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Learner Perceptions of Demotivators in the EFL Classroom: Conceptual Framework and Scale Development

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Grounded in social cognitive theory and expectancy-value theory, the current study aimed to present a demotivation scale — Learner Perceptions of Demotivators Scale (LPDS) — designed specifically for use in L2 research and tested empirically to provide evidence of its construct, validity, and reliability. Study 1 sample consisted of 295 Chinese college English learners. An exploratory factor analysis offered preliminary support for a factor structure comprising three dimensions: negative teacher behavior, loss of task value, and low expectancy for success. Study 2 sample consisted of another 320 Chinese college English learners. The proposed factor structure was further corroborated through confirmatory factor analysis, and support for its validity was provided by means of correlating the three dimensions with academic performance and self-efficacy measures. Specifically, all the correlations were negative except for the positive association between *academic performance* and *negative teacher behavior*. Further, whereas the model fit confirmed a well-fitting second-order model, one low first-order loading (*negative teacher behavior*) does not seem to support a second-order factor model. Therefore, the three dimensions should be regarded as separate to best capture the nuances of different demotivators. By establishing a nomological network (demotivation, academic performance, and self-efficacy), the current study illuminates selected aspects of ESL pedagogy.

Keywords: demotivation, second language acquisition, scale development, social cognitive theory, expectancy-value theory

Introduction

Even though "motivation" is a construct often discussed in educational and psychological research, scholars have trouble defining it. While it is widely accepted that motivation is central to regulating human behavior by activating it and giving it direction, researchers in psychology and education disagree regarding how and why this happens. Depending on context, motivation is defined as a state, a condition, a process, a desire, a want, an arousal, a force, or a drive (e.g., Ames, 1992; Maslow, 1970). Motivation is essential for second language (L2) acquisition, for it considerably affects why people choose to pursue a goal, how much effort they are willing to exert, and how long they are going to maintain their effort (Dörneyi, 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). However, as studying foreign languages tends to be difficult for many students, they get demotivated. This phenomenon is of growing interest to educators. Further, the aggregated stress and anxiety from the COVID-19 pandemic may easily trigger demotivation and disengagement as prior literature has revealed that negative emotions may hinder learning (Chiu et al., 2021; Pekrun et al., 2017).

L2 demotivation research is still in its infancy due to the lack of theoretical framework. Subsequently, most research on EFL learners' demotivation to date has been primarily concerned with identifying and listing the demotivating factors in the EFL classroom (e.g., Dörnyei, 1998; Kim, 2009; Ushioda, 1998; Zhou & Wang, 2012). While identifying demotivators is important, it does not account for how learners perceive and process demotivation. Moreover, it cannot explain what happens during the learner's state of demotivation and how demotivation affects students' academic behaviors and outcomes. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to present a conceptual framework for learner perceptions of demotivators in the college EFL classroom and to develop a theoretically sound assessment instrument. Once developed, a reliable and valid demotivation scale will assist with assessing of the effectiveness of the future approaches and techniques to combat demotivation in L2 classrooms.

Literature Review

Working Definition of Demotivation

As motivation proves hard to define and to understand, so does a related construct, demotivation. Dörnyei (2001) defined demotivation as specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action. Simply put, if motivation is the force that drives learners to achieve their goals, demotivation drives them in the opposite direction. Demotivation negatively influences learners, degrades classroom dynamics and student drive, and eventually leads to negative learning outcomes such as low self-efficacy and low achievement (Falout et al., 2009). Based on prior literature, demotivation can take the form of: (a) a state of task disengagement or motivational deficit that deactivates behavior, (b) a feeling of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity, (c) a process whereby goal-directed activity shows little momentum or persistence, and (d) a drive that deenergizes the goal-oriented behavior (Kikuchi, 2009; Sawyer, 2007; Zhou, 2012).

Studies on Demotivators

While the study of L2 demotivation first started in Europe (e.g., Chambers, 1993; Oxford, 1998), it blossomed in East Asian countries including Japan, Korea, and China (e.g., Kikuchi, 2009; Sawyer, 2007; Xie et al., 2018; Zhou, 2012). Multiple factors likely contribute to this development: (a) all countries in this region are monolingual, (b) the study of English is mandatory, (c) English belongs to a different language family, thus is difficult to master, and (d) the East Asian educational values and practices tend to center around competition. Consequently, while most of the literature on EFL teaching and learning investigates the educational practices to motivate language learners, the unique cultural tradition and high

extrinsic/instrumental motivational context suggest that motivation alone does not account for EFL learning problems (Trang & Baldauf, 2007).

Dörnyei (1998) conducted an interview study of L2 students perceived extremely demotivated by their teachers and peers. The results suggest that the main demotivating factors (in order of frequency) include: (a) teachers' personalities, (b) commitments, (c) competence, (d) inadequate school facilities, (e) lowered self-efficacy due to failure or lack of success, (f) negative attitude toward the language studied, and (g) compulsory nature of the language study. To further understand the issues, Muhonen (2004) asked 91 Finnish ninth-grade students to write an essay describing factors that demotivate them in their L2 classroom and uncovered five demotivators: (a) the teacher, (b) learning material, (c) learner characteristics, (d) school environment, and (e) student's attitude towards English. Subsequently, Trang and Baldauf (2007) asked 100 college students to write an essay on demotivation sources. The demotivating factors that emerged from the writing task were classified into two groups: (a) internal attributions (such as negative attitudes towards English, experience of failure, self-esteem), and (b) external attributions (teacher, learning context, inappropriate workload, etc.).

Reviewing existing literature demonstrates that the specific demotivators and their relative frequency vary across cultures and grade levels. Additionally, most of the studies employed qualitative methods for gathering data. While qualitative research detects themes among words without compromising its richness and dimensionality, qualitative analysis may be subjective and context dependent. In light of this, a comprehensive quantitative scale is needed to: (a) better understand L2 demotivators, (b) understand the dynamic process of demotivation, and (c) build a strong foundation for generalization of findings and conclusions.

Limitations of Demotivation Questionnaire for College Students

Currently, there is only one validated measure of the learner perceptions of demotivators in the EFL classroom: Demotivation Questionnaire for College Students (Kikuchi, 2015). While it has contributed to understanding of demotivation, several limitations to the scale need to be addressed, especially given the impact of rapid change in educational technology. These limitations include: (1) not addressing teacher and peer behavior/influence properly, (2) not addressing internal demotivators properly, and (3) lack of validation of the instrument outside of Japan.

The first limitation concerns external demotivators; Kikuchi's (2015) questionnaire focuses primarily on certain aspects of demotivators (e.g., teaching method and technology use), while neglecting the influence of others such as peer influence and perceived teacher personality. Further, Kikuchi failed to address teacher behavior appropriately. For example, most teacher-related items in Kikuchi's scale are either manifested through instructional quality (e.g., "Teachers' explanations were not easy to understand.") or behaviors rarely occur at college-level teaching (e.g., "Teachers yell at us."). Individuals are both products and producers of their own physical and social environments (Bandura, 1986). Social cognitive theory (SCT; Bandura, 1986) accounts for human behavior in a three-way, dynamic, reciprocal model in which personal factors, environmental influences, and behavior constantly affect one another. SCT provides a conceptual model for understanding, predicting, and shaping human behavior due to its focus on social influence and its emphasis on external and internal social reinforcement (see Figure 1).

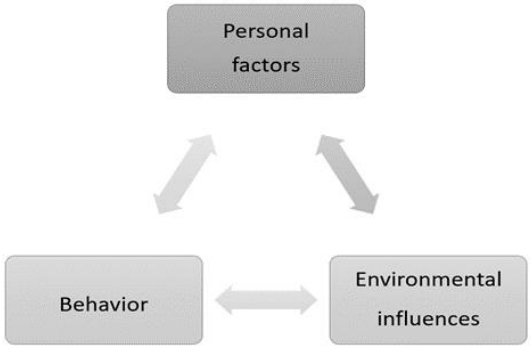

Figure 1. Model of triadic reciprocal causations. From *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory* by A. Bandura (1986, p. 24)

Learning a foreign language is a highly interactive activity. Students interact with the instructor as well as each other, and the importance of peer and instructor influence on learning is well documented (e.g., Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Peers influence individual's definitions of academic success and motivation level (Haque, 2014). Similarly, teacher immediacy (verbal and nonverbal messages of appreciation and closeness) directly influences student motivation (Christophel, 1990). Interestingly, negative teacher behaviors (e.g., coming unprepared for class) are perceived as more demotivating than positive teacher behaviors (e.g., provision of autonomy) are perceived as motivating (Gorham & Christophe,1992). Additionally, perceived teacher personality characteristics such as conscientiousness (being responsible and organized) and agreeableness (being friendly and helpful) are predictive of students' self-efficacy (Kim et al., 2017). Further, teachers serve as role models for students, and positively affect both students' academic sense of belonging and self-efficacy, which in turn determine individuals' motivation, academic decision-making, and educational attainment (Bandura, 1986; Shin et al., 2016).

The second limitation concerns internal demotivators. The Demotivation Questionnaire for College Students captures primarily learners' affective experiences (e.g., experience of failure and loss of interest), and does not reflect learners' cognitive problems, such as learning strategy deficits. Learning strategies are key in predicting how –and how well –students learn a foreign language (Oxford, 2003). Identifying learning strategies relevant to the task at hand empowers students to manage their own learning and enables them to become successful lifelong learners (Allwright, 1990; Anderson, 2003; Little, 1991). Further, whereas loss of interest is multi-faceted, Kikuchi (2015) only briefly and broadly addressed it in his scale (e.g., I lost my interest in English). Perceived value predicts continued interest and the likelihood of future engagement with the subject. The overall interest in the subject, or the enjoyment someone draws from an activity, are derived from its intrinsic value (Trautwein et al., 2012). Expectancy-value-cost model (e.g., Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) posits that achievement-related choices (e.g., effort and persistence) are motivated by a combination of people's expectations for success and perceived task value in a domain. Task value consists of three components: attainment value (i.e., importance of doing well), intrinsic value (i.e., enjoyment), and utility value (i.e., perceived usefulness for future goals). Cost, the perceived negative consequences of task engagement, has often been examined within the expectancy-value framework (Jiang et al., 2018). As it competes with other goals, cost helps to predict students' avoidance motivation and behaviors.

The third limitation centers on several psychometric shortcomings of the Demotivation Questionnaire for College Students. Because the scale has not been cross-validated in other East Asian countries, our initial concern was whether Kikuchi's (2015) factor structure fits the college-age English learner population in China. Thus, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the data from our previous work (Xie, 2020) to examine the 4-factor structure prior to the main analyses. We used Mplus

v.7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to conduct the analysis. The CFA results did not indicate good model fit: $\chi^2(203) = 397.36$, $p < .0001$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.69, Tuker-Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.65, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .09, 90% CI [.08, .11], Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = .09. Taken together, the conceptual foundation of Kikuchi's scale is not sufficient to capture the broad dimensionality of learner perceptions of demotivators in the college EFL classroom.

Methodology

Scales are a manifestation of latent constructs. They are frequently used to assess individuals' behavior, emotion, or cognition that cannot be captured in a single variable or item. There are three stages to developing a rigorous scale—item generation, scale construction, and scale evaluation (Boateng et al., 2018). The three stages need to be included for claiming that a scale is reliable and valid. Item generation requires the generation of the initial set of items for an eventual scale. Scale construction is turning individual items into a harmonious and measuring construct through item reduction and extraction of latent factors. Scale evaluation involves tests of dimensionality, reliability, and validity. The entire process (see Figure 2) entails numerous theoretical and statistical competencies (Carpenter, 2018).

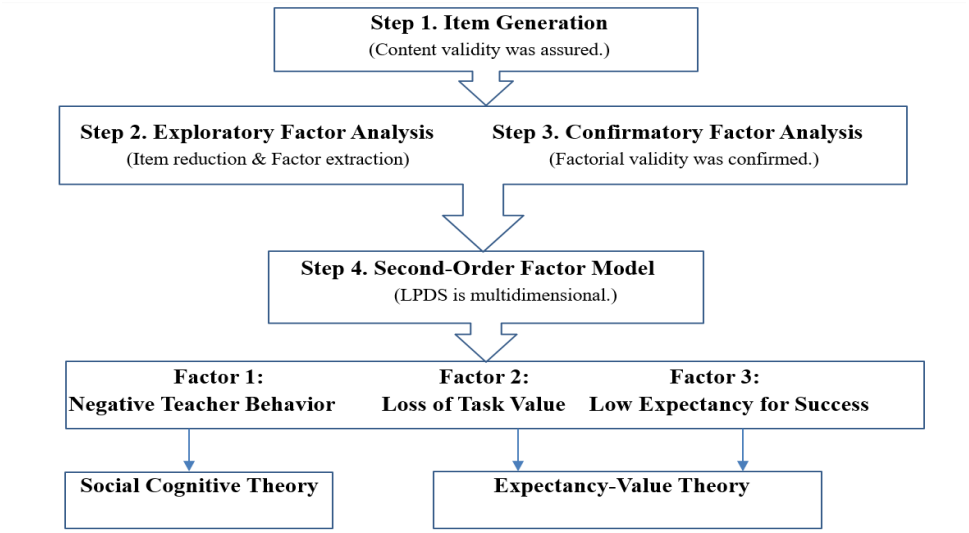

Figure 2. Overview of research procedure.

Study 1

The purpose of Study 1 was to develope items for the LPDS. The factor structure of those items was also explored.

Item Generation Procedure

There are two methods to develop appropriate questions/items: deductive and inductive (Hinkin, 1995). When using deductive method, items are generated through the review of existing literature and evaluation of existing scales. The inductive method involves the development of questions based on the responses of individuals. The responses are obtained through exploratory approaches such as focus

groups and individual interviews. It is recommended that the items generated using deductive and inductive approaches are broader and more comprehensive than one's own theoretical view of the construct (e.g., Clark & Watson, 1995). To achieve this, two steps were involved. First, a comprehensive review of existing literature on L2 demotivator was conducted by using keywords demotivation, demotivator, and demotivating factor in conjunction with the linking terms EFL, ESL, and L2. Second, individual in-depth phone interviews (20 minutes each) with 15 college EFL learners (Male = 8, Female = 7) were conducted to explore the factors contributing to demotivation in the EFL classroom. The interview consisted of three open-ended guiding questions ("Have you ever felt demotivated as a college EFL learner and why?" "What do you think are the main ingredients of L2 demotivation?" "Can you name some demotivating factors?"), and when appropriate, the data collectors probed with detailed follow-up questions to clarify participants' stories and perspectives. Although the qualitative inquiry was originally guided by three general questions, as we moved through the iterative analysis, the guiding questions and emergent coding categories were adjusted based on participants' response. Specifically, as we began to see the evidence of multiple sources of demotivation, coding was developed to capture the demotivators systematically (e.g., teacher-related demotivators, learner-related demotivators). While all the demotivators emerged from the qualitative data have appeared in prior literature, the purpose of the interview was to investigate whether additional factors influence student demotivation. Analyzing data generated from the interviews informs the survey designed for larger samples. We developed nine factors (99 items) based on the reviewing process and interview data (see Figure 3). These factors include teacher-behavior (TB; 19 items), peer influence (PI; 8 items), class material (CM; 9 items), loss of interest (LI; 11 items), experience of failure (EF; 12 items), learning strategy deficiency (LSD; 8 items), utility value (UV; 11 items), expectancy and cost (EC; 9 items), and instructional quality (IQ; 12 items). All items were reviewed by experienced EFL teachers to assess the content validity and wording. Items were rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 4 = *Strongly Agree/Very Demotivating* to 1= *Strongly Disagree/Not Demotivating at All*. Higher scores indicate higher levels of demotivation.

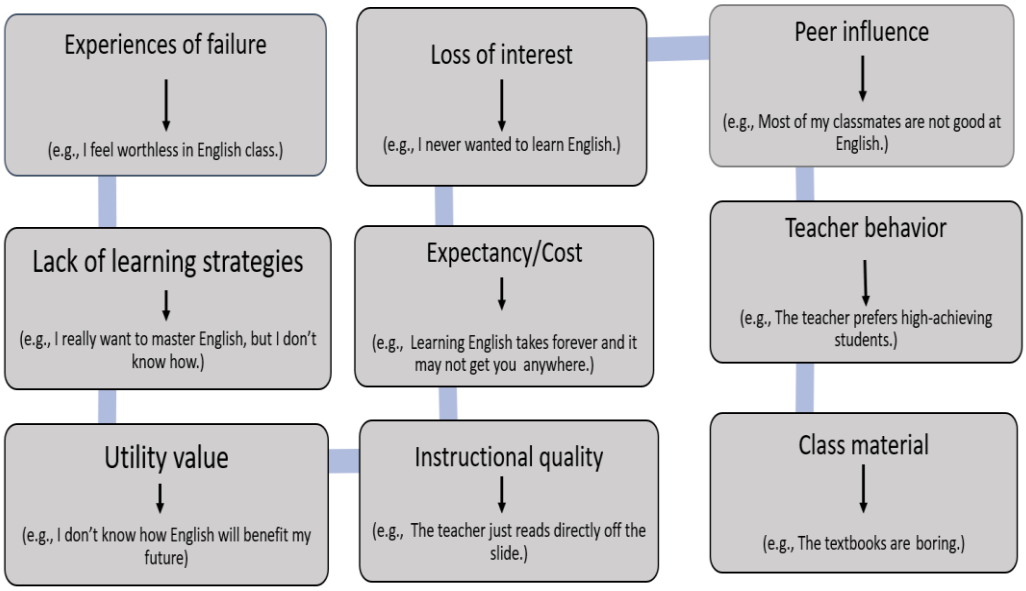

Figure 3. Nine intended factors for LPDS.

Participants and Procedures

Altogether 295 college students (159 juniors and 141 graduate students) were recruited from a university in southeast China to participate in Study 1. All were required to take English language courses

by their institutions. Approximately, 60% (n =180) of the participants were males. College junior students and graduate students have completed two years of college English courses and generally have a better understanding of the college EFL classroom context than freshmen and sophomores. The questionnaire was administered to the participants during a 30-minute class break. Students were told their participation is voluntary and were assured their responses were anonymous and would remain confidential.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a widely used statistical analysis in the social sciences. EFA is generally used to discover the factor structure and examine the internal consistency of a psychological construct (e.g., demotivation). As it is exploratory by definition, it is often recommended when researchers do not yet know the latent factor structure of their measure (Meyers et al., 2016).

EFA Results

The data were analyzed using SPSS v.25.0. To assess the construct validity of the 99-item version of the LPDS, the students' responses were factor analyzed. The number of factors to extract was determined on the basis of two traditional criteria, including examination of the resulting scree plot and eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (e.g., Hayton et al., 2004).

Therefore, it was determined that the 99-item LPDS consisted of three primary factors. The 3-factor simple factor structure accounted for 35% of the variance in total scores and used 66 (67%) of the original items. The first factor (extraction eigenvalue = 16.30) included 30 *negative teacher behavior* items. The second factor (extraction eigenvalue = 13.06) included 22 *loss of task value* items. The third factor (extraction eigenvalue = 5.97) included 14 *low expectancy for success* items.

Reliability Analysis

Based on the results of the EFA, first, a reliability analysis was run on the 66 items retained in the LPDS. The Cronbach's alpha for these 66 items was .91. Next, three reliability analyses were run on the 30 items retained in the *negative teacher behavior* subscale, the 22 items retained in the *loss of task value* subscale, and the 14 items retained in the *low expectancy for success* subscale. The Cronbach's alpha values for the negative teacher behavior subscale, the loss of task value subscale, and the low expectancy for success were .89, .94, and .87, respectively.

Discussion for Study 1

Results from the EFA did not fully reproduce the presumed survey structure. Instead of nine factors, as initially hypothesized, results suggested only three interpretable factors*: negative teacher behavior, loss of task value, and low expectancy for success*.

Originally conceived constructs of instructional quality and instructional material loaded only significantly on the factor of negative teacher behavior. This is aligned with previous literature that suggested instructional quality corresponds closely to subject-oriented teaching behavior (e.g., Greimel-Fuhrmann & Geyer, 2003). Similarly, instructional materials are the resources teachers use to deliver instruction and enhance learning. Instructional materials produce the core knowledge that students will learn, apply, and transfer in a class. They are usually planned, selected, organized, refined, and used by instructors. The 30 items that make up the *negative teacher behavior* subscale assess the respondent's perceived demotivators in terms of teacher behavior in the EFL classroom.

Grounded in expectancy-value theory, loss of interest, utility value, and cost loaded only significantly on the factor of loss of task value. It reproduced the intended dimensions of expectancy-value theory. The 22 items that make up the *loss of task value* subscale assess the respondent's perceived internal demotivators with regards to subjective value.

Along with experiences of failure and expectancy, the only cognitive factor, learning strategy deficiency, loaded only significantly on the factor of low expectancy for success. Language learning

strategy use distinguishes successful language learners from unsuccessful ones (e.g., Qingquan et al., 2008). Failing or struggling students usually lack the study strategies to address learning challenges. The 14 items that constitute the *low expectancy for success* subscale measure the respondent's perceived internal demotivators with reference to expectancy-related beliefs.

Peer influence did not load significantly on any interpretable factors. This can be explained by the composition of the sample. Almost half of the participants were graduate students. While peers of all ages influence each other, the effects of peer influence are weaker in adulthood than during adolescence. Across demographic groups, resistance to peer influences increases linearly with age (e.g., Steinberg & Monahan, 2007).

Study 2

The main purpose of Study 2 was to confirm the underlying dimensional structure of the LPDS in a different sample. We also sought to further examine and establish (a) the internal consistency of ratings across the items that constitute the LPDS, (b) a higher order CFA in order to extract a second-order factor that could account for each subdimensions of learner perceptions of demotivators, and (c) construct validity by correlating LPDS with scales measuring related psychological and behavioral constructs.

Participants and Procedures

Altogether 325 participants (225 college juniors and 100 college seniors) from a university in southeast China were recruited to participate in study 2. Approximately 60% (n = 191) of the participants were female. The questionnaires were administered to the participants during a 30-minute class break. Students were told their participation is voluntary and were assured their responses were anonymous and would remain confidential.

Researchers often adopt confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for construct validation of psychological, clinical, and educational questionnaires, especially when the scales are claimed to be multidimensional. CFA highlights the fit between the data and a conceptually pre-determined, theoretically grounded model that defines the hypothesized causal relations between latent variables and their observed indicators (Meyers et al., 2016).

Second-Order Factor Model

Second-order factor models have been used in psychological and educational settings in various domains, including self-concept (Marsh et al., 2002), psychological well-being (Hills & Argyle, 2002), and academic amotivation (Legualt et al., 2006). The second-order model embodies the hypothesis that these seemingly independent but correlated constructs can be explained by one or more common underlying higher order constructs (Chen et al., 2005). For example, LPDS, *negative teacher behavior*, *loss of task value*, and *low expectancy of success* would represent an overall L2 demotivator construct. In comparison with first-order models with correlated factors, second-order factor models are more parsimonious and interpretable (Chen et al., 2005).

Potential Correlates with Demotivation: Academic Performance

While academic performance is the most intuitive correlating variable to provide evidence for construct validity of demotivation (i.e., low-achieving students should be extremely demotivated), few studies have addressed the link between L2 performance and demotivation. The linear relationship between the two constructs is shown in a moderate size of correlation (r = -.44) in one study conducted in China (Xie et al.,

2018). Therefore, we expected to find a moderate and negative correlation between academic performance and demotivation.

Measurement of Academic Performance. Students' EFL performance was measured using students' self-reported College English Test "Band 4" score, better known as CET 4 (National College English Testing Committee, 2006), which is a national English language proficiency test in Chinese higher education institutes, and often used by institutes as one of the criteria for their graduates' degree attainment. The CET is a large-scale standardized exam administered by the Ministry of Education in China. It is widely recognized among Chinese institutions and employers.

Potential Correlates with Demotivation: Academic Self-Efficacy

It has been consistently found that experiences of failure or difficulty of learning English is the most harmful demotivator for East Asian EFL learners. This finding corroborates Bandura's (1986) theory of *self-efficacy.* According to Bandura, a person's sense of self-efficacy directly relates to effort expenditure on a given task. Repeated failures are assumed to lessen control expectations on future similar task, which in turn leads to demotivation or motivation deficits. Thus, it is plausible to conclude that students' self-efficacy as a potential and negative correlate of demotivation.

Measurement of Academic Self-Efficacy. The Grade 9 French Survey developed by Netten et al. (1999) were used to measure self-efficacy (Cronbach's α = .84). This survey was specifically developed to measure self-efficacy in an L2 classroom. While it was intended to be administered to adolescent students, it is suitable for the emerging adults in the current study since the average age were around 20.5 years. Slight modifications were made to items to reflect an English classroom. To be specific, each time the word "French" appears in the survey was replaced by "English" (e.g., "I believe I can do well in English."). All items were rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 4 = *Strongly Agree to* 1= *Strongly Disagree*. A higher score indicates a higher level of self-efficacy.

CFA Results

The LPDS retained from EFA is a 66-item instrument structured on 4-point Likert-type scale that ranges from 4 *Totally Agree/Very Demotivating* to 1 *Totally Disagree/Not Demotivating at All*. It is composed of three subscales, each measuring one facet of demotivator; the NTB (negative teacher behavior) subscale comprises 30 items, the LTV (loss of task value) subscale comprises 22 items, and the LES (low expectancy for success) comprises 14 items.

The data were analyzed using SPSS Amos v25.0.

Of the primary interest in CFA is the extent to which a hypothesized model "fit" or adequately describes the sample data. The initially hypothesized model (Model 1) did not indicate good model fit: $\chi^2(320) = 4364.37$, $p < .0001$, CFI = 0.72, TLI = 0.71, RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.05, .06], SRMR = .07. Giving findings of inadequate goodness-of-fit, it is apparent that some modification in specification is needed in order to identify a model that better represent the sample data. By removing 31 items with poor loadings less than .50 (Model 2), allowing 14 residual variances to correlate (Model 3), and removing 11 redundant or similar items (Model 4) sequentially, goodness-of-fit statistics revealed substantial improvements in model fit between from Model 1 to Model 4 (see Figure 4): $\chi2(320) = 392.75$, $p < .0001$, CFI = 0.94, TLI = 0.93, RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [1.60, 2.31], SRMR = .06. The Fit Indices for CFA models tested in Study 2 were presented in Table 1.

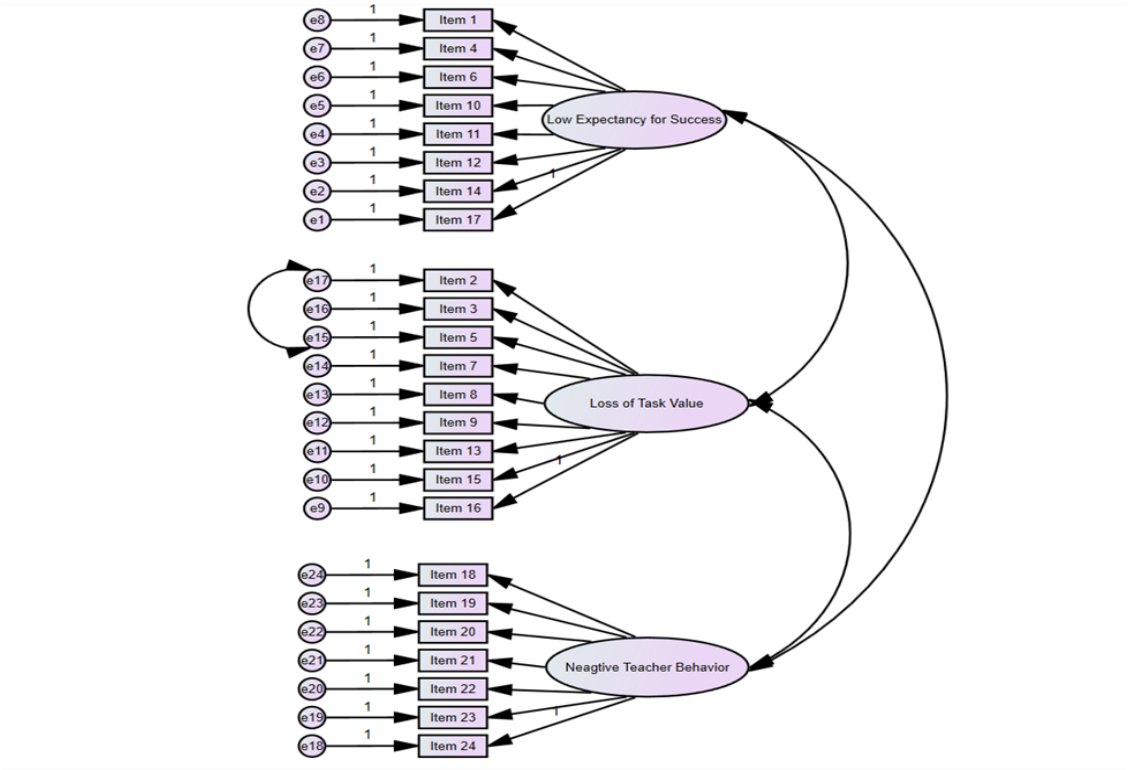

Figure 4. Final model of factorial structure for the LPDS (Model 4) in Amos Graphics format.

TABLE 1
Fit Indices for CFA Models Tested in Study 2

		Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
1.	Chi-square	4364.37	1183.54	954.71	392.75
2.	TLI	0.71	0.85	0.90	0.93
3.	CFI	0.72	0.86	0.91	0.94
4.	RMSEA	.06	.06	.04	.04
5.	SRMR	.07	.06	.06	.06

Note. Model 2 is achieved by deleting poor loading items. Model 3 is achieved by allowing error correlation within factors. Model 4 is achieved by deleting redundant items.

Reliability

A reliability analysis was performed on the 24 items retained in the LPDS. The Cronbach's alpha for these 24 items was .85. Next, three reliability analyses were run on the 7 items retained in the *negative teacher behavior* subscale, the 9 items retained in the *loss of task value* subscale, and the 8 items retained in the *low expectancy for success* subscale. The Cronbach's alpha values for the negative teacher behavior subscale, the loss of task value subscale, and the low expectancy for sucess subscale were .79, .88, and .82, respectively.

The factor loadings, correlations among the three latent factors, and the Cronbach's α values from study 2 were presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Statistics of Learner Perceptions of Demotivators (Study 2: CFA)

Item	NTB	LTV	LES
Teachers are not responsive to our learning needs	.51		
Teachers don't have a sense of responsibility for the teaching job.	.66		
Teachers don't have faith in their students	.64		
Teachers are not inspiring or encouraging.	.65		
Teachers reward performance rather than learning.	.60		
Teachers seldom motivate us to learn.	.58		
The learning objectives are not clear for the class.	.66		
The only purpose of learning English is to pass all the exams.		.71	
I don't see the value of learning English.		.70	
Learning English takes forever, and it may not get you anywhere.		.69	
I wonder why English is needed in a monolingual country.		.76	
English has no use for my major.		.68	
I'm not interested in learning English at all.		.65	
It's not clear to me why I must learn English.		.65	
I take English class only because it's a required class.		.63	
If learning English means losing a fun life, I'll choose the latter one.		.64	
I seriously don't know how to speak English fluently.			.60
I have made many attempts to learn English but I have not improved.			.70
I'm not aware of the strategies to improve my listening skills.			.58
English grammar is tough and confusing.			.54
I really want to master English, but I don't know how.			.66
I haven't found an effective way to learn English.			.62
Reading comprehension articles are hard to understand.			.64
I struggle with improving my English writing skills.			.54
	NTB	LTV	LES
Correlations among factors			
Negative teacher behavior	-		
Loss of task value	.05	-	
Low expectancy for success	.23**	.37**	-
Cronbach's alpha	.79	.88	.82

Note. n = 320, **p < .001

Second-Order Factor

While results showed that the second-order model indicates a good representation of the variance within the data: $\chi 2(320) = 401.16$, $p < .0001$, CFI = 0.93, TLI = 0.94, RMSEA = .04, 90% CI [.03, .04], SRMR = .06, one of the three first-order factor loadings (negative teacher behavior) are below the threshold of .40. Taken together, whereas model fit confirmed a well-fitting second-order model with post hoc model adjustment, the one low first-order loading does not seem to support L2 demotivation as a higher order construct comprising three subdimensions.

Potential Correlates with Demotivation

Based on the second-order model result, the three factors were treated independently in the following correlation analyses (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
Correlation Coefficients: Demotivation, Academic Performance, and Self-efficacy

	Academic Performance	Self-efficacy
Negative teacher behavior	.18*	-.15*
Loss of task value	-.27**	-.36**
Low expectancy for success	-.24**	-.53**

Note. n = 320, **p < .001, *p < .05

Demotivation and Academic Performance (Pearson correlations). Three correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between demotivation (negative teacher behavior, loss of task value, and low expectancy for success) and academic performance. As expected, *loss of task value* (r = -.27, p < .001) and *low expectancy for success* (r = -.24, p < .001) were negatively related to academic performance. However, negative *teacher behavior* was positively related to academic performance (r = .18, p = .04).

Demotivation & Academic Self-efficacy (Pearson correlations). The academic self-efficacy survey was found to have good reliability (Cronbach's α = .75). Three correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between demotivation (negative teacher behavior, loss of task value, and low expectancy for success) and academic self-efficacy. As expected, *negative teacher behavior* (r = -.15, p = .006), *loss of task value* (r = -.36, p < .001), and *low expectancy for success* (r = -.53, p < .001) were negatively related to academic self-efficacy.

Discussion for Study 2: CFA

Results derived from the CFA suggested several survey modifications that generated a refined, more parsimonious version of the LPDS. The current 24-item, three-factor scale appears to be psychometrically sound, with satisfactory factor structure and good internal consistency (see Table 2).

Altogether seven items were retained within the factor of *negative teacher behavior*. Most deleted items are instructional material-related items such as "Multi-media is not frequently used in class," and "Technology is not fully used in the class." Technology has always been at the forefront of human education. The past few decades have seen a dramatic rise in the number of universities worldwide using computers and the Internet in their EFL classrooms. Today, most students are equipped with several portable technological devices at any given time. Therefore, the integration of technology in traditional classroom instruction is not a top concern for college EFL learners.

Moreover, it seems college EFL learners especially adore responsive, encouraging, and motivating teachers yet being tolerant about instructional quality. For example, among the seven items retained from CFA, two are about teacher responsibility (e.g., "Teachers are not responsive to our learning needs."), four are about motivating teacher behavior (e.g., "Teachers are not inspiring or encouraging."), and only one is about instructional quality (e.g., "The learning objectives are not clear for the class."). Despite the differences in the level of importance given to various features, teachers and students alike, reported that being able to build students' motivation is one of the most important characteristics of effective L2 teachers (Bell, 2005; Mullock, 2003).

Nine items were retained within the factor of *loss of task value*. Most deleted items are worded with strong negative emotions (e.g., "Attending English class is torture for me." "I hate learning English with a passion." and "I never liked learning English."). Culturally, East Asians are typically quite reluctant to express strong emotions. They are more reserved and calmer when excited or disappointed. The respondents are influenced by the harmony and collectivism culture and tend to express emotions implicitly (Liu, 2014).

Further, eight items were retained within the factor of *low expectancy for success.* Both item 10 ("I wish someone could tell me the best way to learn English.") and item 31 ("I hope someone can give me some tips on learning advanced English grammar.") were dropped due to poor loadings. While these two learning strategy-related items loaded on the factor of low expectancy for success in EFA, they are not ideal items in Study 2 since the criteria for variable inclusion are much more stringent in CFA.

Second Order Factor Model

The second-order CFA conducted in Study 2 does not seem to characterize L2 demotivation as a higher order construct comprising three subdimensions. In other words, items on the LPDS are not better represented by a second-order structure such that (overall) demotivation "causes" the lower order factors

of negative teacher behavior, loss of task value, and low expectancy for success. Therefore, the three dimensions should be regarded as separate to best capture the nuances of different demotivators. However, the results warrant further validation work, focusing on its causes and implications.

Potential Correlates with Demotivation

Demotivation and Academic Performance. While loss of task value and low expectancy for success were negatively correlated with academic performance, the factor of negative teacher behavior was positively correlated with academic performance.

Loss of task value and performance. Students' academic performance is determined by a marriage of variables. Among these is task-value. The items of *loss of task value* measure students' beliefs about intrinsic value, utility value, and cost of engaging in L2 learning. According to expectancy-value theory, subjective task values determine engagement and performance on achievement tasks. An increase in subjective value will lead to improved engagement and performance. Conversely, if these perceived task values decrease, individuals may be less likely to perform well (Eccles, 2009).

Low expectancy for success and performance. Similarly, academic failure is an unavoidable part in the lives of college students, and it can translate into individuals' expectancy-related beliefs. Students' expectancy beliefs are informed by their prior experiences (Eccles, 2009). If they try a task and experience repeated failure, then eventually they will not engage in the task out of low competence beliefs. When learners do not expect to perform well, they are unlikely to put forth their best endeavors and persistence needed to succeed. In other words, academic attainment is the direct function of their expectation of success.

Negative teacher behavior and performance. The factor of negative teacher behavior was positively correlated with academic performance, suggesting that high-achieving students are less tolerant of discouraging teacher behaviors. This could be explained by the constitution of the sample in which over 50% of the participants were high-achieving (based on their CET scores) females. Women are often considered more emotionally expressive and rely on interpersonal support to a greater extent.

Demotivation & Academic Self-efficacy. As hypothesized, academic self-efficacy was inversely correlated with all three demotivating factors: loss of task value, low expectancy for success, and negative teacher behavior.

Loss of task value and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy and task value are two major factors for understanding students' learning outcomes. If previous studies have demonstrated a positive relationship between task value and self-efficacy (e.g., Bong, 2001), by implication, loss of task value should be inversely correlated with self-efficacy.

Low expectancy for success and self-efficacy. Comparatively, self-efficacy is established through four sources—past performance, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and psychological states (Bandura, 1997). Among them, past performance with similar tasks is the most influential factor. Authentic mastery of a given task builds self-efficacy in students to manage similar tasks in the future. Alternatively, repeated failure impairs efficacy perceptions.

Negative teacher behavior and self-efficacy. Supportive teacher behavior can be multidimensional, teachers can show support by being responsive to all students and by showing passion to students' learning. Their involvement is the key to student learning outcomes such as academic self-

efficacy. Conversely, students' self-efficacy beliefs will be lowered if teachers are perceived as unsupportive.

General Discussion

Demotivation: Conceptual Framework

The Social Cognitive Theory Perspective. Bandura's (1986) SCT uncovers human learning in a social context, in which teachers play a part through modelling. SCT research has been of fascination to scholars due to its power in explaining human behavior, its practicality, and its applicability to human learning. Based on the results from the current study, while much motivation is intrinsic to the student, negative teacher behavior hampers the motivation and engagement of their students. For example, if teachers lack faith in their students or do not have high expectations of their students, in turn, socialized academic interests and expectations may influence perceived efficacy beliefs negatively. Although positive teacher behavior is not a panacea for all demotivation issues in the classroom, it is a powerful source of student engagement. When students perceive their teachers as apathetic, irresponsive, they are less likely to be interested and intrinsically motivated to pursue the task at hand.

Expectancy-Value Theory Perspective. Demotivation is multi-faceted, including students' achievement goals, personal and situational interests, efficacy beliefs, and self-determination. The combination of the variables generates two general sources of motivation: students' expectancy for success and the value that students attach to a learning task (e.g., Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). For example, students are more likely to engage if they expect to do well in English study and they value the task of learning English as a foreign language. Eccles and her colleagues argue that expectancy and value are influenced by task-specific beliefs (i.e., perceived difficulty) and individuals' goals, which in turn are affected by past achievement experiences. To be specific, if students keep failing in the process of English learning (previous achievement-related experiences), their future achievement-related choices (e.g., Will college EFL learners continue learning English once they are finished with all the required English classes?) are assumed to be influenced by the negative task characteristic. In addition, all choices have costs linked to them precisely because one choice often terminates others (e.g., spending more time on English learning means less time for fun campus life). Thus, the relative value and the expectancy for success are key predictors of choice.

Demotivation: Scale Development

In summary, the results of Study 1 and 2 suggest that the LPDS (see Appendix) is a psychometrically sound and theoretically valid measure of L2 demotivation. Results also indicate that: (a) college EFL students are demotivated for three different categories of reasons: *negative teacher behavior, loss of task value,* and *low expectancy for success,* (b) the construct of demotivation in general is multifaceted, (c) having high levels of demotivation (composite score) is linked to low performance and low self-efficacy, and (d) each dimension (subscales) can be separately treated to better capture the nuances of different demotivators. It would be desirable that the development of the LPDS will help spark a new line of research that explores the relationship between demotivation and other important psychological or educational constructs and concepts (e.g., self-efficacy and mindset).

Implications for Future Research

While supportive teacher behavior is consistently and positively correlated with student achievement gain (e.g., Brophy, 1988) in motivation research, negative teacher behavior was also positively correlated with performance in this study. This could be explained by: (a) the composition of the sample in which over 50% of the participants were high-achieving (based on their CET scores) females, and (b) the possible interaction effect between gender and performance on teacher behavior. A sense of relatedness and belongingness, such as students feeling respected and cared for by the teacher, facilitates intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Students who rate higher their need for relatedness have higher values for intrinsic goals such as personal growth, close relationship, and affiliation (Niemiec et al., 2009). By implication, it is plausible to assume that low-performing male students were more extrinsically motivated for English language learning and it is the extrinsic orientation leads to the low need for supportive teacher behavior. Further, Gibbons and Gaul (2004) found that girls placed significant importance on the opportunity to have a socially supportive learning environment. Girls prefer a learning environment that emphasizes cooperation and affiliation. However, further research is needed to demystify the relationship between negative teacher behavior and academic performance.

Implications for Practice

Why are some college EFL learners eager to engage in class whereas others show disinterest? Generally, psychological researchers have focused on intrapersonal cognitive processes and internal motivational factors like subjective task value (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986), and learning strategies (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). In addition to psychological research, educational researchers have suggested a wide array of teacher behaviors to promote student motivation. In the present study, we highlighted the relation of both intrapersonal qualities, and interpersonal relationships between teachers and students, to motivational outcomes. Consequently, these justify highlighting the following guidelines for practice:

Task Value Intervention through Interest Development. What students learn in school does not always appear to have relevance or value to their own lives. For example, students who major in traditional Chinese medicine may not see the value of learning English when considering their future career and life. Thus, when they are required to take classes that appear to have minimal practical use, they may find themselves uninterested regardless of educators' efforts to inspire. However, interest is the outcome of an interaction between a learner and a particular task. The potential for interest lies within the person, but the task and context moderate interest as well as its continued development (e.g., Hidi & Renninger, 2006). Thus, if a student has little prior personal interest in a learning task, the teacher is tasked with triggering initial, situational interest, in hopes that the temporary interest will gradually become more permanent and internalized. Repeated experiences of situational interest can have powerful and wide-ranging effects on how students think about the task at hand.

Promoting Student Engagement through Positive Teacher Behavior. Whereas many teaching behaviors may converge across different educational contexts, there appear to be some undeniably divergent teaching behaviors as well. Language is a systematic means of communication. EFL learners are expected to interact and communicate in the target language. However, one of the most visible differences of East Asian students is a low level of active in-class participation. Researchers have documented the fact that Asian students tend to be dependent learners turning to their teachers to take control of the class (e.g., Chan, 1999; Murphy, 1987). Further, in East Asian culture, teachers are well respected with wisdom, they are not only expected to promote learning but a role model as well (Hu, 2002). By implication, EFL learners in East Asia tend to have high expectations for teachers in terms of their motivational skills.

Limitations

Some limitations were present in the current study. Almost 80% of the participants in study 2 were average- or high-achieving students, making the conclusion drawn from the present study less applicable to a more diverse population. It is difficult to provide a comprehensive overview of demotivation on low-achieving students because they are less willing to participate. Self-reporting a low CET score in a survey can be re-traumatizing since it is a high-stakes test and failing means no bachelor's degree attainment. Additionally, this is the first study examining this instrument, and additional studies are needed to furnish more evidence of construct validity (Nataka et al., 2020). Before drawing any conclusions or implications based on the current second-order factor model, the model should be validated on an independent sample.

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Appendix

Learner Perceptions of Demotivators Scale (LPDS)

Please indicate your degree of agreement to the following sentences.
Strongly Agree = 4, Agree = 3, Disagree = 2, Strongly Disagree = 1

Statement	Strongly Agree 4	Agree 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
Item 1. I really want to master English, but I don't know how.				
Item 2. Learning English takes forever, and it may not get you anywhere.				
Item 3. I'm not interested in learning English at all.				
Item 4. I haven't found an effective way to learn English.				
Item 5. I don't see the value of learning English.				
Item 6. I struggle with improving my English writing skills.				
Item 7. English has no use for my major.				
Item 8. If learning English means losing a fun college life, I'll choose the latter one.				
Item 9. It's not clear to me why I have to learn English.				
Item 10. I have made many attempts to learn English, but I have not improved.				
Item 11. Reading comprehension articles are hard to understand.				
Item 12. I seriously don't know how to speak English fluently and confidently.				
Item 13. I take English class only because it's a required course.				
Item 14. English grammar is tough and confusing.				
Item 15. I wonder why English is needed in a monolingual country.				
Item 16. The only purpose of learning English is to pass all the exams.				
Item 17. I'm not aware of the strategies to improve my English listening skills.				

Note. Item 1, Item 4, Item 6, Item 10, Item 11, Item 12, Item 14, and Item 17 are for the factor of Low Expectancy for Success.
Item 2, Item 3, Item 5, Item 7, Item 8, Item 9, Item 13, Item 15, and Item 16 are for the factor of Loss of Task Value.
Higher scores indicate higher levels of demotivation.

Appendix (continued)

Please indicate the demotivating level to the following scenarios.
Very Demotivating = 4, Demotivating = 3, Not Demotivating = 2, Not Demotivating at all = 1

Statement	Very Demotivating	Demotivating	Not Demotivating	Not Demotivating at all
	4	3	2	1
Item 18. Teachers are not responsive to our learning needs.				
Item 19. Teachers seldom motivate us to learn.				
Item 20. Teachers don't have faith in their students.				
Item 21. Teachers don't have a strong sense of responsibility for the teaching job.				
Item 22. Teachers reward performance rather than learning.				
Item 23. Teachers are not inspiring or encouraging.				
Item 24. The learning objectives are not very clear for the class.				

Note. Item 18, Item 19, Item 20, Item 21, Item 22, Item23, and Item 24 are for the factor of Negative Teacher Behavior.
Higher scores indicate higher levels of demotivation.

