teacher) * Autonomous Regulation scale (LLOS-IEA) * Persistence questionnaire * Gain score

Data Collection Procedures

Four of the seven student questionnaires were given at the beginning of the semester: demographic, attitudes toward the target language culture and native speakers, persistence, and autonomous regulation. The beginning-of-semester questionnaires were administered class by class, during scheduled class time, to all the participating students. I was present to explain the questionnaires and to answer student questions. Because the questionnaire was administered during class time, students who chose to not participate were offered a self-contained lesson to work on appropriate to the level at which they were studying which could be completed during the time allotted for the questionnaires. The questionnaires measuring student attitudes, persistence, and autonomous regulation was administered at the beginning of the semester and again at the end of the semester to provide for a more comprehensive analysis of the change that is likely to take place in the course of the semester and to approximate as much as possible a longitudinal study. The remaining two questionnaires about teacher behaviors were only given at the end of the semester. The questionnaire about the students' exposure to English outside the classroom was also only given at the end of the semester. The questionnaires given to the student participants at the end of the semester were administered online, so as to not take more than one class time. This reduced the amount of classroom disruption (Minimal class disruption encouraged teachers to agree to open the opportunity for their students to participate in the study.) and allowed the students to participate during subsequent semesters in a second extended longitudinal study as recommended by Noels (personal communication, March 7, 2010). It would be interesting to administer all of the

questionnaires at three points in time to compare the data points. However, the study covers a relatively short period of time, one semester, and it would probably be too much exposure to the questionnaires for the students. In addition, it would create an unnecessary burden on the students and the teachers while providing limited benefit.

Oral exam scores were obtained from one of the two ESL programs after the end of the semester. The second ESL program never replied to the email requesting the scores. There are two scores for each student. There is one score from an exam taken before the beginning of the semester and one score from the end of the semester exam. The gain score is calculated from the difference between the first exam and the second exam. For most students the pre-semester exam took place one to four weeks prior to the beginning of the current semester of the study.

Students and teachers were informed that their participation was at all times voluntary. Both students and teachers could choose to not answer any question they were uncomfortable with. The data from all of the questionnaires, both student and teacher, in addition to the scores have been kept confidential. All potential participants were told what their participation would entail before they were asked to sign informed consent papers. All participants received a copy of the informed consent for their own records. The signed consent from student volunteers indicated authorization of the college to release their oral exam scores for use in the study.

Data Analysis

The models in this study consist of both latent and manifest variables. Therefore, confirmatory structural equation modeling was used to test the fit of the models in which

autonomous regulation (motivation) is a mediating variable. SEM is growing in popularity across disciplines and especially in the social sciences (Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen, 2008), where latent variables are common. The use of SEM helps account for some of the error that occurs naturally with measuring latent variables. SEM also provides the advantage of being able to test a model's overall versus individual co-efficient (Sudano, n.d.). Further advantage to using SEM is the ability to include mediating variables in a model and measure direct as well as indirect effects (Sudano, n.d.). Thus, I can study the relationships among the antecedents to motivation, motivation, and the criterion, or outcome variables, all at the same time. This is modeled in Figure 1 and Figure 2 (see Chapter 1).

Reliability of Questionnaires and Item Reduction. A large sample size (usually $N > 200$) is recommended for SEM (Kline, 2005). This study did not reach that number at either the baseline data collection or the end of semester data collection. Thus, due to the smaller sample size, particularly at the second time point, it was necessary to reduce the number of items comprising the variables. The number of items on the questionnaires ranged from 9 to 18. The number of recommended ratio of parameters to sample size is 5 to 1 (Bentler & Chou, 1987). Thus, it was advisable to reduce the number of items prior to conducting the SEM.

To do so, I began by conducting confirmatory factor analysis[3] (CFA) on the five independent variables individually. The first CFA for each variable was run with all of

[3] The factor analysis and SEM were conducted using Mplus 6 software for Mac. Other quantitative analyses, such as correlations, were done using SPSS for Mac 18.0

the items. The goal was to reduce the number of items to five items for each of the variables. The fit was expected to be good since most of the questionnaires had been used and validated in previous research. If the initial goodness of fit indicators suggested a poor fit, then I ran descriptive analyses for kurtosis and skewness on each measure in order to check for normality. The default in Mplus assumes the items to be continuous variables. A poor fit indicates that the data should be checked for normality (A. N. Pala, personal communication, April 10, 2014). When an item is shown to not meet the assumption of normality it is necessary to identify it as a categorical item in the Mplus syntax.

The items were selected based on item total correlation. The five items with the highest correlation were selected. If the measure had a poor fit with the items reduced to five, the next step was to check the modification indices for covariance. The modification indices were set in the model to 3.84. However, large modification indices >10 were selected first.

Research Question 1. *Do factors of TL culturally supportive classrooms impact student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and their culture?*

Past L2 research on student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and their culture support the relationship between attitudes and autonomous regulation proposed in the models. However, the literature provides no historical relationship between the level of classroom support for learning about the TL culture and student attitudes. Therefore, the purpose of this question is to test the fit of data to the proposed relationship in the model.

Research Question 2. *Do the classroom and attitudinal factors impact student autonomous regulation?*

The effect of teacher-based autonomy support on student autonomous regulation is supported by previous research, as is student attitudes. However, the literature provides no historical relationship between the level of classroom support for learning about the TL culture and student autonomous regulation. Therefore, the purpose of this question is to test the fit of data to the proposed relationship in the model.

Research Question 3. *Does student autonomous regulation mediate the impact of classroom factors and student attitudes towards TL culture and native speakers of the TL on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?*

Question 3 asks about a more complex relationship among the variables. The model for question 3 can be seen in Figure 1, in Chapter1. The question proposes that the role of autonomous regulation is such that the effect of the other latent variables on persistence would be greater mediated through student autonomous regulation than on their own in a direct effect. This is based on the literature review for this study. However, there is an absence of literature regarding teaching about the TL culture and people in the classroom and a relationship with student autonomous regulation.

Research Question 4. *Do the classroom and attitudinal factors have direct effects [independent of student autonomous regulation] on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?*

Though the literature supports a mediating role for autonomous regulation on the effect of the other latent variables, it is prudent to test for direct effects as well (D. M.

Dimitrov, personal communication, December 15, 2010). The model for question 4 can be seen in Figure 2, in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter describes and summarizes the results of the data analyses discussed in Chapter 3 selected to answer the research questions of this study. The results are presented in two sections. First, descriptive statistics of demographics and confirmatory factor analysis results (CFA) of the variables are presented and second, an examination of the results providing answers to the research questions and the analysis of the two models (see Figure 1 and Figure 2). The analysis of the variable teaching TL culture in the classroom did not confirm any relationship to the other variables in the study. However, autonomy-supportive behaviors of teachers in the classroom had very good statistically significant effects on student attitudes, autonomous regulation, and persistence. Student attitudes also had a statistically significant effect on autonomous regulation. A more detailed look at these results follows.

The overarching purpose of the analysis was to evaluate the fit of the data collected for this study with the two models created for the study. CFA were run to test the data fit using the Mplus statistical software. This is typical in the context of SEM (D. M. Dimitrov, Personal communication, March 25, 2014). The model fit was evaluated based on an inferential goodness-of-fit index that is consisted of the *chi-square value*, *standardized root mean square residual* (SRMR), *root mean square error of approximation* (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), *comparative fit index* (CFA; Bentler, 1990), and

Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (Tucker & Lewis, 1973). The chi-square alone cannot provide sufficiently valid evidence for model fit because it is strongly influenced by the size of the sample (Dimitrov, 2012)[4]. Thus, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend that a joint evaluation of several descriptive fit indices be used in the assessment of the model fit. A reasonable good fit is supported when the following fit criteria are met: SRMR ≤ .08, RMSEA ≤ .06, CFI ≥ .95, and TLI ≥ .95 (1999).

RMSEA is a powerful statistic due its sensitivity to the number of estimated parameters in the model. This sensitivity is useful in determining a parsimonious model (Hooper et al., 2008). The number of recommended ratio of parameters to sample size is 5 to 1 (Bentler & Chou, 1987). Small sample sizes and low *degrees of freedom* (df) can be problematic with RMSEA. For example, "a chi square of 2.098 (a value not statistically significant), with a df of 1 and N of 70 yields an RMSEA of .126" (Kenny, 2014, RMSEA para 2). In recent years the criteria has become more stringent. Up to the mid 1990's a fit between .05 and .10 was a fair fit (MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara, 1996). However, currently a stringent upper limit of .07 is acceptable (Steiger, 2007). This is relevant to this study since the sample size used for the model is 41. While perhaps not as powerful as RMSEA, CFI and TLI do not vary much with sample size, which makes them very important to studies with very large or small sample size such as this one.

[4] The larger the sample size is, the smaller the p value and thus the increased likelihood of artificially indicating a rejection of the model. The reverse is also true resulting in artificial support of the model.

CFA Results

As discussed in Chapter 3, the first CFA for each variable was run with all of the items. One of the goals of the CFA's was to reduce the number of items to five items for each of the variables. The fit was expected to be good since most of the questionnaires had been used and validated in previous research. The retained items were selected based on their factor loadings, item total correlation. The five items with the highest correlation were selected. If the measure had a poor fit with the items reduced to five, the next step was to check the modification indices for covariance and add any necessary statements of covariance to the Mplus syntax.

Teacher-based Autonomy Support (Learning Climate Questionnaire). This questionnaire was designed to gauge the students' experiences with their instructors in their classes. The students answered 15 questions regarding their teacher's style and skill in dealing with student questions and feelings, for example. The reliability statistics for all 15 items were very good. The Cronbach's alpha was .921 and all items had factor loadings of .521 and over.

In the CFA, using Mplus, the five items that were retained were confirmed to load on only one factor. They had a Cronbach's alpha of .898. They were all positive and all factor loadings were over .710. After confirming that the items were all the same direction the item was averaged. The modindices indicated that items 11 and 12 were covariates. That relationship was added to the CFA syntax model. The measure had a good fit with the five retained items ($\chi^2 = 3.005$, $df = 4$, $p = .5570$, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.044).

The items that were retained meaningfully represented the latent variable. They are listed below (see Appendix B, for the entire measure).

1. My instructor made sure I really understood the goals of the course and what I need to do.
2. My instructor encouraged me to ask questions.
3. My instructor answers my questions fully and carefully.
4. My instructor handles people's emotions very well.
5. I feel that my instructor cares about me as a person.

Teaching about the Target Language Culture. This instrument was modified from a survey designed for English as a Foreign Language teachers (Stapleton, 2000). There was no validity or reliability data for this measure prior to this study. The measure, as administered, was comprised of 9 items (see Appendix C for item wording). Two of the items were open-ended questions asking for examples of the type of culture taught in class. Answers from these questions were not analyzed for this study. They were used, however, as a quick check to confirm that the students understood what teaching culture meant in terms of the questionnaire. Additionally, since this measure is new to this study I had intended to retain all of the remaining 6 items. However, the initial Cronbach's alpha was only .685 and question number 6 had a factor loading of only .269. Therefore, it was removed. The resulting Cronbach's alpha was improved to .722 and all factor loadings of the retained five items were positive and greater than or equal to .362. Question number 6 that was removed was the one question that dealt least directly with

teaching the TL culture. It reads, "Does your teacher compare the English language culture with your culture."

Attitudes towards the TL Culture and Native Speakers of the TL. This measure had 15 items All 15 items are presented in Appendix D. The Cronbach's alpha for the complete measure and for the reduced items at both the baseline and completion of the study are in Table 4. Items 4, 11, 12, 13, and 14 were retained for both baseline and completion of study the goodness of fit for the CFA's are $\chi^2 = 2.273$, $df = 3$, $p = .5177$, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.006 and $\chi^2 = 10.081$, $df = 5$, $p = .0730$, RMSEA = .154, CFI = 0.982, TLI = 0.964 respectively. The modification indices for the baseline indicated covariance between items 11 and 12 and also between items 12 and 14. The completion of the study data did not have the same level of goodness of fit as the baseline. However, no covariance was indicated that could have been added.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics for Full and Reduced Items for Attitudes towards TL Culture

Attitudes	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-total Correlation	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-total Correlation
Baseline	1-16	.773	All positive [a] ≥ .408 [b]	4, 11, 12, 13, 14	.785	All positive ≥ .486
Completion	1-16	.929	All positive ≥ .665 [c]	4, 11, 12, 13, 14	.890	All positive ≥ .622

Note: [a] At the baseline, items 15 and 16 were negative and had [b] factor loadings of -.280 and -.475 respectively. [c] Items 15, and 16 were .072 and .024 respectively and did not load on this factor.

Autonomous Regulation (LLOS-IEA). This was the longest and most complex of the measures. It was written with 5 subscales, amotivation, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation (for measure items, see Appendix E). However, for this study the subscales of identified regulation and intrinsic motivation were collapsed into one, autonomous regulation.[5] The Cronbach's alpha for the complete measure and for the reduced items at both the baseline and completion of the study are in Table 5.

Table 5

Reliability Statistics for Full and Reduced Items for Autonomous Regulation (LLOS-IEA)

Autonomous Regulation	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-total Correlation	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-total Correlation
Baseline	1-18	.834	All positive ≥ .343 [a]	3, 13, 15, 17, 18	.8051	All positive ≥ .510
Completion	1-18	.847	All positive [b] ≥ .321 [c]	3, 13, 15, 17, 18	.816	All positive ≥ .565

Note: [a] At the baseline, items 6 and 12 did not load on the overall factor. These two items represent amotivation. The loadings were -.124 and .016 respectively. [b] At study completion items 6 and 12 again did not load on the overall factor, confirming that they represent amotivation. [c] Item 6 = .026 and item 12 = -.032

All 5 items that were retained, based on their factors loadings in the CFA, were from the original intrinsic motivation subscale. The model fit for the CFA was $\chi^2 = 8.755$, $df = 5$, $p = .1193$, RMSEA = .072, CFI = 0.983, TLI = 0.965 and $\chi^2 = 2.391$, $df = 4$, $p =$

[5] A more detailed explanation of this can be found in the measurement section for LLOS in Chapter 3.

.6643, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.024 for the baseline and study completion respectively. The model for the study completion included covariance for item 17 with item18. The baseline modification indices did not indicate any covariance for that model.

Persistence. This is the outcome variable for the study. This instrument had 10 items measuring student self-report on effort and intended effort (see Appendix F). The Cronbach's alpha for the complete measure and for the reduced items at both the baseline and completion of the study are in Table 6.

Table 6

Reliability Statistics for Full and Reduced Items for Persistence

Autonomous Regulation	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-total Correlation	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Corrected Item-total Correlation
Baseline	1-10	.742	All positive ≥ .315 [a]	3, 4, 5, 6, 8	.709	All positive ≥ .433
Completion	1-10	.882	All positive ≥ .527	3, 4, 5, 6, 8	.779	All positive ≥ .424

Note: [a] Item 9 had a loading of .249.

Exposure to English Outside of Class. This instrument was created for this study as a control. The reliability data was very poor for the measure. The items did not load the same direction as would be expected from the wording of the items. The Cronbach's alpha was .097. The results from this measure were not used in the data analysis for the overall model for the study. In addition to the data having poor fit, it was

not needed. Table 7 presents the factor loadings for this measure. The wording of the items is presented in Appendix G.

Table 7

Factor Loadings for Exposure to English Outside of Class

	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
EEOC1	.082	-.099[a]
EEOC2	-.051	-.066[a]
EEOC3	.038	-.098[a]
EEOC4	-.049	-.068[a]
EEOC5	.100	-.099[a]
EEOC6	-.049	-.067[a]
EEOC7	-.053	-.098[a]
EEOC8	.197	-.100[a]
EEOC9	.220	-.100[a]
EEOC10	-.080	-.022[a]

Note: a. The value is negative due to a negative average covariance among items. This violates reliability model assumptions.

Model Results

Towards the end of the process of running data analysis on the individual measures, it became clear that neither of the originally proposed models (see Figure 1 and Figure 2 in Chapter 1) could be run successfully due to the large number of items, even after being reduced to five items per measure, and small sample size at the completion of the study. For the 26 retained measure items to be used in an SEM model, I would have needed a sample of at least 130 students. Therefore it was decided that the averages of the responses should be used instead. The averages were computed using the items retained

after the CFA's (see Table in 11 Appendix I for a complete table of the retained items). Using the averages made it possible to bypass testing the more simplistic Model 1, and to begin with the more complex Model 2.

The results for model two indicated a misspecified relationship between teacher-based autonomy support and student attitudes. It also confirmed the prediction from Model 1, that there was no direct relationship between students' perceptions of the teaching of the TL culture and persistence, as proposed in Model 2. Therefore a third model was constructed.

In the third hypothesis model (see Figure 5), a relationship between teacher-based autonomy support and student attitudes, predicting an influence on student attitudes by teacher-based autonomy support, was added. This was confirmed by the data ($\beta = .250$, $p = .049$). The goodness of fit indices were very good for this model ($\chi^2 = 4.561$, $df = 7$, $p = .7133$, RMSEA = .000, CFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.103, SRMR = .044). The standardized and unstandardized factor loadings for direct effects on persistence are located in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Standardized and Unstandardized factor Loadings for Direct Effects on Persistence

Variable	β	*SE*	*P*	*B*	*SE*	*P*
Student Attitudes	.066	.086	.654	.055	.089	.655
Autonomy Support	.500	.085	.000	.489	.093	.000
Teaching TL Culture	.118	.096	.202	.147	.136	.216
Autonomous Regulation	.204	.112	.120	.181	.139	.107

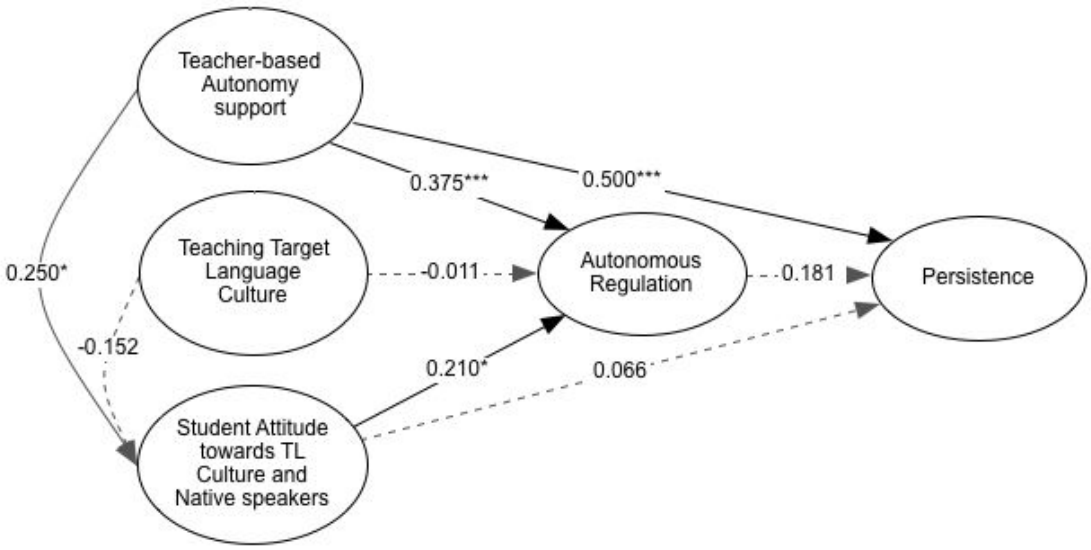

Figure 5. Model 3 Results

Because the Model 3 results failed to confirm a predicted effect of student attitudes on persistence, I looked at the baseline data to see if it might be a result of the large attrition of students from the beginning of the study to the end. The mini baseline

model constructed from the data in the analysis run for Model 3 (see Figure 5), confirm a significant effect of student attitudes on both student autonomous regulation (β = .401, *p* = .002) and persistence (β = .278, *p* = .038). However the baseline data did not support either a mediating or a direct relationship with student autonomous regulation and persistence (mediating: β = .040, *p* = .529, direct: β = .100, *p* = .525, see Figure 6 and Table 9).

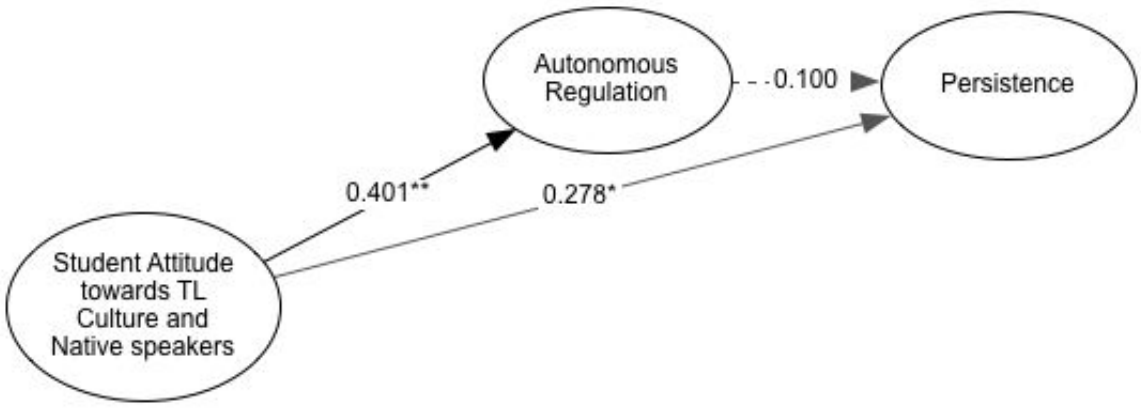

Figure 6. Baseline Model Results

Table 9

Standardized and Unstandardized Factor Loadings for Direct Effects on Persistence at Baseline Time

Variable	β	*SE*	*P*	*B*	*SE*	*P*
Student Attitudes	.278	.134	.038	.202	.090	.025
Autonomous Regulation	.100	.157	.525	.077	.124	.534

Results Research Question 1

RQ1: Do factors of TL culturally supportive classrooms impact student attitudes towards native speakers of the TL and their culture?

The native English speaking ESL teachers are representatives of the TL (English) culture. Whether they teach about the TL culture well, poorly, or not at all could be expected to have an impact on the students' attitudes towards the TL people and culture. However, the data did not support this hypothesis. The students' attitudes on teaching the TL culture show an inverse relationship with a low and statistically insignificant correlation. The unstandardized regression coefficient = -.203, p = .110. The data did reveal a relationship between teacher-based autonomy support and student attitudes. The standardized results can be seen in Table 8 and the relationships are illustrated in Figure 5.

Results Research Question 2

RQ 2: Do the classroom and attitudinal factors impact student autonomous regulation?

Previous research, as discussed in Chapter 2, supports the proposed relationship between teacher-based autonomy support and students' autonomous regulation. This hypothesis was supported by the data. The unstandardized coefficient = .375, $p < .05$. The literature review did not reveal any research hypothesizing a relationship between teaching target language culture and students' autonomous regulation. It was included in the research question because the teacher behaviors in general are often related significantly to student autonomous regulation. When it was added to the model it

improved the model fit. However, the data showed the relationship to be slight and insignificant. The unstandardized coefficient = -.011, p = .935.

The attitudinal factor also impacts student autonomous regulation significantly (p < .05), but the relationship is not strong, unstandardized coefficient = .197. Table 8 can be examined for additional correlation statistics.

Results Research Question 3

RQ3: Does student autonomous regulation mediate the impact of classroom factors and student attitudes towards TL culture and native speakers of the TL on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?

In earlier research, autonomous regulation has been shown to mediate the relationship between attitudes and the outcome variable. However, in this study the mediation relationship was weak and was not statistically significant. The unstandardized specific indirect estimate was .036, p = .128.

Results Research Question 4

RQ4: Do the classroom and attitudinal factors have direct effects [independent of student autonomous regulation] on the students' speaking and listening gain scores and persistence to learn the TL?

Including direct effects of the classroom factors, teacher-based autonomy support and teaching the TL culture, and student attitudes towards the TL culture and native speakers improved the overall model fit. However, only teacher-based autonomy support had good and statistically significant results. The unstandardized regression coefficient

was .375, $p = < .05$. Standardized and unstandardized results of the variables that did not have direct effects are presented in table 8 along with the results for teacher-based autonomy support.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The primary objective of this study was to learn more about student attitudes toward the TL culture and native speakers of the language. Are they affected by elements in the classroom, particularly autonomy supportive behaviors of their teachers and the amount and type of TL culture taught by the teacher? Do more positive attitudes result in higher levels of autonomous regulation in regards to the L2? Does an increase in any of these factors have a positive effect on persistence?

These questions matter because attitudes, autonomous regulation, and persistence in particular are foundational to lifelong learning, and lifelong learning is an integral part of knowing and using an L2 throughout one's life. Even in one's native language there is always more to learn. The questions never stemmed from a desire to produce students with higher test scores, but rather to learn how we might support students in becoming lifelong learners. The answers to these questions are also important to guide decisions on questions of inclusion of culture in the ESL classroom.

This study grew from an interest in L2 motivation and how it relates to student attitudes towards the TL culture and people. An examination of the literature added variables and helped shape the questions, and those questions are important, but the discussion surrounding those questions is so much larger that it seemed best to organize the discussion of the study around the variables rather than the questions.

Teacher-Based Autonomy Support

This variable was added to the study due to the growing body of literature that show it plays a key role in developing self-regulation, or autonomous regulation. The strong direct effect it had on persistence (ß = .500, p = .000) and autonomous regulation (ß = .375, p = .000) were not surprising. However, it showed itself to be more than a supporting factor in L2 education. The data from this study demonstrated that of the variables studied, it played the key role in predicting the outcome variable of persistence. If you want your students to persist and be effortful in their L2 studies, you need to consider what kind of autonomy support they are receiving in the classroom.

Additionally, demonstrating an even greater role for autonomy support, there was an unexpected relationship discovered between autonomy support and student attitudes (ß = .250, p = .049). While not as strong as the other relationships, it was statistically significant.

Student Attitudes towards the TL culture and native speakers

It is not as popular today as it was a decade or two ago to study student attitudes towards the TL culture or natives speakers, especially in regards to English. There are a number of world languages, however, English as perhaps the leading world language, is often singled out for changes in the way we approach teaching it. One of the current movements is to make excellent non-native pronunciation the standard for learners, rather than working towards a perhaps unattainable goal of native-like pronunciation. Another movement is to detach it from the English culture and instead focus on the cultures in which it is being used and taught, in regards to the international arena.

Thus, it is important to highlight that in this study, for this group of international students in the mid-Atlantic, on temporary visas to study, attitudes towards the TL culture and native speakers was still relevant. Student attitudes had a direct effect on persistence to study the language (ß = .278, p = .038) at the baseline. This effect was not seen at the time of completion, though it was predicted based on past research. It is probable that the effect was diminished by the smaller sample size at the time of study completion.

Student attitudes also had a positive, direct effect on autonomous regulation (ß = .197, p = .026). These results are at least enough to inform researchers that the TL culture and native speakers are not only of historical importance. Examination of the wording of the items for this questionnaire, listed below, that had the highest factor loadings on the variable gives even more credence to the continued role of the TL culture and native speakers. *Do you think that it is important to learn English in order to learn more about the culture and arts of its speakers? In general, do you like the people of the United States? Do you think that English-speaking countries (besides the USA) have an important role in the world? Do you think that the United States has an important role in the world? Do you like meeting people from English-speaking countries? Would you like to know more about people from English-speaking countries?*

Autonomous Regulation (LLOS-IEA)

Even though the importance of autonomous regulation has been well established in earlier research, this study failed to find a significant relationship with persistence, the outcome variable. This difference in result might be due to the difference in sample size in this study versus earlier studies. The demographic differences in the population could

also be responsible for the unpredicted lack of mediation. The students in this study are predominantly foreign students with temporary visas studying in an English speaking country. The samples in previous research were mostly students studying an L2 in their home country. Some of the earlier research was with students studying in the TL country, but who were citizens, residents, or intended residents of the TL country.

Teaching TL Culture

This was a key variable in the conception and construction of this study; however, the data did not reveal any statistically significant relationships between this variable and the other variables in the study. The questionnaire that was used had only been used in one study previously. It was used in a foreign language study context and was written for teachers. There was no reliability or validity data available for it. The reliability data from this study were fine, with a Cronbach's alpha of .722 and all items positive and ≥ .362 for the retained items. Having established a continued role for the TL culture in ESL instruction, it is important to study further the kind of instruction on the TL culture is being given in the classroom and students' perceptions about it. However, it is unclear from just this one study if the teaching of the TL culture in the classroom has any effect on students' attitudes.

Listening Score

Obtaining two scores for each student proved to be more difficult than anticipated. As mentioned previously, one of the two ESL program administrations provided data for the students. One never did, even with follow-up. Of the students with

data, a surprisingly high number of the pre-semester scores were not 2-4 weeks prior to the semester of study as should be the norm, but 1-2 semesters before and sometimes longer. Another issue encountered with test scores was that of scores that could not be located. In some cases students used an English name instead of the name they enrolled with. In other cases it looked as though it was their given name, and they used the same name on all forms, but scores could not be located for them.

Study Attrition

Prior to the study commencement, I had not expected to get more than 100 student volunteers. To have gotten more than 150 was incredible to me. I did not expect so many willing participants. The unexpected participation difficulty was with the teachers. Perhaps half of the teachers were very willing to give some of their class time for the students to participate. Those same teachers also related to me that they prepared their students for my arrival to their class and encouraged them beforehand to participate. They also encouraged them to participate in the follow-up questionnaires at the conclusion of the semester, and gave them reminders. A couple even gave their students extra credit. Those classes had the highest rates of participation at the conclusion of the semester.

The other half of the teachers were either apathetically or seemingly begrudgingly participated and allowed me to come in and use part of their class time. Only 8 of 14 teachers completed the end of semester questionnaires. Putting this into the context of the teachers needing to only respond to two end of the semester questionnaires, compared with the students five, creates an even more apathetic picture of participation by teachers.

I think the large attrition of students from the study could be remedied by gathering all questionnaire data during class time. However, considering some teachers' lack of interest, I do not know if this would be possible. Yet, a number of the supportive teachers were surprised that I was not planning to return to their classes to administer the questionnaires to the students at the end of the semester. Had I anticipated such a high rate of attrition, and a willingness of some teachers to have me return to their classes, I would have written a plan to have two options to administer the questionnaires, either in class or online depending on the willingness of the teacher.

Implications for Education

Autonomy Support. There are many variables in education that teachers, administrators, and curriculum writers cannot directly effect. For example teachers cannot make their students want to study. ESL curriculum writers cannot make the students have more positive attitudes towards the TL culture and native speakers of the TL language. Thus when a variable that teachers, in this case, can control is identified to have a positive effect on student intent to persist in studying a TL then it is important to think through the implications.

Autonomy support was included in this study due to its already proven positive relationship to autonomous regulation (e.g., Black & Deci, 2000), which has been demonstrated in past research to have a strong correlation with student outcomes such as increases in autonomous regulation, perceived competence in the subject, interest/enjoyment of the subject, and decreases in anxiety during the semester (Black & Deci, 2000). While it was expected that autonomy support would be correlated, it was an

unexpected result that it turned out to be the strongest predictor of persistence (β = .500, p = .000). This should be good news for ESL teachers, because it is a variable that is largely in their control.

The five items from the questionnaire that were retained through the CFA are as follows: My instructor made sure I really understood the goals of the course and what I needed to do. My instructor encouraged me to ask questions. My instructor answers my questions fully and carefully. My instructor handles people's emotions very well. I feel that my instructor cares about me as a person.

Thus, it is important for ESL teachers to carefully explain the goals of the course and their expectations of their students, and to carefully answer their questions in full. It is also important for them to at the same time care about their students as people and strive to be a skillful manager of student emotions. However, there are two important things to be aware of. The students' perceptions of the teachers' behaviors may not be the same as the teachers' perceptions. In this study for example, four of the six teachers, with enough teacher and student data to evaluate, overestimated their supportiveness. One teacher under estimated, and one teacher very closely perceived their support at the same level as the students in that class. Thus, if you are a teacher who wants to support your students' persistence through autonomy support, then it might be beneficial to check in with your students at least once in the semester to find out what they think of your support. Or perhaps the administration could do this for teachers so that it could be anonymous on the students' part; freeing them to answer more openly.

The second thing to be aware of is the type of persistence that best represented the variable in this study is more closely related to life-long learning than it is to academic learning. This is very good for language study. Consider again the findings of Ericsson et al. (1993) that it can take approximately 10 years for someone to attain an expert level of skill. That is 10 years of deliberately practicing 3-4 hours a day. It is more realistic to assume that most language students would only study that much in the first 2-3 years of their study. After that the practicing time would diminish. Thus, the time needed to obtain the skill would be spread over more years, perhaps 20 or more. While it is not a lifetime per say, it is a very long time that is needed to persist in study. It is especially important for L2 learners to be life-long learners. However, it means that the teachers might not be able to observe the effect of their autonomy support through persistence with class work. It is good for teacher's to be aware of this and keep in mind that they might not be able to see all of the good they are doing.

The following are the retained items from the persistence questionnaire. *I am prepared to spend a lot of effort in learning English, even when it is difficult. I am prepared to spend a lot of effort in learning English, even when class is boring. If my teacher would give the class an optional volunteer assignment, I would certainly volunteer to do it. I would like to study English even if it were not required. When I have access to English-speaking TV stations and movies, I try to watch them often.*[6] These items indicate that even if the students aren't expending all the effort they might be able

[6] There were two items that were not retained that asked more specifically about the level of student effort such as, "I am working hard at learning English." There were also two items retained that asked about taking English courses.

to, they are willing to put in what they perceive is a lot of effort and to do so outside of class.

It is possible for teachers to be trained to be more autonomy-supportive in their classroom behaviors. Reeve (1998) found in two studies that pre-service teachers demonstrate more autonomy-supportive behaviors in the classroom after training on autonomy support. However, the results are mixed. Teachers whose pre-training concepts of motivation were in line with what was taught in the training more readily adapted the behaviors. Teachers who had a more controlling view of motivation needed to be convinced that what was being taught was a superior understanding of motivation in order to adopt the recommended behaviors. Those who were not convinced did not exhibit significant change. This should be kept in mind when designing future teacher training.

Teaching Culture. When the data does not support a theorized effect, such as teaching the TL culture having a positive effect on persistence to study the TL, either directly or indirectly, it is important to consider that further as well, especially when it plays such a prominent role in ESL instruction. It is generally considered important to teach the TL culture in ESL classrooms. ESL curriculum publishers regularly examine and update their textbooks cultural content. However, to my knowledge, the decisions on culture content are not based on research. ESL teachers often supplement the cultural material found in student textbooks with materials they have developed on their own, or that other teachers have developed. Valuable resources are being expended to develop relevant materials on the TL culture. Many companies in non-educational industries have

research and development programs. It is probably beyond the resources of even the largest of the ESL programs in the United States to have a separate research and development department. It might even be beyond the scope of the publishing houses' resources. However, while it might not be feasible to have a department that exist solely for the purpose of research and development, it still may be beneficial, saving resources in the long run, to spend some resources to study the cultural needs and desires of the target student population. I would recommend this for both publishers and programs, and even on a smaller scale for teachers.

There is a dearth of research on teaching TL culture in foreign language classrooms. Certainly, if it is important enough to spend so much time and money on, it is important enough to study.

Limitations of this study

The earlier research, which served as the foundation for this study, was done with single language student groups, either native English speakers studying an L2 or L2 students, in their home country, studying English, or another language. In those studies the questionnaires where in the native language of the student. Perhaps one of the most obvious limitations is that the questionnaires in this study were written in English due to the diversity of languages of the students. There were 18 languages represented. This created a two-fold limitation. The questionnaires were not in the native language of any of the participants, thus one could question the depth to which the meaning of the items are understood by the participants and if the meaning applied to the questions are similar among the participants. It also limited the participants to high-intermediate and advanced

level ESL students. Perhaps the study could have had a larger sample if more levels of students could have been included. It would also be difficult to do a longitudinal study of multiple semesters with a sample of students who are near the end of their studies.

The study was conducted in the United States where students have access to English speakers and English culture that they might not have in other locations around the world. Thus, one might expect potentially different results if replicating this study abroad. However, the presence of opportunities does not indicate the use of opportunities. It would be good if future research looked into how much students in an L2 country access native speakers and explore the culture and how this compares with students outside of L2 countries.

This study has data representing only two points of time during one semester. A longitudinal study with more time points and for a longer period would provide a more detailed picture of the relationships being studied and has been recommended for future research in previous studies and communication (K. A. Noels, personal communication, March 7, 2010; Noels et al., 2001). However, it was not feasible for this study. As mentioned above, many of the students in this study were at the end of the English studies. Also, unlike in studies of younger students who have the same teacher for an entire school year, these students have a different teacher each semester and since they are college students the semester length is even shorter than for School-aged students.

Recommendations for Further Investigation

Due to the limitations mentioned above for studying international students studying ESL in a college program (short semester, different teacher each semester, and

different language groups) I will make recommendations for different types of future research. For any research conducted with ESL students, I would recommend using questionnaires translated into their native languages when possible. This is the surest way to minimized confusion over item meanings and increase the likelihood of the items measuring what they are intending to measure. Also, if any achievement measure is desired, I would recommend getting a more explicit explanation of how the one you are planning to use is administered and documented by the program, if using a program administered measure. Alternately, you could administer a standard ESL test in lieu of using a program administered one.

If a longitudinal study is desired, then one cannot realistically include teacher data. A longitudinal study seems like a logical first step and is usually recommended for research in general. However, the type of student represented in this study is only in the United States studying English for a relatively short time. Additionally, the data from this study on the number of months the student had resided in country was not statistically significant. That was surprising to me as an ESL teacher. I would have expected differences between students who had only been here a short time versus students who had been her over a year, for example. Thus, a longitudinal study is perhaps not the most feasible or useful type of study. However, if one still wishes to conduct one, then it might be best achieved through a qualitative study following the life of a few students through their entire ESL program.

I have a different set of recommendations for a cross-sectional study of students. To address the rate of attrition that was observed in this study, I would arrange for any

data gathering to take place in the classroom. It does take some class time, though it did not take as much as I had expected it too. I would also reduce the data burden by using questionnaire with fewer items. I was encouraged to use the complete measures for this study because it is for my dissertation. If my measures had been shorter it would have been easier to persuade teachers to let me come into their classes twice during the semester.

Experimental research with these variables would be very interesting. One could design an experimental study based on training teachers to implement autonomy supportive behaviors generally in the classroom, with two groups, one with teachers being trained and one as a control. Another idea for an experimental study would be to design an interactive, semester long, autonomy supportive TL cultural project for students in the experiment group to work on. Students in the control group would experience the ESL classroom in their normal fashion. In both studies, any or all of the questionnaires from this study could be given as recommended in a reduced form.

Conclusion

It is my hope that research on the role of teaching the TL culture will not be avoided because it is difficult. I hope that others will attempt to create or refine questionnaires that will better measure students' perceptions of it and more comprehensively capture the relationship between students' attitudes towards the culture and what is taught in their classes about it. Perhaps this dissertation will be used as a stepping-stone for a future study that will advance this research.

APPENDIX A

Student Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: This questionnaire has 22 questions of a personal nature designed to help understand who you are as an individual ESL student. Your participation is voluntary. You do not have to answer any question that you are uncomfortable answering. All of your answers are confidential.

Gender: Male _____ Female_____
Age: _____
Native language: _____
Native country: _____
Legal status: F1 _____ J1____ F2_____Green card_____ resident_____ citizen_____
How many years have you studied English? _____
How old were you when you first began to study English? _____
How long have you lived in the United States? _____
Have you lived in any other English speaking country? Yes_____ No _____
If yes, how long did you live in the other English speaking country? _____
If yes, did you study English while living in another English speaking country?
Yes____ No ____
Is your current English teacher a native speaker of English? Yes_____ No _____
Have you had teachers before who were native speakers of English? Yes____ No____
Did you have teachers who were native speakers of English in your native country?
Yes___ No_____
Have you studied any other foreign languages (apart from English)? Yes ____ No_____
If yes, which language(s)?
_____
If yes, how old were you when you began to learn a different foreign language? _____
Are you fluent in any other foreign language (apart from English)? Yes_____ No_____
Type of fluency: language _____ reading/writing ____speaking listening _____
language _____ reading/writing ____ speaking listening ____
In which country did you complete your primary school education _____?
In which country did you complete your high school education _____?
What is your religion? Christian_____ Buddhist_____ Muslim_____ Hindu_____
Jewish _____ No religion_____ unsure_____

Please include your email address if you are open to speaking with the researcher on a different data to answer more questions. _____

Teacher Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: This questionnaire has 19 questions of a personal nature designed to help understand who you are as an individual ESL teacher. Your participation is voluntary. You do not have to answer any question that you are uncomfortable answering. All of your answers are confidential. Estimated time to complete this questionnaire: less than 5 minutes.

Gender: Male _____ Female_____
Age: _____
Native language: _____
Native country: _____
Highest degree completed: BA_____ Graduate certificate_____ MA_____ PhD_____
Number of years teaching ESL: _____
Number of years teaching at NOVA: _____
At what levels have you taught ESL, and for how many years? Elementary school_____ Middle school_____ High school_____ adults in community program_____ college____
Have you studied any other foreign languages (apart from English)? Yes ____ No_____
If yes, which language(s)?
_____
If yes, how old were you when you began to learn a different foreign language? _____
Are you fluent in any other foreign language (apart from English)? Yes_____ No_____
Type of fluency: language _____ reading/writing _____ speaking listening _____
language _____ reading/writing _____ speaking listening _____
Do you speak the native language of any of your students? Yes____ No____
If yes, which language(s)?
_____
Have you ever lived in a foreign country? Yes____ No____
If yes, which county (or countries)?
_____
What is your religion? Christian_____ Buddhist_____ Muslim_____ Hindu_____
Jewish _____ No religion_____ unsure_____
What is your political affiliation? Democrat____ Republican____ Green_____
Libertarian ____ Independent_____ other (please name) _____

APPENDIX B

Learning Climate Questionnaire (Autonomy Support) - student

This questionnaire contains items that are related to your experience with your instructor in this class. Instructors have different styles in dealing with students, and we would like to know more about how you have felt about your experience with your instructor. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open.

1. I feel that my instructor provides me choices and options.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

2. I feel understood by my instructor.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

3. I am able to be open with my instructor during class.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

4. My instructor conveyed confidence in my ability to do well in the course.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

5. I feel that my instructor accepts me.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

6. My instructor made sure I really understood the goals of the course and what I need to do.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

7. My instructor encouraged me to ask questions.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

8. I feel a lot of trust in my instructor.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

9. My instructor answers my questions fully and carefully.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

10. My instructor listens to how I would like to do things.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

11. My instructor handles people's emotions very well.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

12. I feel that my instructor cares about me as a person.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

13. I don't feel very good about the way my instructor talks to me.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

14. My instructor tries to understand how I see things before suggesting a new way to do things.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

15. I feel able to share my feelings with my instructor.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

Learning Climate Questionnaire -teachers

This questionnaire contains items that are related to your experience with your instructor in this class. Instructors have different styles in dealing with students, and we would like to know more about how you have felt about your encounters with your instructor. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and candid.

1. I feel that I provide choices and options for my students.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

2. I feel as though I understand my students.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

3. My students are able to be open with me during class.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

4. I convey confidence in my students' ability to do well in the course.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

5. I feel that accept my students.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

6. I made sure my students really understand the goals of the course and what they need to do.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

7. I encourage my students to ask me questions.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

8. My students trust me.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

9. I answer my students' questions fully and carefully.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

10. I listen to how my students would like to do things.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7
    strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

11. I handle people's emotions very well.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7
    strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

12. I care about my students as people.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

13. I speak respectfully to my students.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

14. I try to understand how my students see things before suggesting a new way to do things.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

15. My students are able to share their feelings with me.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
strongly disagree Neutral strongly agree

APPENDIX C

Students' perceptions of teacher behaviors – teaching culture

[This instrument has been modified from a survey designed for EFL teachers (Stapleton, 2000).]

This questionnaire contains items that are related to your experience with your instructor in this class. Instructors have different styles in teaching about English culture, and we would like to know more what you experienced with your instructor, as well as your opinions on it. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open.

1. Do you think it is important for your English teacher to include aspects of the English language culture as part of the classroom teaching?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very important					Unimportant	

2. Does your English teacher include information on English language culture in your classes?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Always					Never	

3. When your teacher includes English language culture information in your classes does it seem to be planned or is it spontaneous?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Always planned				Unplanned			Not Applicable

4. If your teacher includes English language culture information in your classes does it include facts about the culture such as facts about food, music, people, housing, etc.? Can you give an example of what your teacher has taught about these things?

_____

_____

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Always planned				Unplanned			Not Applicable

5. If your teacher includes English language culture information in your classes does it include information about the culture that is not directly seen such as information on values, beliefs, attitudes, etc.?
Can you give an example of what your teacher has taught about these things?

_____

_____

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 NA

Always planned Unplanned Not Applicable

6. Does your teacher compare the English language culture with your culture?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 NA

Always planned Unplanned Not Applicable

7. Do your textbooks contain any English language culture information?

YES_____ NO_____

8. How do you feel about the quality of the English cultural content in your textbook?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Good enough Not good enough

9. How do you feel about the quality of the English cultural content in your class?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Good enough Not good enough

Teachers' attitudes towards and perceptions of teaching culture

[This instrument has been modified from a survey designed for EFL teachers (Stapleton, 2000).]

This questionnaire contains items that are related to your experience of teaching English culture in this class. Instructors have different styles in teaching about English culture, and we would like to know more what you taught, as well as your opinions on it. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open.

1. Do you think it is important for you to include aspects of the English language culture as part of the classroom teaching?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very important Unimportant

2. Do you include information on English language culture in your classes?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Always Never

3. When you include English language culture information in your classes is it planned or is it spontaneous?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 NA

Always planned Unplanned Not

Applicable

4. If you include English language culture information in your classes does it include facts about the culture such as facts about food, music, people, housing, etc.?
Can you give an example of what you teach about these things?

_____

_____

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Always planned				Unplanned			Not Applicable

5. If you include English language culture information in your classes does it include information about the culture that is not directly seen such as information on values, beliefs, attitudes, etc.?
Can you give an example of what you have taught about these things?

_____

_____

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Always planned				Unplanned			Not Applicable

6. Do you compare the English language culture with your students' cultures?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Always planned				Unplanned			Not Applicable

7. Do your textbooks contain any English language culture information?
YES_____ NO_____

8. How do you feel about the quality of the English cultural content in your textbook?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good enough					Not good enough	

9. How do you feel about the quality of the English cultural content in your class?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good enough					Not good enough	

APPENDIX D

Attitudes Towards the Target Language Culture and Native Speakers of the Target Language

Directions: This questionnaire has 16 statements about your attitude towards English culture and native speakers. A 7-point scale follows each statement of this questionnaire. Please circle the number to indicate the extent to which the statements explain your reasons for studying a second language. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open.

1. Do you like the music of English-speaking countries (e.g. country, hip-hop, pop)
2. Do you like films from English-speaking countries?
3. Do you like Hollywood films?
4. Do you think that it is important to learn English in order to learn more about the culture and arts of its speakers?
5. Do you like English-speaking TV programs? (alt. Do you like TV programs made in English-speaking countries?)
6. I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in English.
7. Do you like English magazines, newspapers, or books?
8. Do you like to travel to English-speaking countries?
9. Do you like people who live in English-speaking countries?
10. In general, do you like the people of the United States?
11. Do you think that English-speaking countries (besides the USA) have an important role in the world?
12. Do you think that the United States has an important role in the world?
13. Do you like meeting people from English-speaking countries?
14. Would you like to know more about people from English-speaking countries?
15. How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak English?
16. How much do you like English?

APPENDIX E

Language Learning Orientations Scale
Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales -- LLOS-IEA (Autonomous Regulation)
Directions: This questionnaire has 21 statements about your reasons for studying a second language. A 7-point scale follows each statement of this questionnaire. Please circle the number to indicate the extent to which the statements explain your reasons for studying a second language. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open. (Note: The items numbers in this appendix correspond to the student questionnaire as they received them.)

Amotivation

12. I don't understand why I am studying a second language, and honestly, I don't care.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

6. Honestly, I feel like I am wasting my time studying a second language.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

External Regulation
The following three items complete this statement, "I am studying English…."

5. Because it is expected of me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

7. In order to get a better job later on.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

9. In order to have a higher salary later on.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

Introjected Regulation
The following three items complete this statement, "I am studying English…."

2. To show myself that I am a good person because I can speak English.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

10. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the English community in English.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

14. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know English.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

Identified Regulation

The following three items complete this statement, "I am studying English…."

16. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

4. Because I think it is good for my personal growth.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

8. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak English.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

Intrinsic Motivation – Accomplishment

The following three items complete this statement, "I am studying English…."

3. For the pleasure that I feel when improving in my English studies.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely					Agree completely	

15. For the happiness I feel when I grasp a difficult idea in English.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

17. For the satisfaction I feel when I finish difficult exercises in English.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

Intrinsic Motivation – Knowledge

The following three items complete this statement, "I am studying English…."

13. For the pleasure that I feel in knowing more about English literature.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

Omitted For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree completely						Agree completely

18. Because I enjoy the feeling of gaining knowledge about the English community and their way of life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree completely Agree completely

Intrinsic Motivation – Stimulation

The following three items complete this statement, "I am studying English…."

Omitted For the "high" I feel when hearing English language spoken.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree completely Agree completely

Omitted For the "high" feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree completely Agree completely

1. For the pleasure I get from hearing the second language spoken by native second language speakers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree completely Agree completely

APPENDIX F

Persistence Questionnaire

Directions: This questionnaire has 10 statements about your effort for studying a second language. A 7-point scale follows each statement of this questionnaire. Please circle the number to indicate the extent to which the statements explain your reasons for studying a second language. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open.

1. If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.
2. If English were not taught in school, I would try to go to English classes somewhere else.
3. I am prepared to spend a lot of effort in learning English, *even when it is difficult.*
4. I am prepared to spend a lot of effort in learning English, *even when class is boring.*
5. If my teacher would give the class an optional volunteer assignment, I would certainly volunteer to do it.
6. I would like to study English even if it were not required.
7. I think that I am doing my best to learn English.
8. When I have access to English-speaking TV stations *and movies*, I try to watch them often.
9. When I hear an English song on the radio, I listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
10. I am working hard at learning English.

APPENDIX G

Exposure to English Outside of Class

Directions: This questionnaire has 7 statements about your use of English outside of class. Four time choices are offered for each statement of this questionnaire. Please place an X after the time that best fits your usage. Your responses are confidential. Please be honest and open.

Three choices of time are below statements about activities that you do to help you learn English, on average. Please place an X in one of the spaces to indicate the amount of time you spend in that activity.

1. Outside of class, I watch English movies.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
2. Outside of class, I read English news stories.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
3. Outside of class, I listen to English news.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
4. Outside of class, I watch English TV programs.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
5. Outside of class, I speak English with friends who speak other languages.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
6. Outside of class, I look for opportunities to speak with native English speakers.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
7. Outside of class, I speak English with friends who are native English speakers.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
   Additional questions regarding special English clubs:
8. I participate in International Friends.
   Weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___
9. I go to the Welcome Center.
   Daily___ weekly____ bi-weekly ____ Monthly___

APPENDIX H

Student Demographics
Table 10

Student Demographics in Addition to Tables 1 and 2 in Chapter 3

Group	Native Country		Age Started to Learn English		Other Languages Studied	
Baseline		n		N		N
	Azerbaijan	1	2	1	Arabic	2
	Benin	1	4	1	Chinese	19
	Bolivia	2	5	4	French	17
	China	19	6	10	German	15
	Colombia	4	7	6	Italian	4
	El Salvador	1	8	5	Japanese	32
	Ethiopia	1	9	5	Korean	6
	Hong Kong	1	10	15	Malaysian	1
	Indonesia	1	11	17	Russian	7
	Ivory Coast	3	12	19	Spanish	9
	Japan	1	13	22	Thai	1
	Kazakhstan	1	14	12	Turkish	1
	Korea	55	15	11		
	Laos	1	16	5		
	Mongolia	2	17	3		
	Morocco	1	18	5		
	Nepal	1	19	5		
	Peru	1	20	5		
	Qatar	1	21	2		
	Romania	1	23	3		
	Russia	4	24	2		
	Saudi Arabia	27	25	3		
	Serbia	1	30	1		
	Switzerland	1	32	1		
	Taiwan	1	35	1		
	Tajikistan	1				
	Thailand	3				
	Turkey	6				
	UAE	6				
	Vietnam	17				
Total		166		164		114
Completion		n		n		N
	Benin	1	5	2	Arabic	1
	Bolivia	1	6	5	Chinese	13
	China	10	7	3	French	6

	Columbia	2	8	5	German	5
	Hong Kong	1	9	3	Italian	2
	Ivory Coast	1	10	7	Japanese	16
	Kazakhstan	1	11	6	Korean	3
	Korea	30	12	12	Russian	2
	Laos	1	13	13	Spanish	5
	Nepal	1	14	3	Thai	1
	Peru	1	15	6		
	Qatar	1	16	4		
	Russia	1	17	1		
	Saudi Arabia	9	18	2		
	Serbia	1	19	1		
	Switzerland	1	20	1		
	Tajikistan	1	23	2		
	Thailand	2	35	1		
	Turkey	3				
	UAE	2				
	Vietnam	8				
Total		79		77		54

APPENDIX I

Table 11

Retained Items for All Reduced Measures

Measure	Items retained
Student Attitudes – baseline and completion	4, 11, 12, 13, 14
Learning Climate – autonomy support	6, 7, 9, 11, 12
Persistence – baseline and completion	3, 4, 5, 6, 8
Teaching culture – student and teacher perceptions	1, 2, 7, 8, 9
Autonomous Regulation (LLOS) – baseline and completion	3, 13, 15, 17, 18

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BIOGRAPHY

Lisa D. Pierce earned her Bachelor of Arts in International Relations from California State University, Chico, with an emphasis in East Asia and the Pacific Rim. She graduated cum laude with highest honors from the Political Science department. Ms. Pierce received her Master of Education from Boston University with an emphasis in International Educational Development in 2002. During her studies at Boston University, she taught English as a Second Language (ESL) at Park Street Church and American Chinese Christian Educational and Social Services. After which she was the training and technology coordinator at the Eastern Massachusetts Literacy Council.

Between 2006 and 2011, she taught ESL at Northern Virginia Community College. In 2011, she also taught ESL at George Mason University. During the course of her doctoral studies, Lisa D. Pierce was awarded a merit-based fellowship from the Graduate School of Education for the following academic years, 2007-2008, 2008-2009, 2009-2010. She also was awarded a dissertation completion fellowship during the 2010-2011 school year. In addition to teaching ESL and pursuing her doctoral studies, in the fall of 2007, Ms. Pierce co-founded International Friends, a local organization that facilitates friendships between international students, particularly students at Northern Virginia Community College, and members of the local community, an idea she conceived through her interactions with her students while teaching. Lisa D. Pierce earned her Doctor of Philosophy in Education in 2014.