



PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

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Faculty of Letters and Languages

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Thesis

Submitted in Candidacy for the Degree of
“Doctorat es Sciences” in Applied linguistics
and Language Teaching

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Teacher and Student Perceptions of Motivational
Strategies in the Foreign Language Classroom
The Case Study of 1st Year Human Sciences Students at Souk-Ahras
University Centre, Souk-Ahras

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2016/2017



DEDICATION

To my Father and Mother

To my wife and sons

To my Brothers and Sisters

To my Teacher and Supervisor Pr.KESKES Said

To my closest and dearest Friends

To my colleagues and students at Mohamed Cherif Messaadia University

To all those who contributed in the elaboration of this thesis



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to thank Allah, the Merciful, for giving me strength and will to go through the process of completing this thesis. Secondly, I would like to thank my teacher and supervisor Pr. KESKES Said at *Mohamed Lamine Debbaghine University-Sétif 2* for his constant support, guidance, encouragement, dignified elegance, perseverance and more importantly for standing by us to make and see us succeed. No words would be sufficient to say how much respect and thanks I owe him.

I would like to thank all the students who collaborated by responding to the questionnaire. Also, my thanks are addressed to all the teachers who participated in this research study.

A special appreciation and thanks to the Board of Examiners for kindly accepting to read and evaluate my thesis.

Finally, my deepest thanks to my very supportive family mainly my mother and my wife.

ABSTRACT

The teacher's use of motivational strategies is generally believed to play a crucial role in enhancing students' motivation leading many researchers to investigate strategies which might impact students' motivation in English Foreign Language classrooms. However, little research has investigated perceptions of both EFL teachers and students. Yet, this thesis probes EFL teachers and students views about a number of motivational strategies used in EFL classrooms to find out how important they considered them in fostering students' motivation investigating any potential mismatches. A mixed methods approach was used to collect quantitative and qualitative data. Initially, a questionnaire concerning students' and teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies use was elaborated based on Dörnyei and Csizér's 1998 landmark study. It contained 39 statements and administered to 200 first year university Human Sciences students during the academic year 2014/2015. The same questionnaire was administered to 21 university teachers. The final stage of the research involved individual in-depth semi-structured interviews with six EFL teachers and six students to further explore key issues from these participants' viewpoints. The findings disclose that the role of teachers in motivating students in EFL classrooms is appreciated by both of them. However, there is a discrepancy in their beliefs about how the students should be motivated. Teachers believe strongly students are mainly motivated by strategies which make them active agents of their own learning. Therefore, they tend to focus on the strategies which emphasise learners' responsibility for learning. Equally important, teachers stress on increasing students' interest, using task and setting learning goals. Students, on the other hand, seem to be more motivated by strategies which relate to the behaviour of the teacher, learner autonomy, task, and the role of interest in the development of their FL motivation. Students also appear to value strategies that promote self-confidence. A key implication of this research is teachers and students alike agreed to play down the role of the strategies that relate to: classroom climate, group work, language culture and reward. Therefore, more research should be fostered to investigate and in depth such findings which seem to run in the opposite direction of what has been endorsed in the literature and previous studies to develop a more balanced view about the FL motivation and the strategies to be used in the FL classroom.

Key words: foreign language classroom, motivational strategies, perceptions, students, teachers

ملخص

ان استخدام الأستاذ للاستراتيجيات التحفيزية له دورا حاسما في تعزيز دافعية الطلاب لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية كما أشار له العديد من الباحثين من خلال دراستهم للاستراتيجيات التي تولد الدافعية لدى الطلاب في الفصول الدراسية و كيفية الحفاظ عليها. إلا أن البحوث التي تدرس تصورات كل من الأساتذة والطلاب في فصول اللغة الأجنبية تعتبر قليلة. توضح هذه الأطروحة وجهات نظر الأساتذة والطلاب حول الاستراتيجيات المحفزة المستخدمة في الفصول الدراسية للغة الأجنبية من أجل معرفة الاستراتيجيات التي تساعد أكثر في تعزيز دافعية الطلاب و البحث في حالات عدم التطابق المحتملة. لجمع البيانات الكمية والنوعية اعتمدنا عدة طرق. في البداية، تم إعداد استبيان خاص بتصورات الطلاب والأساتذة حول استخدام هذه الاستراتيجيات يتضمن 39 بندا بالاعتماد على دراسة دورناي وكيزر لعام 1998 وتوزيعه على 200 طالب في قسم العلوم الإنسانية بجامعة سوق أهراس خلال العام الدراسي 2015/2014. من جهة أخرى وزع نفس الاستبيان على 21 أستاذ جامعي. قمنا ايضا بإجراء مقبلات فردية معمقة مع ستة أساتذة و ستة طلبة من بين الذين شملهم الاستبيان من أجل الكشف بدقة عن النقاط الرئيسية من وجهات نظرهم بالإشارة إلى محتوى الاستبيان والأسئلة البحثية. كشفت نتائج البحث أن دور الأساتذة في تحفيز الطلاب في الفصول الدراسية يأتي في المركز الأول حسب رأي الطلاب والأساتذة على حد سواء. إلا أنهم اختلفوا في تحديد الاستراتيجيات المحفزة. حيث يعتقد الأساتذة أن الاستراتيجيات التي تجعل من الطلاب عناصر فاعلة في تعلمهم هي أساس الدافعية لديهم. وبالتالي فإنها تميل إلى التركيز على الاستراتيجيات التي تؤكد على مسؤولية واستقلالية الطلاب للتعلم مع التركيز أيضا و بنفس القدر من الأهمية على النشاط التعليمي و فائدته في زيادة دافعتهم، من ناحية أخرى يرى الطلاب أن الاستراتيجيات التي تتعلق بسلوك الأساتذة وجهود الطلاب وتعزيز الثقة بالنفس واستقلالية المتعلم لها دور كبير في تنمية الدافع للتعلم. الاستنتاج الرئيسي في هذا البحث هو أن كل من الأساتذة والطلاب اتفقوا على التقليل من فاعلية الاستراتيجيات المتعلقة بجو القسم، العمل الجماعي وثقافة اللغة. لذلك ينبغي تشجيع المزيد من البحوث في هذا السياق للتعلم في هذه النتائج التي تبدو مخالفة لما سبقها من الدراسات لتطوير رؤية أكثر توازنا حول الدافعية والاستراتيجيات المحفزة التي يجب استخدامها في الفصول الدراسية للغة الأجنبية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: استراتيجيات تحفيزية - تعليم اللغة الأجنبية - تصورات - الأساتذة - الطلاب.

RESUME

L'utilisation des stratégies de motivation par l'enseignant joue un rôle crucial dans l'amélioration de la motivation des étudiants. De nombreux chercheurs ont étudié les stratégies susceptibles de générer la motivation des étudiants dans une classe de langue étrangère. Cependant, peu de recherches ont étudié les perceptions des enseignants et des étudiants. Cette thèse explore les perceptions des deux acteurs quant aux stratégies de motivation utilisées afin de cibler les stratégies qui génèrent le plus la motivation et vérifient des éventuelles différences dans leurs opinions. L'étude se base sur des méthodes quantitatives et qualitatives. Un questionnaire portant sur les perceptions des étudiants et des enseignants a été élaboré sur la base de l'étude de Dörnyei et Kcsis (1998) contenant 39 éléments est distribué à 200 étudiants des Sciences Humaines en première année universitaire 2014/2015. Le même questionnaire a été adressé à 21 enseignants. La recherche a impliqué des entrevues individuelles avec six enseignants et six étudiants. Les résultats révèlent que le rôle de l'enseignant est apprécié par les deux acteurs. Toutefois, il y a quelques différences dans leurs visions. Les enseignants estiment que les étudiants sont motivés par des stratégies qui les rendent des agents actifs de leur propre apprentissage. Ils insistent aussi sur l'intérêt des étudiants en utilisant la tâche et fixant les objectifs d'apprentissage. Les étudiants semblent plus motivés par les stratégies ayant rapport avec le comportement de l'enseignant, l'autonomie, la tâche, l'intérêt suscitant leur motivation et la confiance en soi. L'une des principales conséquences de cette recherche est que les participants sous-estiment le rôle des stratégies rapportant au climat de la classe, le travail de groupe, la culture de la langue et la récompense. Ces conclusions semblent aller à l'encontre de ce qui a été endossé dans les études précédentes. De ce fait, plus de recherche est à encourager pour concevoir une vision plus équilibrée des stratégies de motivation utilisées.

Mots clés: stratégies de motivation, classe de langue étrangère, les enseignants, les étudiants, les perceptions

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CDs: Conceptual Domains

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EM: Extrinsic Motivation

FL: Foreign Language

IM: Intrinsic Motivation

L2: Second Language

MTP: Motivational Teaching Practice

MSs: Motivational Strategies

SDT: Self Determination Theory

SEM: Socio-Educational Model

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

A considerable number of studies in language learning have disclosed that motivation is a prominent factor in learning (e.g., Den Brok, Levy, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001a; Oxford, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). In the same vein, Dörnyei (2001a) has pointed out that regardless of learners' ability, aptitude and intelligence, with a strong motivation to learn a language, students will be able to learn effectively.

In fact, research has heavily concentrated on motivation and recently motivational research has shifted focus to include the crucial role of the teacher and the various practices and strategies that he or she utilises to motivate learners to learn the language. In this context, Bernaus has claimed "Even though a considerable amount of research on student affective variables has been accomplished, to date, relatively little research has been carried out on the factors that might affect students' motivation, such as the teacher." (1995:11).

In accordance with this, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) have stated that the amount of research on how to motivate students through the use of specific strategies or the application of theoretical knowledge centred in the real classroom has been relatively small in specific situations.

Recently, motivational research has placed much emphasis on data gathered from both teachers and learners to have a full view of the teaching and learning process of the language. As a consequence, research on motivation in second (L2) or foreign language (FL) learning has evolved and shifted focus from describing the composition of students' motivation to a detailed list of practical strategies to assisting teachers to boost their



students' motivation (e.g., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a; Williams & Burden, 1997).

The study at hand attempts to address students' motivation as a central issue to provide some insights into how university students and teachers perceive the most important teacher motivational strategies that influence students' motivation that ebbs and flows when learning English in the FL classroom. Their perceptions function as a mirror that can be used by teachers to reflect upon their teaching, hence stressing on the teacher motivational practices that are more influential on students' motivation and enhancing their educational outcome.

1. Background of the Study

The study of L2 learning motivation was initially influenced by Gardner and Lambert's (1959) pioneering social psychological approach. Their approach explains attitudes towards motivation for learning an L2 by integrating the social and individual psychology of learners. Central to this approach is the view of L2 motivation as a key factor which leads to L2 achievement but does not yield applications that are sufficiently helpful to L2 teachers. Nevertheless, it exerted a great deal of influence upon most of the subsequent motivation studies through bringing motivational issues to the attention of the L2 field.

Since the early 1990's and in line with the research need, L2 motivation research witnessed a significant change and has given enough thought to learner motivational change in relation to teacher influence by becoming more teacher-friendly and focussing more on the micro context in which L2 learning occurs highlighting the teacher's role in motivating students. A number of researchers have described ways in which FL/L2

teachers can intervene by suggesting strategies to promote students' motivation (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994a; Dörnyei, 2001a; Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999).

Along with the shift of focus on the research in FL/L2 motivation, a further development in the research into FL/L2 motivation emerges when the temporal nature of FL/L2 motivation is addressed, in addition to other researchers, by Dörnyei (2000) and Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). FL/L2 motivation is consequently viewed as being less static but continuously more dynamic and changing in nature depending on a number of variables along with the long process of FL/L2 learning.

Recently, Dörnyei (2001a) has developed a comprehensive framework of motivational strategies which teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) can use in FL/L2 classrooms to motivate learners throughout the learning process. In this framework, L2 motivational teaching practice is seen as a cyclic process, and is divided into four main dimensions. One of its strengths is that it is centred on theory as it is based on the 'Process-Oriented Model' proposed previously by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). In line with the latest developments in personality and motivation research, Dörnyei (2005) has broadened and elaborated on the Motivational Teaching Practice framework by introducing the L2 Motivational Self-System which synthesises previous research in L2 motivation and reforms it by adding some aspects of the 'self' research in psychology.

Throughout the development of FL/L2 motivation, the field of motivational psychology is characterised by a number of competing or partially overlapping theories that most of them attempt to explain nothing less than why people behave and think as they do, and human nature being a complex as it is (Dörnyei, 2000). That is, researchers in the field of motivation acknowledge the multidimensional and the dynamic nature of motivation and highlight the view that EFL teachers can play a significant role in generating and promoting their students' motivation by using effective motivational

strategies in their language classroom and being a significant part of the classroom environment.

2. Statement of the Problem

There is a growing agreement among teachers and researchers that motivation plays a key role in the success of the L2/FL language learning process (Dörnyei, 1998). FL/L2 motivation is needed to help learners expend and persist in their effort in an FL/L2 learning process which might extend over a long study period of time. It is highlighted as well that “without motivation even the brightest students who possess remarkable abilities cannot resist in the face of difficulties and attain any really useful language” (Dörnyei, 2010:74).

During our few years of experience as an EFL university teacher, we have noticed that the majority of students show less interest and motivation to study the English language. Besides, in an L2/FL language classroom, EFL university teachers are concerned about their students’ passivity and apparent lack of motivation when delivering lessons.

Having interviewed a number of colleagues about the issue, they replied they often encountered students with a considerable lack of motivation, especially when dealing with topics demanding more participation and practice due to their importance. Since, in the present study, the classroom setting we are exploring is a first year Human Sciences students at Souk-Ahras University and because the students’ voice is increasingly requested as one of the salient figures amongst stakeholders in the learning process, we surveyed a number of first year students who expressed the absence of motivation in their responses. As opposed to L2 learning contexts, the students’ one hour and a half contact a week with the FL as a compulsory curriculum subject in a non-supportive environment where communication in the FL scarcely occurs beyond the classroom walls seems to worsen the learning situation and cause further motivational problems.

Accordingly, Students' absence of motivation becomes a serious learning handicap over the course of the academic year, particularly at the expense of the desire to acquire knowledge and learn the language. Yet, we would question which motivational strategies do both teachers and students perceive as highly effective and should teachers employ in their own classrooms so as to overcome deficits in students' motivation which is subjected to permanent changes and to enhance and sustain their learning?

So, it makes sense to try and develop our understanding of motivation in learning and teaching contexts and more importantly to discover the teacher's role in motivating students through a set of motivational strategies. This thesis represents an effort in this direction.

3. Purpose of the Study

As stated previously in the background of the current study, motivation is one of the most important factors in language learning. That is why EFL teachers have always attempted to find new approaches or strategies that introduce practical uses of EFL in the classroom.

With this in mind, the primary concern of this cross-sectional study is to foster more effective implementation of a set of motivational strategies through a better understanding of their perceived importance of use in the FL classroom from teachers and students' perspectives and ultimately make students learn the English language.

A second underlying objective of this research is to expand EFL lecturers' awareness of the importance of students' motivation and motivational teaching strategies in this FL learning context and help them gain valuable insights into improving their teaching effectiveness and emphasising to them that they can influence students learning and motivation by their teaching strategies. Thirdly, this research is also intended to

contribute to the growing literature on effective teaching methodologies and teacher practices through offering a further support to the findings of earlier research studies. Finally, to probe additional cross-cultural differences in perceptions of motivational teaching practices in order to have a clear crystal vision of the situation and integrate effective instructional strategies to motivate students.

4. Research Methodology

The purposes enunciated above entail the resort to a mixed methods approach to collect quantitative and qualitative data. To begin with, a questionnaire was elaborated based on Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) landmark study to inquire into the teachers' beliefs and perceptions about motivational strategies use. The survey contained 39 statements and administered to 200 first year University students at the Department of Human Sciences. The same questionnaire was administered to 21 university teachers. The final stage of the research involved individual in-depth semi-structured interviews with six EFL teachers and six students amongst those surveyed in order to further explore key issues from these participants' viewpoints by making a special reference to the content of the questionnaire and the research questions.

5. Significance of the Study

As is assumed in the present study, EFL teachers are more interested than ever in finding ways of increasing students' involvement and engagement in learning activities in the foreign language classroom. A FL classroom influenced by the teacher as a prime source of the new language has a major impact on students' motivation and attitude towards learning.

Thus, teachers should be aware of motivational strategies and how they are central to students' motivation and interest in learning the English language since the findings and the proposed motivational teaching strategies in the literature may not be suitable or valid for all EFL teaching contexts and learning situations due to some cultural, ethnolinguistic and institutional setting factors. In this vein, "very little research has been done to answer a crucial question: Are the proposed techniques actually effective in language classrooms?" Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008:56).

An important aspect of L2 motivation research is studying the motivational strategies used by EFL teachers to enhance students' motivation (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013). This type of research links theory to practice by translating motivational theories into techniques and strategies which could be used by EFL teachers in the classrooms.

A strategy that is highly effective in one context of teaching and learning may not work at all in another context and vice versa. It has been emphasised that the teaching practices which might be seen as motivational in one context might be seen as less useful in another context due, in addition to the aforementioned mentioned ones, to other factors such as the personality of the individual learners and the teacher, as well as the composition and structure of the learner group (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

Therefore, further investigation into teacher perceptions about strategies which can contribute to promote FL/L2 motivation is required within our context in order to gain a more reliable understanding.

Moreover, there is a clear gap in the research which examines the views of both EFL teachers and students within the same context. Motivational strategies (MS) have been studied by many researchers and in different contexts, such as Hungary, Iran, Korea,

Saudi Arabia, Taiwan, and Turkey. Most of the research focuses on examining EFL teacher views about a number of motivational strategies (e.g., Alrabai, 2011; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013).

There is significantly less research probing the perceptions of the students about the effectiveness of particular motivational strategies. In addition, very little research has been conducted to compare the views of both students and teachers towards FL/L2 motivational strategies within the same context as argued previously in the introduction.

Furthermore, some of the teaching strategies proposed in the literature are derived from L2 learning and arise specifically from research in a western cultural context. It means that language is learnt in a location where that language is possibly used as tool of everyday communication for most people. This is not the case in the context of the present study. In this context, exposure to English may only happen in classrooms.

In an endeavour to address this lacuna and fill some of this gap or at least narrow it, this research investigates the perceptions of both EFL teachers and students in a university setting. This could reveal dissimilarities in their views towards motivational teaching practices, as teachers might implement strategies which are not perceived as being motivational by the students. In addition, teachers might neglect some motivational strategies which are valued by students.

Examining the views of both EFL teachers and students could give a much greater understanding of FL/L2 motivation and what strategies can contribute to it. This might help to introduce a balanced view of strategies that truly motivate students in the EFL classroom. As has previously been cited, students' lack of motivation is a major concern for language teachers and understanding how to promote it is crucial to the FL learning process.

It is expected that the research findings will contribute to an understanding of how to design a supportive but challenging teaching and learning environment that will motivate students, too.

6. Research Questions

In connection with the statement of the problem and the aim of this study, we have addressed the following research questions.

- a. Which motivational strategies do students identify as most important?
- b. Which motivational strategies do teachers perceive as most important?
- c. How do students' and teachers' perceptions compare?

7. Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis comprises eight Chapters along with an introduction and a conclusion. An introductory part is devoted to succinctly introduce the background of the present study, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study and its significance, the research methodology and a number of research questions.

The first three Chapters are devoted for theoretical issues and considerations as a literature review about motivation. Chapter one starts with defining affect and briefly introduces its role in language learning in addition to shedding some light on Krashen's affective filter hypothesis. Then, motivation will be defined and its sources will be described. Following this part, the different theories of motivation will be explored. Furthermore, a historical overview on motivation to learn an L2 /FL will be tackled in Chapter two.

The third Chapter deals with motivation and language teaching and the move from theory to practice. The major issues presented in this Chapter, in more details, are: motivational strategies, motivational strategies frameworks and studies examining MS. Chapter four brings out the research design and methodology of the present study which describes the research approaches, methods, procedures, samples and population.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 are devoted for the empirical surveys. The fifth Chapter is about the classification, findings, analyses, and interpretations of the “Teacher Questionnaire” in terms of their perceptions about MS use in the FL classroom. The sixth Chapter deals with the findings, analyses, and interpretations of student survey.

Chapter seven is about the classification, findings, analyses and interpretations of the “Teacher semi-structured interviews” and the “Student semi-structured interviews”. The last Chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data. Additionally, a summary of the research will be included. The general conclusion will embrace theoretical and pedagogical implications. It discusses as well the limitations of the study, and includes some suggestions for future research. Finally, a list of references and some appendices, as cited above, are added at the end of the thesis.

CHAPTER ONE

THEORETICAL ISSUES AND CONSIDERATIONS ABOUT MOTIVATION

Introduction

This chapter begins with defining affect and reviewing its role in language learning briefly and shedding some light on Krashen's affective filter hypothesis. Then, motivation will be defined and its sources will be described. Following this part, the different theories of motivation will be explored to have a global view of motivational theories and concepts. Key concepts are described with special reference to the different theories of motivation that endeavoured to explain this crucial component in individuals' behaviour and actions.

1.1. Definition of Affect

As an elusive construct, affect, has received various definitions from a number of specialists. In the context of the present study, we have restricted ourselves to the most relevant ones.

Arnold and Brown (1999:1) define affect in terms of "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour". In addition, Arnold (2011) indicated that a useful conceptualisation of affect that fits into the language classroom context is reflected in the comment expressed by Stevick (1980:4) "Success [in language learning] depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom". The inside and between is basically what affect is about: on the one hand, the individual or personality factors (self-concept/self-esteem, anxiety, inhibition, attitudes, motivation, learner styles...) which we can consider as inside the learner, and on the other, the relational aspects which develop between the participants

in the classroom – between students or between teacher and students - or possibly between learners and the target language and culture.

Moreover, Schumann (1994 cited in Arnold 2009:146) “affirms that neurologically speaking, affect is part of cognition”. He explains “One reason for this is that an affectively positive environment puts the brain in the optimal state for learning: minimal stress and maximum engagement with the material to be learned”. In the opinion of MacIntyre and Noels (1996), affect is considered to be one of the most influential factors in language learning. In the same vein, Hurd (2008) stated that Oxford (1990: 140) in her seminal book on language learning strategies, asserts that “the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning success or failure”. She adds that “... negative feelings can stunt progress, even for the rare learner who fully understands all the technical aspects of how to learn a language. On the other hand, positive emotions and attitudes can make language learning far more effective and enjoyable”.

In brief, there is an emerging consensus on the primacy of affect in learning and that language learning is greatly enhanced by attention to affective aspects (Arnold, 1999).

1.2. Role of Affect in Language Learning

It is well known among L2/FL teachers and researchers as well that affective variables are no less important than cognitive ones in L2 learning. Affective aspects of FL learning are a complex area whose importance is now well established. In line with this, Gardner (2001:1) stated that “Concepts like attitudes, motivation and anxiety were not considered to be important at all. Today, much of this has changed, and one sometimes gets the impression that affective variables are considered to be the only important ones”.

In fact, the number of affective learner factors considered in research is increasing and new learner emotional characteristics are emerging as potentially important in order to understand and explain the process of language learning. In this context ,Bernaus has stated “A considerable amount of research has been directed at investigating the influence of student affective variables with respect to both on second or foreign language acquisition and their interaction with cognitive variables. Among others, attitudinal and motivational variables in second or foreign language acquisition have been identified as relevant factors and as predictors of students’ language achievement.” (1995:11).

In a similar way, it has been indicated that interest in affective factors in education is not new. According to Arnold and Brown (1999) and Bernaus (2010), it was already implicit in the writings of Dewey, Montessori, and Vygotsky in the first part of the 20th century, and it gained importance with the growth of the humanistic psychology. Significantly enough, Eccles, Wigfield, and Schiefele (1998, cited in Dörnyei, 2000:520) have stated “As we approach the 21st century, the role of the affect and less conscious processes is reemerging as a central theme. Complementing this more complex view of the psychology of motivation, researchers interested in the contextual influences on motivation are also adopting more complex and multicontextual frameworks.”

Indeed, motivational research witnessed a voluminous wealth of publications and rich literature on a variety of motivational frameworks devised for purposes of generating, maintaining and promoting students’ motivation. Some of these so-called motivational frameworks will be tackled in the next chapter of the dissertation.

Yet, affect came to be considered as a very important contributing factor to success in learning than cognitive learner abilities. Accordingly, Stern (1983, cited in Arnold,

2011:13) wrote that “the affective component contributes at least as much and often more to language learning than the cognitive skills”.

In sum, Arnold (2011) has cited that positive affect can provide invaluable support for learning just as negative affect can close down the mind and prevent learning from occurring altogether. In fact, this seems to go with Krashen’s (1985a) metaphor of the affective filter, who warns about the problems created for learning by the negative affective reactions.

1.3. Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis and Affect in Language Learning

As introduced previously, the construct of affect and its relationship to second language learning is well-known. One of the main concepts that appeared early in the second language literature is what is known as “the Affective Filter”.

In his theory of second language acquisition, Krashen (1985a) proposed the affective filter hypothesis. This hypothesis stipulates that motivation is one of the affective variables that play a facilitative, but non-causal role in L2 acquisition. Krashen (1985b) claims that students with high motivation and low anxiety are better disposed to acquire an L2. However, low motivation and high anxiety can all together raise the affective filter and lead into a “mental block” that prevents “comprehensible input” from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is “up,” it makes the individual unreceptive to language input and hinders language acquisition.

Hence, what one concludes is that affect does play a very important role in L2 acquisition. It needs to be taken into consideration by L2 teachers and they have to make sure that the learner’s affective filter is low at all times in order for proper learning to take place since a high affective filter acts as a barrier to language input and is responsible for

the extent to which the learner's acquisition is affected by specific factors such as anger, anxiety or motivation.

1.4. Definitions of Motivation

Although the word “motivation” might appear, at first glance, simple and easy; it is in fact very difficult to define. In the literature on motivation, very rarely is one single, integrated definition of motivation included. Thus, it seems to have been impossible for theorists to reach consensus on a single definition and has urged us to provide a plethora of definitions. “Motivation, like the concept of gravity, is easier to describe (in terms of its outward, observable effects) than it is to define. Of course, this has not stopped people from trying it.” Martin Covington (1998, cited in Dörnyei, 2001a:7). “I begin by making the obvious observation that motivation is a very complex phenomenon with many facets.”(Gardner, 2007: 10).

In the same vein, Madrid (2002:371) indicated “When we employ the term “motivation”, we should be aware of its limitations and problems”. Then, he adds “we cannot directly observe a person's motivation; all we can observe is that person's behaviour and the environment in which (s) he acts.”(P: 371).

Zimmerman and Schunk (2001) have stated that “The issue of motivation is a complex one that must be considered at several levels.”(P: 23). Very simply, “Motivation cannot be explained by a single definition. Because of the complexity in defining the term, there has been a paradigm shift in our understanding of motivation over the last 50 years.” (Nakata, 2006: 24).

According to Gardner (1985), motivation is concerned with the question, “Why does an organism behave as it does?” Moreover, “motivation involves four aspects: a goal,

an effort, a desire to attain the goal, and a favorable attitude towards the activity in question” (Gardner, 1985:50). Motivation is also defined as “the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts” Ames and Ames (1989, cited in Ngeow, 1998:1). It is important because it “determines the extent of the learner’s active involvement and attitude toward learning” (Ngeow, 1998: 1).

Interestingly, many researchers consider motivation as one of the main elements that determine success in developing an L2 or a FL. In line with this, Csizer and Dörnyei (2005) assert that motivation is one of the key factors that determine the rate and success of L2 attainment! overriding learners’ innate aptitudes for language learning. According to Oxford and Shearin (1994), motivation determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning. In Pintrich and Schunk’s view, motivation involves various mental processes that lead to the initiation and maintenance of action; as they define it, “Motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (1996, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:122).

Dörnyei comments, “Although ‘motivation’ is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of the concept” (1998:117). Researchers still do not agree on its components and the different roles that these components play. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) point out that, even though almost every text has a chapter on motivation, it is used more as a general catch-all rather than a precise construct. McDonough (1981, cited in Keblawi., 2009) refers to the term ironically, calling it a dustbin that is used to “include a number of possibly distinct components, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment”.

Dörnyei (2001:9) argues that “motivation is indeed an umbrella-term involving a wide range of different factors”. According to him, this explains why researchers disagree about everything that relates to the concept of motivation; spending huge efforts in the past to reduce the multitude of potential determinants of human behaviour by identifying a relatively small number of key variables that would explain a significant proportion of the variance in people’s action.

Heckhausen (1991, cited in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998:64) sees motivation as “a global concept for a variety of processes and effects whose common core is the realisation that an organism selects a particular behaviour because of expected consequences, and then implements it with some measure of energy, along a particular path”. Weinstein, Husman and Dierking (2000, cited in Yunbao, Y., Huaying, Huaying Z., & Jianghui, W., 2009:89) provided similar features for motivation. In their terms, motivation has the key features of being: “goal directed”; “intentionally invoked”; and “effort demanding”.

Similarly, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) noted that people may have a variety of wishes, hopes and desires which remain “day dreams” unless the people are motivated to convert the dreams into realities. “In a general sense, motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or un successfully) acted out”(p:65). Dörnyei (2001) later described how desires are converted into goals then into intentions before accomplishment of the goal and finally the achievement is evaluated.

Dörnyei (2001) highlighted the importance of effort on the part of the language learner, noting that in the classroom all have an equal chance to succeed in learning language and those who are successful expend effort in doing so. He also noted there was a

potential negative side to emphasise language aptitude. Ushioda (2008:19) provided a simple definition by saying, “we might say that motivation concerns what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, and to persist in action.”

Other L2 motivation researchers provide an elaborate definition of motivation, “Motivation may be construed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)” (Williams & Burden, 1997 cited in Dörnyei, 1998:126). Another definition cited by Brown (1990:384) as a synthesis of numerous definitions offered by cognitive psychologists in which he expressed: “Let me define motivation as the extent to which you will make choices about (1) goals to pursue, and (2) the effort you will devote to that pursuit.

In Maehr and Meyer’s words (1997, cited in Brophy, 2010) “Motivation is a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour” (p: 3). Motivation is also defined as “the process that initiates, directs and sustains behaviour to satisfy physiological and psychological needs” Arkes (1981, cited in Zuria M., & Mohammed Y., 2007:94). Madrid (2002) provides the following definition “The term motivation is usually defined as the set of processes which involve the arousal, direction, and sustaining of behaviour” (pp: 370,371).

Very recently, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) stated that “The word motivation derives from the Latin verb *movere* meaning ‘to move’. What moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expend effort and persist in action – such basic questions lie at the heart of motivation theory and research”. They added that “these deceptively simple questions have generated a wealth of theory and research over the

decades, provoked considerable debate and disagreement among scholars, spawned numerous theoretical models encompassing different variables and different understandings of the construct of motivation, and produced few clear straightforward answers.”(P: 11).

Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) define the term motivation as follows “Perhaps the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it, by definition, concerns the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behaviour, that is: the *choice* of a particular action, the *persistence* with it, the *effort* expended on it. In other words, motivation is responsible for *why* people decide to do something, *how* long they are willing to sustain the activity, *how* hard they are going to pursue it.”(P: 12).

Finally, we come up to the conclusion that although the concept of motivation has received a myriad of definitions due to the absence of a universal consensus, many researchers acknowledge it as one of the key predictors of success in L2/FL learning and that large quantity of research has been carried out in order to probe what constitutes motivation and how it functions. Despite the fact that there is a discrepancy amongst them regarding exactly what encompasses motivation but by basing ourselves on the preceding definitions, we can come up with the following: motivation involves a goal, an effort, a desire, energy, active involvement, and persistence.

1.5. Sources of Motivation

The role of motivation in explaining people’s behaviours and actions is undeniable as all researchers and scholars agree about the crucial importance of motivation. Gardner (2001) states that “There is considerable interest today in the notion of motivation to learn a second or foreign language, but it wasn’t always this way.” (P: 1). However, what

researchers and scholars seem to disagree about are the sources of motivation, its mechanisms, its aspects, and how to promote it.

The reason behind this disagreement lies in the fact that human behaviour is of such a complexity and instability resulting from the influence of surrounding factors. In this vein, Dörnyei (2001a) states that human behaviour is very complex, influenced by a great number of factors ranging from basic physical needs through well-being needs to higher level values and beliefs. In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2001a) adds “The term ‘motivation’ is a convenient way of talking about a concept which is generally seen as a very important human characteristic but which is also immensely complex.”(P: 6).

In fact, “Without knowing where the roots of motivation lie, how can teachers water those roots?” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994:15). According to Fisher (1990), educational psychologists point to three major sources of motivation in learning: the learners’ natural interest – intrinsic satisfaction; the teacher / institution / employment – extrinsic reward; and success in the task combining satisfaction and reward.

Intrinsic motivation deals with acts or behaviour performed to experience pleasure or satisfying one’s curiosity, whereas extrinsic motivation involves a behaviour to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades, employment) or to avoid punishment and it can serve as an interim source of motivation for a demotivated learner. A student who is intrinsically motivated undertakes an activity “for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes” Mark Lepper (1988, cited in lumsden, 1994:1). Interestingly, Ryan and Deci (2000) consider intrinsic motivation as the most important kind and point out that “intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence” (P: 56).

Furthermore, according to Littlejohn (2001) “While teachers and school systems have drawn on both of the first two sources of motivation, the third source is perhaps under-exploited in language teaching. This is the simple fact of success, and the effect that this has on our view of what we do. As human beings, we generally like what we do well, and are therefore more likely to do it again, and put in more effort” (P: 6). More importantly, Littlejohn (2001) added “In the classroom, this can mean that students who develop an image of themselves as ‘no good at English’ will simply avoid situations which tell them that they aren’t any good at English...a self-perception of low ability leads to low motivation – low effort – low achievement – low motivation – low achievement, and so on”.

1.6. Theories of Motivation

The long history of motivation research has witnessed the development of many motivation theories, each of which has been put forward in an attempt to define motivation, and all of them describe motivation as complex construct. Each theory, however, considers motivation from a different perspective as it seeks to provide a comprehensive description of this phenomenon. Furthermore, each of these approaches presents a number of concepts that are related in one way or another to motivation, and very often, the same concept or component is found under more than one approach. This is, in fact, evident that no single approach to motivation can provide a full image of what motivation is because of its multidimensionality. In this respect, Hogan (2004) says “Despite the importance of motivational terms for explaining social behaviour, the concept of motivation is badly muddled.”(P: 6).

Motivation has been explained in terms of different theories: the behavioural, cognitive, cognitive developmental, achievement motivation, psychoanalytic, humanistic, social cognition and transpersonal/spiritual theories. In our study, we limit ourselves only to the most common ones.

1.6.1. Behavioural Theories

According to the behaviorists, motivation is explained in terms of external stimuli and reinforcement. The physical environment and actions of the teacher are of prime importance. For instance, if the teacher compliments a student for a good comment during a discussion, there is more of a chance that the teacher will hear comments from the student more often in the future. Three theories fall under the umbrella of the behavioural. Firstly, there is the Classical Conditioning (Pavlov). This theory states that biological responses to associated stimuli energize and direct behaviour. Secondly, we have Instrumental/Operant Learning (Skinner).

This theory states that the primary factor is consequences: reinforcers are incentives to increase behaviour and punishers are disincentives that result in a decrease in behaviour. Thirdly, there is Observational/Social Learning (Bandura). This theory suggests that modeling (imitating others) and vicarious learning (watching others have consequences applied to their behaviour) are important motivators of behaviour. In this vein, Mortimore (1993) stated “American research on learning theory has long been much influenced by behaviourism. Work by psychologists such as Thorndike (1898), Skinner (1938) and Hull (1952) and social theorists such as Bandura (1974) has contributed to the view that learning can occur simply as a result of a response to a particular stimulus.”(P: 292). Weiner (1990) points out that behavioural theories tend to focus on extrinsic motivation (rewards) whereas cognitive theories deal with intrinsic motivation.

1.6.2. Humanistic Theories of Motivation

Humanists stress the need for personal growth. They place a great deal of emphasis on the total learner. They also maintain that learners need to be empowered and have control over the learning process. The teacher becomes a facilitator. Three theories fall under the umbrella of the “humanistic” theories of learning. These are:

1.6.2.1. Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy (Maslow, 1954)

The Hierarchy of Human Needs is the best-known humanistic theory of motivation. It is based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before moving to the next higher level. The first four levels (**Deficiency Needs**) are: Physiological hunger, thirst, bodily comforts, etc.; safety/security. Out of danger; belonging and love. Affiliate with others, be accepted; and esteem. To achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition.

Therefore, according to Maslow, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs if and only if the deficiency needs are met. The remaining four levels (**Growth Needs**) are: Cognitive. To know, to understand, and explore; aesthetic. Symmetry, order, and beauty; self-actualisation. To find self-fulfillment and realise one’s potential; self-actualised people are characterised by: Being problem-focused; appreciating life; showing concern about personal growth; showing ability to have peak experiences. Transcendence, to help others find self-fulfillment and realise their potential. The essence of the hierarchy is the notion of “pre-potency”, which means that you are not going to be motivated by any higher-level needs until your lower level ones have been satisfied.

1.6.2.2. Hierarchy of Motivational Needs (Alderfer, 1972)

Maslow recognised that not all personalities followed his proposed hierarchy. While a variety of personality dimensions might be considered as related to motivational needs, one of the most often cited is that of introversion and extroversion.

Reorganising Maslow's hierarchy based on the work of Alderfer and considering the introversion/extroversion dimension of personality results in three levels, each with an introverted and extroverted component. This organisation suggests that there may be two aspects of each level that differentiate how people relate to each set of needs. Different personalities might relate more to one dimension than the other. For example, an introvert at the level of other/relatedness might be more concerned with his or her own perceptions of being included in a group, whereas an extrovert at that same level would pay more attention to how others value that membership.

1.6.3. Self Determination Theory (SDT)

The SDT is one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 2003, 2005). The theory distinguishes between two kinds of motivations: intrinsic and extrinsic. The first refers to an individual's motivation to perform a particular activity because of internal rewards such as joy, pleasure and satisfaction of curiosity. Whereas in extrinsic motivation the individual expects an extrinsic reward such as good grades or praise from others.

According to this theory, external regulation refers to actions that individuals pursue and that are determined by sources that are external to the individual, such as tangible benefits and costs. If learning the language is made for such an external incentive and this incentive is removed the activity of learning will halt. The second, less external

regulation, is introjected regulation, which refers to activities performed due to some external pressure that the individual has incorporated into the self. This is still not a self-determined activity since it has an external rather than an internal source. For example, a person who learns the language in order not to feel ashamed if he does not know it. At the end of the continuum, resides the identified regulation. Individuals who possess such a regulation are driven by personally relevant reasons in which the activity is important for achieving a valued goal.

Recently, Noels (2000) and her colleagues, referring to Vallerand (1997) and later works by Vallerand and colleagues (1997), classify the two types of motivations, within education, into different categories. The intrinsic motivation could be one of three kinds: Intrinsic Motivation-Knowledge (the pleasure of knowing new things), Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment (the pleasure of accomplishing goals), and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation (the pleasure sensed when doing the task).

Another concept that is fundamental to the self-determination theory is the concept of amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000:237). Amotivation, or learned helplessness, is the situation in which people lack the intention to behave. They see no relation between the efforts they make and the outcomes they get. This happens when they lack self efficacy or a sense of control on the desired outcome.

1.6.3.1. Dichotomy of Intrinsic Motivation versus Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation have been widely studied, and the distinction between them has shed important light on both developmental and educational practices. In our study, we revisit the classic definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in light of contemporary research and theory. Intrinsic motivation remains an important construct, reflecting the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate.

However, extrinsic motivation is argued to vary considerably in its relative autonomy and thus can either reflect external control or true self-regulation. The relations of both classes of motives to basic human needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are also discussed.

According to the SDT, to be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterised as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energised or activated towards an end is considered motivated. Everyone who works or is in contact with others is concerned with motivation. How much motivation every person has for a task and how to foster it is a question that practitioners face.

In Ryan and Deci's (2000) view, people have not only different amounts, but also different kinds of motivation. That is, they vary not only in level of motivation (i.e., how much motivation), but also in the orientation of that motivation (i.e., what type of motivation). Orientation of motivation concerns the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action—that is, it concerns the why of actions. In accordance with the theory, this can be well exemplified as follows: a student can be highly motivated to do homework out of curiosity and interest or, alternatively, because he or she wants to procure the approval of a teacher or parent. A student could be motivated to learn a new set of skills because he or she understands their potential utility or value or because learning the skills will yield a good grade and the privileges a good grade affords. In these examples, the amount of motivation does not necessarily vary, but the nature and focus of the motivation being evidenced certainly does.

Under the SDT, Deci and Ryan (2000) distinguish between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. However, the most crucial distinction is between intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome.

1.6.3.1. a. Intrinsic Motivation (IM)

IM is defined as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:56). This means that the intrinsically motivated person is moved to act for something without any external pressures or rewards.

According to White (1959, cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:56) “The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behaviour, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward”.

“In humans, intrinsic motivation is not the only form of motivation, or even of volitional activity, but it is a pervasive and important one. From birth onward, humans, in their healthiest states, are active, inquisitive, curious, and playful creatures, displaying a ubiquitous readiness to learn and explore, and they do not require extraneous incentives to do so” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:56). This means that when someone acts on his or her inherent interests that person develops in terms of knowledge and skills.

Although, in one sense, IM exists within individuals, in another sense IM exists in the relation between individuals and activities. People are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any particular task. Ryan and Deci (2000) have stated that because IM exists in the relation between a person

and a task, some authors have defined IM in terms of the task being interesting while others have defined it in terms of the satisfactions a person gains from intrinsically motivated task engagement. In part, these different definitions derive from the fact that the concept of IM was proposed as a critical reaction to the behavioural theories which have already been mentioned and which were dominant in empirical psychology from the 1940s to the 1960s and which have maintained that all behaviours are motivated by rewards (i.e., by separable consequence such as food or money), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones for which the reward was in the activity itself. Thus, researchers investigated what task characteristics make an activity interesting. In contrast, because learning theory asserted that all behaviours are motivated by physiological drives (and their derivatives), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones that provided satisfaction of innate psychological needs. Thus, researchers explored what basic needs are satisfied by intrinsically motivated behaviours.

The approach of the SDT focuses primarily on psychological needs—namely, the innate needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness—but at the same time it recognises that basic need satisfaction accrues in part from engaging in interesting activities. This is the reason why, they speak of intrinsically interesting activities and tasks that many people find to be intrinsically interesting. The theory states that there is considerable practical utility in focussing on task properties and their potential intrinsic interest, as it leads toward improved task design or selection to enhance motivation.

1.6.3.1. b. Extrinsic Motivation (EM)

EM is a second form of motivation set by the SDT. Although IM is clearly an important type of motivation, most of the activities people do are not, strictly speaking, intrinsically motivated.

Ryan and Deci (2000:60) identify EM as “a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome”. That is, this type of motivation is very often related to the presence of external factors. EM thus contrasts with IM, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value.

Yet, viewing EM from this angle may mean that the autonomy component is rather absent from this type of motivation. However, SDT proposes that EM can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) illustrate clearly this point by exemplifying as follows: a student who does his homework only because he fears parental sanctions for not doing it is extrinsically motivated because he is doing the work in order to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, a student who does the work because she personally believes it is valuable for her chosen career is also extrinsically motivated because she too is doing it for its instrumental value rather than because she finds it interesting.

They further add that both examples involve instrumentalities, yet the latter case entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the former involves mere compliance with an external control. Both represent intentional behaviour, but the two types of EM vary in their relative autonomy. Given that, many of the educational activities prescribed in schools are not designed to be intrinsically interesting, a central question concerns how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own. “This problem is described within SDT in terms of fostering the internalisation and integration of values and behavioural regulations” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:60).

Internalisation is defined in the SDT as the process of taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self. The concept of internalisation is thought of as a continuum that describes how one's motivation for behaviour can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. With increasing internalisation (and its associated sense of personal commitment) come greater persistence, more positive selfperceptions, and better quality of engagement.

Within SDT a second subtheory, referred to as Organismic Integration Theory, was introduced to detail the different forms of EM and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder internalisation and integration of the regulation for these behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 1985 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:61). Figure one below illustrates the taxonomy of Organismic Integration Theory types of motivation, arranged from left to right in terms of the extent to which the motivation for one's behaviour emanates from one's self.

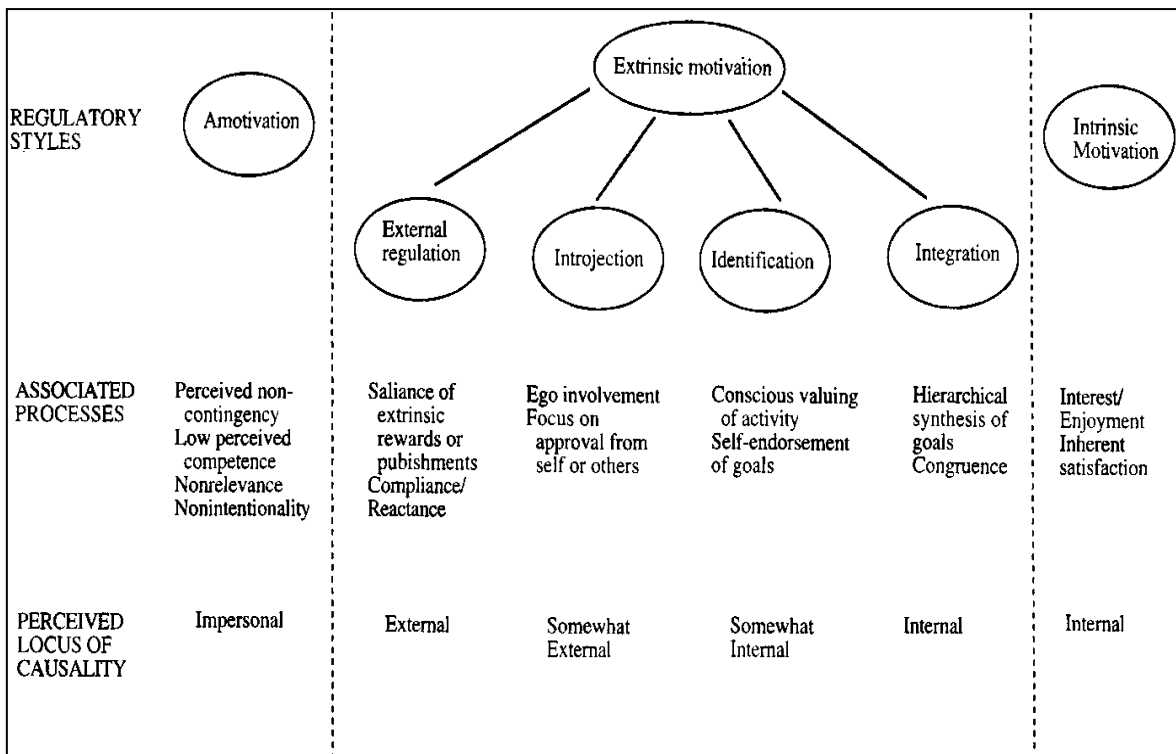


Figure 1: Taxonomy of Human Motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000:60)

As displayed on Figure 1 mentioned on the current page, at the far left is amotivation, which is the state of lacking an intention to act. “Amotivation results from not valuing an activity” (Ryan, 1995 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000: 61), “not feeling competent to do it” (Deci, 1975 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:61), “or not believing it will yield a desired outcome” (Seligman, 1975 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000). To the right of amotivation, one can see various types of motivation have been organised by Ryan and Deci to reflect their differing degrees of autonomy or self-determination.

Just to the right of amotivation, is a category that represents the least autonomous forms of EM, a category that Deci and Ryan label as external regulation. Such behaviours are performed to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency. “Individuals typically experience externally regulated behavior as controlled

or alienated, and their actions have an external perceived locus of causality” (EPLOC; deCharms, 1968 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:62).

According to the SDT, external regulation is the only kind of motivation recognised by operant theorists and it is this type of EM that was typically contrasted with IM in early lab studies and discussions. A second type of EM is introjected regulation. Introjection describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride.

A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of EM is regulation through identification. Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of a behaviour and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own. A boy who memorises spelling lists because he sees it as relevant to writing, which he values as a life goal, has identified with the value of this learning activity.

Finally, the most autonomous form of EM is integrated regulation. In line with the SDT, integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one’s other values and needs. The more one internalises the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, the more one’s extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined. Integrated forms of motivation share many qualities with IM, being both autonomous and unconflicted. However, they are still extrinsic because behaviour motivated by integrated regulation is done for its presumed instrumental value with respect to some outcome that is separate from the behaviour, even though it is volitional and valued by the self.

From Figure 1 mentioned on page 31 previously, it can be seen that IM is placed at the far right hand end. According to the SDT, this placement emphasises that IM is a prototype of self-determined activity.

In the opinion of the SDT, Ryan and Deci (2000) state that “the process of internalisation is developmentally important, as social values and regulations are continually being internalised over the life span”. SDT explains that some behaviours could begin as introjects, others as identifications. It provides the following examples to enhance our understanding. A person might originally get exposed to an activity because of an external regulation (e.g., a reward), and (if the reward is not perceived as too controlling) such exposure might allow the person to experience the activity’s intrinsically interesting properties, resulting in an orientation shift. Or a person who has identified with the value of an activity might lose that sense of value under a controlling mentor and move “backward” into an external regulatory mode. Thus, while there are predictable reasons for movement between orientations, there is no necessary “sequence.” Developmental issues are, however, evident in two ways: (1) the types of behaviours and values that can be assimilated to the self increase with growing cognitive and ego capacities and (2) it appears that people’s general regulatory style does, on average, tend to become more “internal” over time, in accord with the general organismic tendencies towards autonomy and self-regulation (Ryan, 1995 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Ryan and Connell (1989, cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000) tested the formulation that these different types of motivation do indeed lie along a continuum of relative autonomy. They found that the four types of regulation were intercorrelated according to a quasi-simplex (ordered correlation) pattern, thus providing evidence for an underlying continuum

of autonomy. Subsequent studies have extended these findings concerning types of extrinsic motivation.

“Because extrinsically motivated behaviors are not inherently interesting and thus must initially be externally prompted, the primary reason people are likely to be willing to do the behaviors is that they are valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected, whether that be a family, a peer group, or a society. This suggests that the groundwork for facilitating internalisation is providing a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture disseminating a goal, or what in SDT we call a sense of relatedness” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:64).

In classrooms context, this means that students’ feeling respected and cared for by the teacher is essential for their willingness to accept the proffered classroom values. In support of this, Ryan, Stiller, and Lynch (1994, cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000) found that relatedness to teachers (and parents) was associated with greater internalisation of school-related behavioural regulations.

A second issue in SDT concerns perceived competence. Adopting as one’s own an extrinsic goal requires that one feel efficacious with respect to it. Students will more likely adopt and internalise a goal if they understand it and have the relevant skills to succeed at it. Thus, in SDT, they theorise that supports for competence (e.g., offering optimal challenges and effectance-relevant feedback) facilitate internalisation.

According to the SDT approach, a regulation that has been internalised may be only introjected, and that type of regulation could well leave people feeling satisfaction of their needs for competence and relatedness. However, to only introject a regulation and thus to be controlled by it will not leave the people feeling self-determined. Consequently, the SDT suggests that autonomy support also facilitates internalisation; in fact, it is the critical

element for a regulation being integrated rather than just introjected. Controlling contexts may yield introjected regulation if they support competence and relatedness, but only autonomy supportive contexts will yield integrated self-regulation. To fully internalise a regulation, and thus to become autonomous with respect to it, people must inwardly grasp its meaning and worth. It is these meanings that become internalised and integrated in environments that provide supports for the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy.

1.7. Attribution Theory

The attribution theory of student motivation was largely influential in the 1980s (Dörnyei, 2003). The uniqueness of the theory stems from its ability to link individuals' achievements to past experiences through the establishment of causal attributions as the mediating link. "The theory does not look at the experiences that people undergo but at how they are perceived by people themselves" (Williams & Burden, 1997:104). Broadly speaking, the theory hypothesises that the reasons to which individuals attribute their past successes or failures shape to a great extent their motivational disposition (Dörnyei, 2001). In a school context, learners tend to ascribe their failure or success (locus of causality) to a number of reasons: ability and effort, luck, task difficulty, mood, family background, and help or hindrance from others. The previously cited reasons can be placed on a continuum of internal vs. external reasons depending on whether the individuals see themselves or others as the causes of their actions. Locus of control, however, refers to peoples' perception of how much they are in control of their actions.

In a classroom environment, the importance of the kind of attribution is of special significance. This can be exemplified in the following way. On the one hand, if learners attribute their failure to a lack of ability which is considered as an internal cause over

which they have no control, then their motivation to learning the language is likely to decrease or even vanish completely. If, on the other hand, they believe that their failure is the result of their laziness or lack of effort that is seen as an internal cause over which they have control, then they have good chances to increase their motivation if they double their efforts. In Weiner's words "Attribution theory is now ending its third decade as a dominant conception in motivation, social psychology, and educational psychology. To survive this length of time indicates that it not only has had strong empirical support, but also that it has been responsive to empirical challenges and has changed in order to meet objections and problems". (2000:1).

1.8. Expectancy-Value Theories

In motivational psychology the most influential conceptualisations during the last four decades have tended to adopt an expectancy-value framework, beginning with Atkinson's classic achievement motivation theory (e.g. Atkinson & Raynor, 1974 cited in Dörnyei, 1998) and subsequently further developed in various guises by a number of researchers. Expectancy-value theories state that motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors: Firstly, the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and secondly the value the individual attaches to success in that task.

In Dörnyei's (1998) words "The greater the perceived likelihood of goal-attainment and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation" (p: 119). By contrast, if either factor is missing it is unlikely that effort will be invested in a task. In other words, if the individual is convinced that he/she cannot succeed no matter how hard he/she tries or if the task does not lead to valued outcomes then effort will not be invested in the task.

1.8.1. Expectancy of Success

An interesting question can be raised in the vein of expecting success. How does an individual develop his or her expectancy for success? In fact, researchers emphasise various different factors that form the individual's cognitive processes such as processing past experiences, judging one's own abilities and competence, and attempting to maintain one's self-esteem. Attributional processes are one of the most important influences on the formation of students' expectancies. The guiding principle in attribution theory as it has been cited previously stresses on the way humans explain their own past successes and failures that will significantly affect their future achievement behaviour. For example, failure that is ascribed to stable and uncontrollable factors such as low ability decreases the expectation of future success more than failure that is ascribed to controllable factors such as effort (Weiner, 1979 cited in Dörnyei, 1998).

Self-efficacy theory refers to people's judgement of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choice of the activities attempted, as well as the level of their aspirations, the amount of effort exerted, and the persistence displayed. In this respect, Bandura (2000) states "Human behaviour is extensively motivated and regulated anticipatorily by cognitive self-influence. Among the mechanisms of self-influence, none is more focal or pervading than belief of personal efficacy."(P: 120).

Bandura (1993, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:119) also summarises, "people with a low sense of self-efficacy in a given domain perceive difficult tasks as personal threats; they dwell on their own personal deficiencies and the obstacles they encounter rather than concentrating on how to perform the task successfully. Consequently, they easily lose faith in their capabilities and are likely to give up. In contrast, a strong sense of self-efficacy

enhances people's achievement behaviour by helping them to approach threatening situations with confidence, to maintain a task- rather than self-diagnostic focus during task involvement, and to heighten and sustain effort in the face of failure.”

According to Covington's (1992, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:120) self-worth theory of achievement motivation, the highest human priority is the need for self-acceptance and therefore “in reality, the dynamics of school achievement largely reflect attempts to aggrandise and protect selfperceptions of ability” (Covington & Roberts, 1994: 161, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:120). This indicates that the basic need for self-worth generates a number of unique patterns of motivational beliefs and behaviours in school settings.

1.8.2. Value

The second component of expectancy-value theories, value, has been labelled in a number of ways by various psychologists: valence, incentive value, attainment value, task value, achievement task value, etc. As Eccles and Wigfield (1995, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:120) point out, “until recently most theorists using the expectancy-value model have focused on the expectancy component, while paying little attention to defining or measuring the value component”. In an attempt to fill this hiatus, Eccles and Wigfield have developed a comprehensive model of task values, defining them in terms of four components: attainment value (or importance), intrinsic value (or interest), extrinsic utility value, and cost.

Dörnyei (1998) indicated that the first three value types are attracting characteristics, making up the positive valence of the task. Attainment value refers to the subjective importance of doing well on a task with reference to one's basic personal values and needs. Intrinsic interest value is the enjoyment or pleasure that task engagement brings about, whereas extrinsic utility value refers to the usefulness of the task in reaching future

goals. The fourth value type, cost, constitutes the negative valence of a task, involving factors such as expended effort and time, and emotional costs (e.g. anxiety, fear of failure). The overall achievement value of a task, then, will be made up of the interplay of these four components, and this value is believed to determine the strength or intensity of the behaviour.

1.9. Goal Theory

Goals are fundamental to the study of motivation. Originally, the concept of goal has replaced that of need which was introduced by Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Dörnyei, 2001). Goal theories focus on the reasons or purposes that students perceive for achieving. Thus, in goal theories the cognitive perceptions of goal properties are seen as the basis of motivational processes (Dörnyei, 1998). There are four mechanisms by which goals affect individuals' performance. Firstly, goals serve a directive function as they direct attention and effort toward goal-relevant activities and away from irrelevant activities. Secondly, goals have an energising function and they help individuals regulate their effort to the difficulty of the task. Thirdly, they positively affect persistence and fourthly goals affect action indirectly by leading to the arousal, discovery, and/or use of task-relevant knowledge and strategies. (Locke & Latham, 2002:706-7). There are two goal theories that have been particularly influential in the study of motivation: the goal setting theory and the goal orientation theory.

The goal setting theory was mainly developed by Locke and Latham (1990) within industrial and organisational psychology with frequent references to workplace settings (Pagliaro, 2002). The goal setting theory is built on three fundamental pillars (Locke, 1996): it is philosophically sound for it is in line with the philosophical theories that

assume individuals' control of their actions; it is in line with the introspective evidence revealing that human action is normally purposeful; and it is practical.

According to the theory, people must have goals in order to act since human action is caused by purpose and for action to take place, goals have to be set and pursued by choice (Dörnyei, 1998). The theory suggests that goals have two aspects: internal and external. They are ideas (internal aspect), and they refer to the object or condition sought (external). Ideas serve as guides for obtaining the goals (Locke, 1996).

Unlike the goal-setting theory, the goal orientation theory was developed in a classroom context in order to explain children's learning and performance (Dörnyei, 2001:27), and it might now be one of the most vigorous motivation theories within the classroom (Pintrich & Shunck, 1996). According to this theory, an individual's performance is closely related to his or her accepted goals. An important contribution of the theory resides in its distinction between two types of goal orientation: performance vs. mastery (or learning) orientations. Learners possessing the first orientation, are primarily concerned with looking good and capable, those possessing the second are more concerned with increasing their knowledge and being capable.

As it has been developed so far in this study, the concept of motivation as a force behind behaviour proves to be complex since it takes a respectable number of different disciplines to arrive at a reasonable understanding of its different facets. Its complexity resides as well in its endeavours to explain individual's actions and behaviours. It has been noted that a plethora of motivational theories help to explain that motivation influences what people do—meaning their choice of actions, how they act, the intensity, persistence, and the quality of their actions. A number of key concepts have been stated with special reference to their respective theories.

In accordance with this, Nakata says, “What is motivation? How do humans get motivated? What specifies motivation in language learning? I would venture to say that many of the researchers at least in the field of language learning motivation (including myself) seem to have been working in this complex field without knowing exactly what it is (not with crystal clarity at least).”(Nakata, 2006: 23). He further adds that there has been a paradigm shift in our understanding of motivation over the last decades. In Dörnyei’s (2000) view, researchers such as: Eccles; Wigfield and schiefele (1998) explain this shift as follows: “The view of motivation has changed dramatically over the last half of the twentieth century, going from a biological based drive perspective to a behavioral-mechanistic perspective, and then a cognitive-mediational/constructivist perspective. The conception of the individual as a purposeful, goal-directed actor who must coordinate multiple goals and desires across multiple contexts within both short-and long-range time frames currently is prominent”.

Eccles et al (1998,cited in Dörnyei, 2000) further add that “the role of affect and less conscious processes is reemerging as a central theme, as we approach the twenty first century and researchers interested in the contextual influences on motivation are also adopting more complex and multicontextual frameworks. After all, motivation theories intend to explain nothing less than why humans think and behave as they do, and it is very doubtful that the complexity of this issue can be accounted for by a single theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

1.10. Summary of the Renowned Contemporary Motivation Theories in Psychology

In fact, motivation is a powerfully influential area of study in psychology and it counts over twenty internationally recognised theories of motivation amongst which Dörnyei (2001) sums up the most well-known contemporary ones in psychology. Table 1 below displays these theories with their main motivational components as well as their main motivational tenets and principles.

Table1: Summary of Contemporary Motivation Theories in Psychology (Dörnyei, Z. 2001:11)

	Good Summaries	Main Motivational Components	Main Motivational Tenets and Principles
<i>Expectancy-value theory</i>	Brophy (1999), Eccles and Wigfield (1995)	Expectancy of success; the value attached to success on task	Motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors the individual's <i>expectancy of success</i> in a given task and the <i>value</i> the individual attaches to success on that task. The greater the perceived likelihood of success and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation. (see also pp.57-58).

<p><i>Achievement Motivation theory</i></p>	<p>Atkinson and Raynor (1974)</p>	<p>Expectancy of success; incentive ;values; need for achievement; fear of failure</p>	<p>Achievement motivation is determined by conflicting approach and avoidance tendencies. The positive influences are the <i>expectancy</i> (or perceived probability) of success, the incentive <i>value</i> of successful task fulfillment and the <i>need for achievement</i>. The negative influences involve <i>fear of failure</i>, the incentive to <i>avoid</i> failure and the <i>probability</i> of failure.</p>
<p><i>Self-efficacy theory</i></p>	<p>Bandura (1997)</p>	<p>Perceived self-efficacy</p>	<p><i>Self-efficacy</i> refers to the people's judgement of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choice of the activities attempted, the amount of effort exerted and the persistence displayed.</p>
<p><i>Attribution theory</i></p>	<p>Weiner (1992)</p>	<p>Attributions about past successes and failures</p>	<p>The individual's explanations (or 'causal attributions') of why past successes and failures have occurred have consequences on the person's motivation to initiate future action. In school contexts ability and effort have been identified as the most dominant perceived causes, and it has been shown that past failure that is ascribed by the learner to low</p>

			ability hinders future achievement behaviour more than failure that is ascribed to insufficient effort.(see also pp.118-122).
<i>Self-worth theory</i>	Covington (1998)	Perceived self-worth	People are highly motivated to behave in ways that enhance their sense of <i>personal value and worth</i> . When these perceptions are threatened, they struggle desperately to protect them, which results in a number of unique patterns of face-saving behaviours in school settings.(see also pp.81-85).
<i>Goal setting theory</i>	Locke and Latham (1990)	Goal properties: specificity, difficulty and commitment	Human action is caused by purpose, and for action to take place, goals have to be set or pursued by choice. Goals that are both specific and difficult (within reason) lead to the highest performance provided the individual shows goal commitment.
<i>Goal orientation theory</i>	Ames(1992)	Mastery goals and performance goals	<i>Mastery goals</i> (focusing on learning the content) are superior to <i>performance goals</i> (focusing on demonstrating ability and getting good grades) in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an intrinsic interest in learning activities, and positive attitudes towards learning
<i>Self-determination theory</i>	Deci and Ryan (1985), Vallerand	Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation	<i>Intrinsic motivation</i> concerns behaviour performed for its own sake in order to experience

	(1997)		pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. <i>Extrinsic motivation</i> involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment. Human motives can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation
<i>Social motivation theory</i>	Weiner (1994), Wentzel (1999)	Environmental influences	A great deal of human motivation stems from the sociocultural context rather than from the individual.
<i>Theory of planned behaviour</i>	Ajzen (1988) Eagly and Chaiken (1993)	Attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behavioural control	<i>Attitudes</i> exert a directive influence on behaviour, because someone's attitude towards a target influences the overall pattern of the person's responses to the target. Their impact is modified by the person's <i>subjective norms</i> (perceived social pressures) and <i>perceived behavioural control</i> (perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour).

Conclusion

It has been brought to light so far that despite the dissimilarities held among scholars and researchers towards motivation, it is regarded as a an affective variable among others and a multi-faceted construct that plays a vital role in academic learning in general, and more crucially in the process of learning an L2/FL.

In fact, a wealth of voluminous and diversified international publications particularly in terms of theories attempted to bring explanations to this key component of the individual' behaviour. As developed in this chapter, motivation theories reveal that motivation involves a constellation of closely related beliefs, perceptions, values, interests, and actions. They reveal as well that motivation has dramatically changed going from a biologically based drive perspective to a behavioural-mechanistic perspective and then to a cognitive-mediational constructivist perspective (Eccles et al, 1998, cited in Dörnyei, 2000). However, either individually or collectively, all these theories seek to explain why and how individuals choose, perform, and persist in various activities. Having reviewed several concepts and theories that highlighted motivation and approached from many and different angles, it is high time to examine it under the scope of the classroom learning context and explore the complex and multicontextual frameworks adopted by researchers.

CHAPTER TWO

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION

Introduction

Today, there is a considerable interest in the notion of motivation to learn an L2/FL and the pressing question that FL teachers endlessly ask is “What can we do so as to motivate our students?” Crucially, Dörnyei (2001a) says “From a practicing teacher’s point of view, the most pressing question related to motivation is not what motivation is but rather how it can be increased.” (P: 52). Additionally, Stephen and Sherria (2003) point out “Lecturers frequently bemoan the lack of student motivation and ask what they can do to improve this.”(P: 69).

Indeed, it is one of the most highly studied issues of cognition within the field of L2/FL education, and is widely acknowledged as a principal determinant in learning an L2/FL by a wide range of researchers and scholars. In Nakata’s (2006:23) words “Most of us would not disagree with the statement that motivation is largely responsible for determining human behaviour, and thus those who are really motivated to learn a foreign language will be able to become proficient to a certain degree regardless of their intelligence or language aptitude”. Therefore, it seems essential to understand its theoretical evolution and its relevance in the field of learning and teaching of a FL.

2.1 Motivation to Learn a FL /L2: Historical Overview

Motivation is one of the most highly studied issues of cognition within the field of L2/FL education, and is widely acknowledged as a principal determinant in learning an L2/FL by a wide range of researchers and scholars in previous research. Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) have identified four broad phases in relation to the research that has been

conducted on an L2/FL motivation. These distinct phases have been described as: the socio-educational period; the cognitive-situated period; the process-oriented period; and the socio-dynamic period.

2.1.1 Socio-Educational Period

One of the seminal works and pioneering orientations in motivation studies is the model of language learning that was developed in the early sixties and through the eighties of the previous century by Gardner, following studies carried out by him and his associates in Canada. The model came to be known as the Socio-Educational Model (SEM) (Gardner, 1985). It is often referred to by some researchers as the Socio-Psychological Model (e, g., Dickinson, 1995).

The initial construct of their SEM classified motivation into two orientations, namely: integrative orientation in which learners may be positively drawn to the culture of the target language and may desire to integrate into that culture; and instrumental orientation in which individuals may wish to study a language in order to achieve an end, such as getting a job, obtaining a salary increase, or having a competitive edge over another, professionally. In fact, this approach has proposed the most famous concepts, integrative and instrumental orientations with much emphasis on the former.

2.1.1.1. Gardner's Conceptualisation of the Integrative Motive

The key component of Gardner's (1985) motivation theory was the integrative motive as displayed and schematised in Figure 2 on the next page. As can be seen, the integrative motivation construct contains three main components, Motivation, Integrativeness, and Attitudes towards the Learning Situation, which are further broken into sub-components.

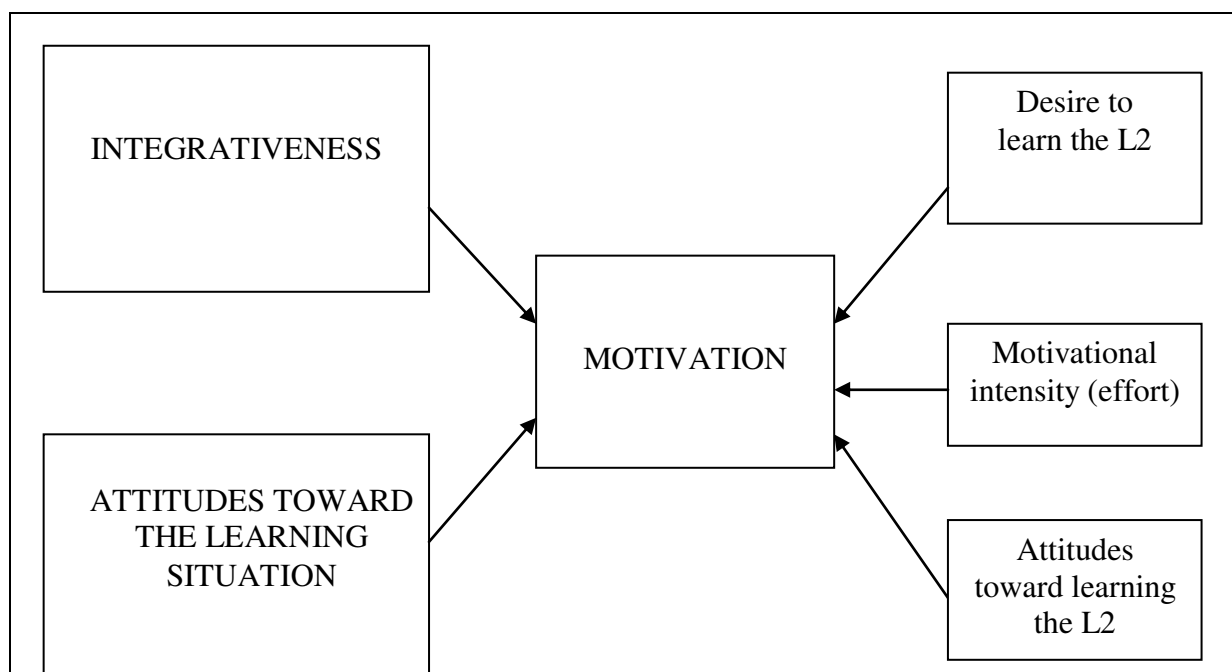


Figure 2: Gardner's Conceptualisation of Integrative Motive

(Adapted from Dörnyei, Z. (1994b). *Modern Language Journal*, 78, p. 517)

The reviewed literature disclosed that this study was one of the first demonstrations of social psychology's importance to language learning and exerted a great deal of influence upon most of the subsequent motivation studies. MacIntyre (2004, cited in MacIntyre, P. D., Mackinnon, S. P., & Clément, R., 2009) argued that the Socio-educational model can be considered unique, even ahead of its time in significant ways, especially as compared to motivation theories in the field of psychology. Dörnyei (1994a) has stated "I would like to acknowledge once again the seminal work of Robert Gardner and his colleagues. Gardner's theory has profoundly influenced my thinking on this subject and I share Oxford and Shearin's assertion that: "The current authors do not intend to overturn the ideas nor denigrate the major contributions of researchers such as Gardner, Lambert, Lalonde, and others, who powerfully brought motivational issues to the attention of the L2 field"(p:274).

Dörnyei (1994b) has claimed “I believe that the most important milestone in the history of L2 motivation research has been Gardner and Lambert’s (13; 14) discovery that success in L2 is a function of the learner’s attitudes towards the linguistic-cultural community of the target language, thus adding a social dimension to the study of motivation to learn L2.”(P: 519). More recently, Dörnyei (2001b) has said “The first three decades of L2 motivation research until about the early 1990s was largely inspired and fuelled by the pioneering work of social psychologists in Canada, most notably Robert Gardner, Wallace Lambert, Richard Clément, and their associates”(p:43). Gonzales (2010) has stated that “Although Gardner and Lambert studies have been used as the anchor of further studies on motivation in FL and L2 learning and acquisition, the search to further define, redefine and conceptualise motivation in FL and L2 continued up to the present and even revisited by many researchers” (p:4).

2.1.2. Cognitive Situated Period

In the early 1990’s, however, because of the provocative article by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) calling for education-friendly L2 motivation research when reopening the research agenda and in response to this call, an educational shift in L2 motivation research took place and the field became somewhat more expansive. In this sense, Ushioda has stated “A provocative article by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) called for a new research agenda involving L2 learning motivation.”(2005: 53). Their call yielded a series of publications that explored the topic from both theoretical and practical perspectives (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Oxford & Shearin, 1994, 1996; Ushioda, 1994, 1996) and eventually redirected its focus to the applicability of motivational theories in the classroom.

Oxford and Shearin (1996) have stated that “The best known theory of L2 learning motivation, a theory based on social psychology, does not cover all the possible reasons for learning a new language.”(P: 122). Dörnyei (1994a) has cited “While acknowledging unanimously the fundamental importance of the Gardnerian social psychological model, researchers were also calling for a more pragmatic, education-centred approach to motivation research, which would be consistent with the perceptions of practicing teachers and which would also be in line with the current results of mainstream educational psychological research”. (P: 273). In Dörnyei’s (2001) view, “The 1990’s brought about a change in scholars’ thinking about L2 motivation.”(P: 16).

In Crookes and Schmidt’s words, it was “so dominant that alternative concepts have not been seriously considered” (P: 501). “...by the beginning of the 1990s, there was a growing conceptual gap between motivational thinking in the second language field and in educational psychology and the time was ripe for a new phase in L2 motivation research” Dörnyei (2005:71). In line with this, Ushioda (2006) has stated “It is generally recognised that the study of language learning motivation underwent something of a sea-change during the 1990s, when it emerged from a long history of domination by the social psychological research tradition.”(P: 148).

In the same direction, Nakata (2006) has stated “In the 1990s, the dispute over Gardner’s social psychological approach continued. (P: 55). Additionally, Dörnyei (2001 a) has expressed “The study of L2 motivation has reached an exciting turning point in the 1990s, with a variety of new models and approaches proposed in the literature; resulting in what Gardner and Tremblay (1994) have called a motivational renaissance.”(P: 43). Then, he has added “The 1990s brought an extraordinary boom in L2 motivation research”

(P: 44). Definitely, the 1990's have been viewed by many as the most significant era for the development of voluminous investigations in the field of motivational research.

Since then, there have been many studies in this new direction and considerable debate and a huge wealth of theory has been generated around the issue. In other words, there has been more concentration on issues related to motivation in L2 and FL education. Mezei (2008) has stated that motivation has traditionally been researched with quantitative methods, usually focusing on the antecedents of the construct, and/or linking it to the linguistic outcome. This has changed in the past few decades, thanks, first and foremost, to Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) seminal paper. MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clément (2009) cited that although the SEM influenced international conceptualisations of motivation for second language learning for decades, particularly among pedagogues, the model has its detractors.

In spite of the fact that Gardner's SEM was well-grounded in scientific terms, it was not sufficiently broad to include "... a more pragmatic, education-centered approach to motivation, which would be consistent with the perceptions of the practicing teacher and which would also be in line with the current results of mainstream educational psychological research" (Dörnyei, 1994a:273). Significantly enough, Dörnyei (1996:71) stated that "The explicit goal of recent research has been to broaden the scope of language learning motivation and to increase the educational potential of the theory by focusing more on motivation reflected in students' classroom learning behaviours".

In Ushioda's (2005) vision, the literature on L2 motivation has two main streams. One stream consists of a series of studies based on Gardner's SEM. The other stream calls for the implementation of a new "agenda" (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) for L2 motivation research. While the former studies investigate causal relationships among possible

individual-difference variables with various L2 achievement measures, the latter attempts to identify possible variables that could influence learners' motivations within the immediate L2 learning context. She further added "Crookes and Schmidt claim that motivation is more complex and cannot be measured by a one-shot questionnaire because motivation changes due to a number of environmental factors in addition to integrativeness."(2005: 54). In the same vein, Ushioda (2006) expressed "During the 1990s, however, in a move towards what Dörnyei (2001a) has called more 'education-friendly' approaches to L2 motivation, research attention has increasingly turned to classroom motivational processes and cognitive theories of motivation." (P: 149). According to her, "The common belief underlying such an educational movement seems to be a focus on motivational sources closely related to the learner's immediate learning situation rather than their overall attitudes towards the target culture (i.e., integrativeness)"(Ushioda,2005:54).

Other researchers such as: Clement, Noels and Dörnyei (1994, cited in Dörnyei, 1996) designed and carried out projects focusing on some learner traits as well as the learner's perception of the classroom environment and the dynamics of the learner group. In fact, the results produced evidenced that motivation to learn a FL in a classroom environment needs more than a social and pragmatic aspect.

2.1.2.1. Tripartite Construct of L2 Motivation

In this respect, Dörnyei (1994a) claimed that L2 motivation is an eclectic, multifaceted construct; thus, it needs to include different levels to integrate the various components. Clement et al (1994) identified three distinct dimensions: Integrative Motivation, Linguistic Self-Confidence and Appraisal of Classroom Environment, this is shown in Figure 3 on the next page, and they placed much emphasis on the last one as a

novel result of the study. The three aspects of the students' perception of the classroom assessed were: group cohesion, evaluation of the English teacher in terms of competence, rapport, and teaching style / personality; and evaluation of the English course in terms of attractiveness, relevance, and difficulty.

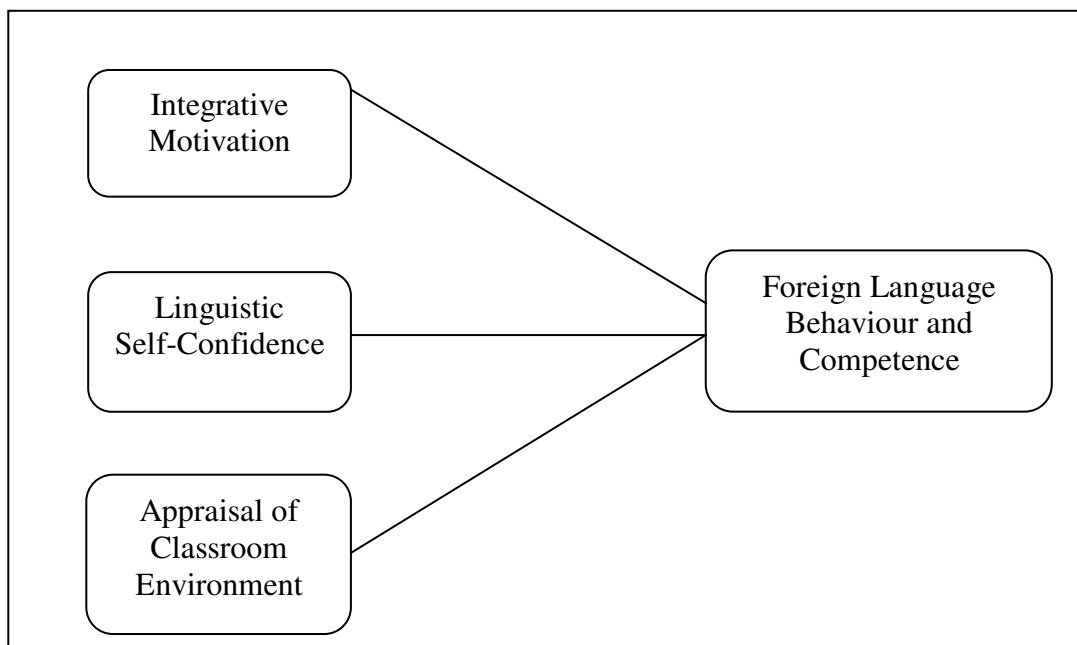


Figure 3: Schematic Representation of Tripartite Construct of

L2 Motivation (Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994: 441, cited in Dörnyei, 1996:74)

Based on the Clement et al (1994) study mentioned previously, Dörnyei has broadened its scope and three levels of motivation have been distinguished: the Language Level, the Language Learner, and the Learning Situation Level which coincide with the three basic constituents of the second language learning process (the target language, the language learner, and the language learning environment). The next point will tackle the general conceptualised framework of L2 motivation.

2.1.2.2. Components of F L Learning Motivation

Dörnyei (1994a) indicated that based on the variety of relevant motivation type and in accordance with the earlier claim that L2 motivation is an eclectic, multifaceted construct, it appears crucial to introduce the different levels of motivation similarly but not exactly the same way as was done by Crookes and Schmidt in order to integrate the various components. Yet, based on the previous claim ‘motivation as an eclectic and multifaceted construct’ and in addition to Clément, Dörnyei and Noels’ classroom study in which a tripartite L2 motivation construct emerged as schematised in Figure 3 previously, a general framework can be conceptualised.

In Figure 4 on the following page, Dörnyei (1996) has provided a brief characterisation of the motivational levels. It is obvious from Figure 4 that the learning situation level is associated with situation-specific motives rooted in various aspects of language learning in a classroom setting. Within this level, three main types of motivational sources can be separated: First, Course-specific motivational components. These are related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks. The second source is Teacher-specific motivational components. They refer to the teacher’s behaviour, personality, and teaching style. The last group-specific motivational components are related to the dynamics of the learner group. Dörnyei (1998:125) argued “The most elaborate part of the framework is the learning situation level, which is associated with situation-specific motives rooted in various aspects of language learning in a classroom setting.” A detailed description of the constituents of these motivational levels is stated in Dörnyei (1994a).

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Instrumental Motivational Subsystem Integrative Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language Use Anxiety • Perceived L2 Competence • Causal Attributions • Self-Efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Course-Specific Motivational Components • Teacher-Specific Motivational Components • Group-Specific Motivational Components
	Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Modeling • Task Presentation • Feedback Goal-orientedness Norm and Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

Figure 4: Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dörnyei, 1994a, : 280, cited in Dörnyei, 1996:76-77)

Although Dörnyei (1998) indicated the usefulness of the above detailed framework in emphasising the multidimensional nature of L2 motivation, he recognised that his list, however, lacks an indication of any relationships between the components and therefore cannot be seen as a motivation model proper. He furthermore added that the components

listed are quite diverse in nature and thus cannot be easily submitted to empirical testing. The next L2 motivation framework is elaborated by William and Burden in 1997.

2.1.2.3. Williams and Burden's (1997) Framework of L2 Motivation

Another comprehensive attempt to summarise the motivational components that are relevant to L2 instruction has been made by Williams and Burden (1997, cited in Dörnyei, 1998). After reviewing a wide range of relevant motivational theories, they draw them together in a highly detailed framework of L2 motivational factors primarily based on issues relevant to educational psychology.

They approached the framework from the perspectives of factors affecting L2 learner motivation, and separated them into two categories; internal and external factors. In their framework, teachers are seen as a part of external factors in the category of significant others, and interactions with teachers, including learning experiences, feedback, rewards, praise and punishments are also seen as relevant factors which may affect L2 learners' motivation. This is presented in Figure 5 on the next page.

INTERNAL FACTORS	EXTERNAL FACTORS
Intrinsic interest of activity	Significant others
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arousal of curiosity • Optimal degree of challenge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents • Teachers • Peers
Perceived value of activity	The nature of interaction with significant others
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal relevance • Anticipated value of outcomes • Intrinsic value attributed to the activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mediated learning experiences • The nature and amount of feedback • Rewards • The nature and amount of appropriate praise • Punishments, sanctions
Sense of agency	The learning environment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locus of causality • Locus of control re: process and outcome • Ability to set appropriate goals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comfort
Mastery	

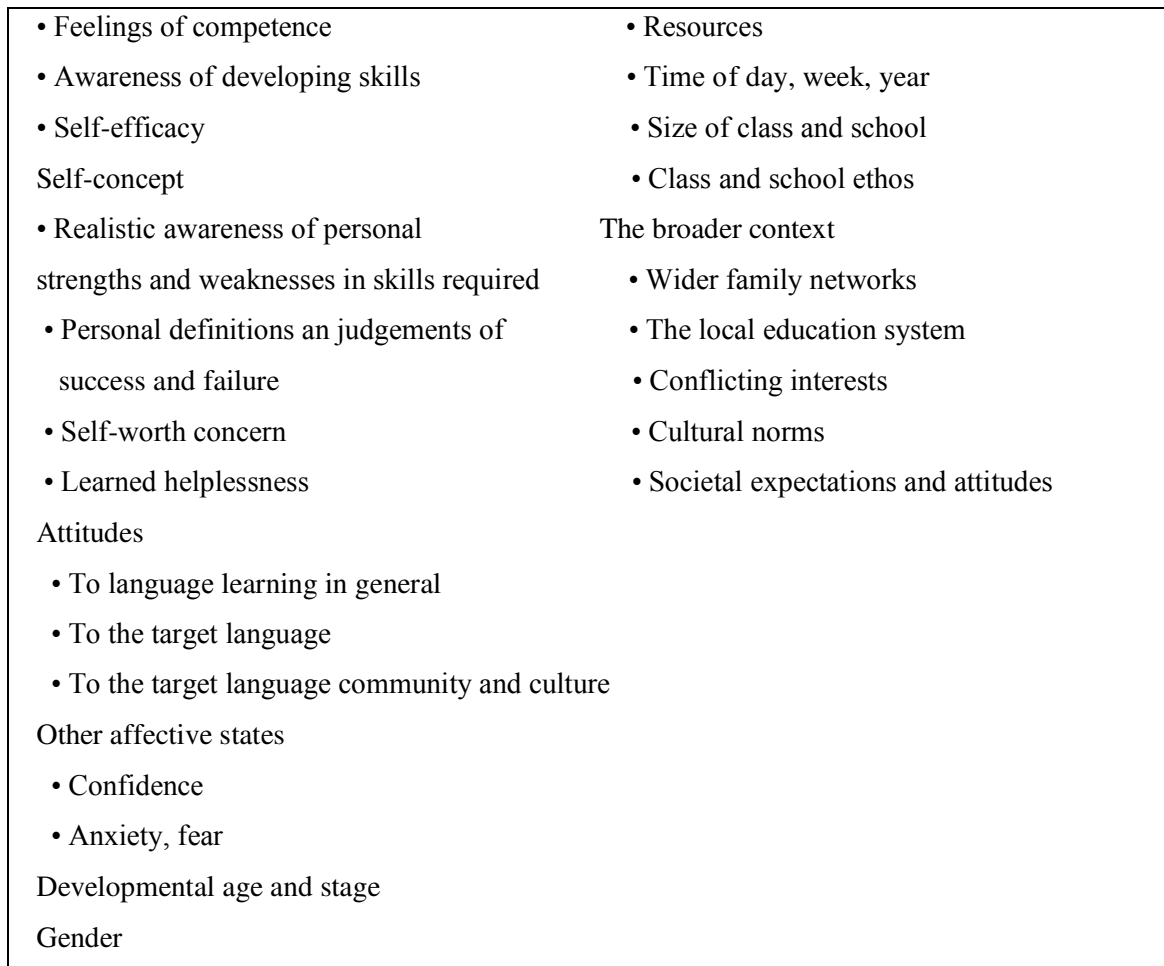


Figure 5: Williams and Burden's (1997) Framework of L2 Motivation (cited in Dörnyei 1998:126)

This framework seems to share a similarity with Dörnyei's (1994a) list in that it does not offer any directional relationships between the listed items, but some aspects of it (e.g. external, contextual factors) represent the most detailed treatment of the particular issue in the L2 literature (Dörnyei, 1998). According to Dörnyei "the authors used primarily mainstream rather than L2 motivational theories as their sources in extending the framework, which places their work very much in line with the 'paradigm seeking spirit' of the reform movements in the 1990's" (1998:126).

2.1.3. Process Oriented Period

Along with the shift of the focus on the research in L2 motivation, one of the recent claims made in the study of motivation is the Process Model introduced by Dörnyei (2000) and Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). Though Dörnyei (1994a, cited in Dörnyei, 1996) admits that Gardner and his associates' early studies contributed extensively to the construction of the foundation work in motivation research in L2 acquisition, as previously mentioned, he has insisted on the need for further development, linking motivation research in L2 acquisition with the recent theoretical findings in educational psychology, and has strongly encouraged the introduction of a more comprehensive paradigm for the consideration of the complex nature of motivation for the L2 learning.

2.2.3.1. Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation

One of the important claims in the Process Model is to view L2 learner motivation as not being static but continuously changing along with the long process of L2 learning. In accordance with this, Shoaib and Dörnyei have stated that "Dörnyei and Ottó's process model of L2 motivation (1998), which recognises that language learner motivation is not fixed, but changing under the influence of a variety of factors over time, has revolutionised research in the field. The notion implies a dynamic nature of motivation, which is affected, among other factors, by the learning situation" (2005:23). Significantly enough, Dörnyei (2001b) has cited "During these first decades of research, motivation was primarily seen as a relatively stable learner trait that was, to a large extent, a function of (a) the learner's social perceptions of the L2 and its speakers, as reflected by various language attitudes; (b) generalised attitudes toward the L2 learning situation, such as the appraisal of the course or the teacher; and (c) interethnic contact and the resulting degree of linguistic self-confidence." (P: 44).

Indeed, unlike previous research of motivation (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1972), the late 1990's has focused more on the temporal perspectives of L2 motivation. In this vein, Dörnyei, (2001b) indicated that "the 1990's extended this conception [stable learner trait] by adding a number of cognitive and situation-specific variables to the existing paradigm, and there was a shift by some researchers toward viewing motivation as a more dynamic factor that is in a continuous process of evolution and change according to the various internal and external influences the learner is exposed to". Very recently, Bernaus, Wilson, and Gardner, R.(2009) have stated that "Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) have proposed a somewhat different perspective referred to as the process model of L2 motivation, based on Heckhausen and Kuhl's (1985) theory of volition because they wanted to emphasise the dynamic nature of motivation within the classroom context."(P: 26). Figure 6 on the following page is a schematic representation of process model of L2 motivation as conceived by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998).

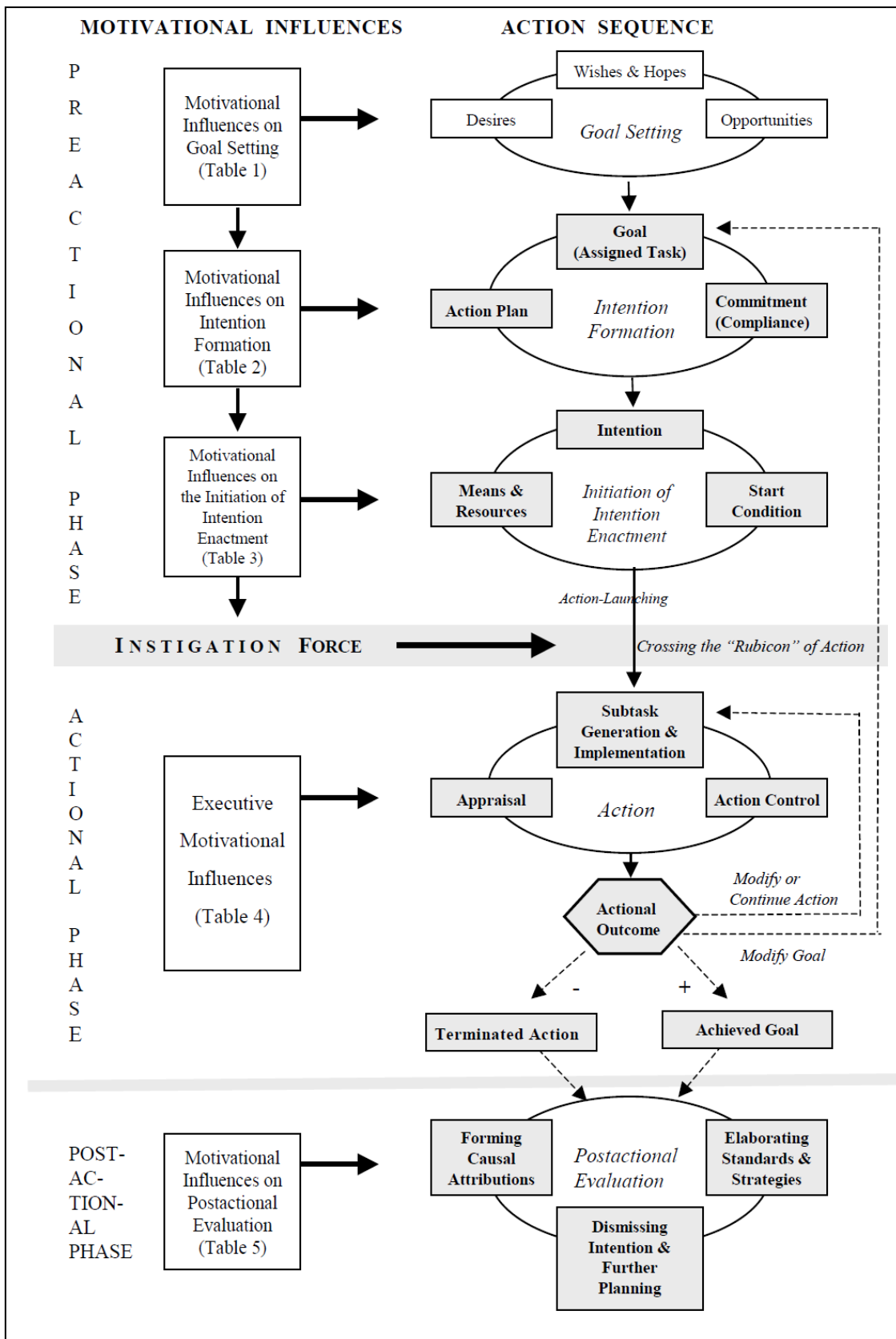


Figure 6: Schematic Representation of Process Model of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998: 48)

Following Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory (1985) and as shown in Figure 6 on the previous page, the action sequence process has been divided into three main phases: preactional phase, actional phase, and postactional phase. At the pre-actional phase, initial motivation is involved with goal setting, intention formation, and initiation of intention enactment. Executive motivation in the actional phase sustains the intended action of learning the language with continuing appraisal of daily learning events, taking various factors into consideration, which leads to either persistence or termination of learning.

Finally in the post-actional phase, motivational retrospection evaluates learning actions by forming causal attributions, and determines an action for further study or termination of learning. In addition, factors that may influence each motivation include cognitive, affective, and situational factors or conditions. In the Process Model, teachers may have the strongest impact on executive motivation at the actional stage, since this is the time when learners' interaction with teachers is likely to be the primary source of L2 learning.

As the review above shows and based on the integration of educational considerations into the study of motivation, some researchers have proposed new constructs of motivation (Dörnyei, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). These constructs have captured a more expansive dimension of motivation and have been developed specifically for use in a language classroom. Yet, learning an L2/FL in a classroom context entails as it has been pointed previously more than a socio-educational approach allows for. Among classroom related factors, such as materials, teachers and classroom atmosphere, teacher's influence on learners' motivation is widely recognised although its importance has been typically overlooked Dörnyei (2001a cited in Tanaka, T.2005:50).

2.1.4. Socio -Dynamic Period

In line with the latest developments in personality and motivation research, Dörnyei (2005) has outlined a new conception of L2 motivation, the L2 Motivational Self System, in order to increase understanding of individual variations in L2 learning. The L2 Motivational Self System is composed of three dimensions: Firstly, the Ideal L2 Self, that is, the L2-speaking person we would like to become, which acts as a motivating factor because we desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal self. Secondly, the Ought-to L2 Self, that is, an L2-“knowing” person we feel we ought to become in order to avoid possible negative outcomes. Thirdly, the L2 Learning Experience, “which concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience” (Dörnyei, 2005:106).

The Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves both concern future motivational perspectives (i.e., constitute what Ushioda, 2001, calls “teleological” factors in learners’ motivational configurations), whereas the L2 Learning Experience concerns the past and present of L2 learning and L2-related experiences (the “causal” dimension in Ushioda’s 2001 terminology). Based on Ushioda’s (2001) findings that motivation could be fuelled either by future-related factors or by past/present L2-learning factors, it appears possible to speculate that the strength of L2 motivation may be dependent on the learner’s ability to develop a salient vision of an L2 Self, or on the quality of the L2 Learning Experience. It seems that L2 teachers have a role to play in both these areas.

In his later research, Dörnyei (2005, 2009b) broadened and elaborated on the Motivational Teaching Practice framework by introducing the L2 motivational self-system. With this development, motivation research has moved into the “socio-dynamic” phase, so-called for how it emphasises that teaching and learning contexts are made up of a

multiplicity of internal, social, and contextual factors (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). This phase of motivation research is called the “socio-dynamic” phase because it emphasises that the context of the teaching and learning is made up of a multiplicity of internal, social, and contextual factors (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012).

2.1.4.1. Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System

In this model, Dörnyei proposed three main dimensions to students’ language learning motivation: the ideal L2 self; the ought to L2 self; and the L2 learning experience. The ideal L2 self represents the learners’ image or vision of what they aspire to be in the future. The ought to L2 self represents the learner’s perception of what significant other people expect. Those people may be parents, peers, or teachers.

The ought to L2 self therefore represents the external influence on the learner as perceived internally by the learner. It also deals with the attributes the learner should possess to achieve goals and avoid possible negative outcomes. The L2 learning experience focuses on the students’ learning environment and experiences in that environment. The L2 learning experience covers the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, and the experience of success (Dörnyei, 2014).

The socio-dynamic approach to language learning views motivation as the interaction of learners with their learning context, underlining the important role of social processes in shaping motivation (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Through the new framework of the L2 motivational self-system, Dörnyei (2014) argues that learners cannot be separated from their social environment. In effect the teacher needs to consider the complexity of factors impacting on a student, whether they are internal to the student, arising from the student’s family and social context, or from the learning context itself (Dörnyei, 2014).

The difference between Dörnyei's (2001) Motivational teaching practices system and the L2 motivational self system (2005; 2009) lies in relation to how motivation is viewed. Motivational teaching practices system looks at motivation from the teachers' perspective or teaching process; it involves the strategies a teacher can use to motivate their students. The L2 motivational selfsystem focuses more on the learning process of students; that is, how student characteristics and the context influence the learning process.

Conclusion

In sum, we have tracked the traces of the different stages in the development of L2 motivation, which included firstly the views of L2 motivation in the social psychological period. Secondly, the 1990's remarkable shift from a social psychological view of motivation to more educational and cognitive views in which they questioned the pedagogical usefulness of such research for teachers in the classroom context. In addition to this, a number of researchers recognised the dynamic and fluctuating nature of L2 motivation within the temporal perspectives of L2 motivation. Another significant development in the L2 motivation research relates to the importance of integrating the self and context to the understanding L2 motivation within the socio dynamic period. Having reviewed different aspects of motivation theories, the next chapter will focus on the application of such theories in the classroom context.

CHAPTER THREE

MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING STRATEGIES AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction

This chapter begins by introducing the move from theory to practice concerning the study of motivation. Besides, we define motivational strategies which, in this thesis, are sometimes referred to as motivational teaching practices. Then, different frameworks proposed to organise the motivational strategies are presented. This is followed by a discussion of empirical research that deals with motivational teaching practices in many and different world contexts.

3.1. From Theory to Practice

Teachers are more interested than ever in finding out what they can do to overcome deficits in students' motivation to learn since learners' motivation seems to shrink as they go further in the course of their study years. More specifically, teachers are eager to find teaching practices to increase the quantity and quality of students' engagement in learning activities because students' active participation in class is sought by FL teachers and it helps students learn more efficiently, and yet it makes life more pleasant in the classroom.

In line with this thought, it has been stated "The real problem with motivation, of course, is that everyone is looking for a single and simple answer. Teachers search for that One pedagogy that, when exercised, will make all students want to do their home work, come in for after-school help, and score well on their tests and report cards." Scheidecker and Freeman (1999, cited in Dörnyei, 2001a:13).

Indeed, research has suggested different ways of motivating students to learn; however, it is only recently that researchers and educators have started to concentrate on the classroom context. In this vein, Dörnyei (1994a) says “I believe that the question of how to motivate students is an area on which L2 motivation research has not placed sufficient emphasis in the past.”(P: 274).

In the same respect, Gardner (2001) cites “...to me, motivation is a central element along with language aptitude in determining success in learning another language in the classroom setting” (P: 2). Equally important, Dörnyei (2001b) says “It is an unflattering indication of the detachment of research from classroom practice that very little work has been done in the L2 field to devise and test motivational strategies systematically” (P: 52). Yet, an important aspect of FL/L2 motivation research is studying the motivational strategies used by EFL teachers to enhance students’ motivation (e.g., Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013).

This type of research links theory to practice by translating motivational theories into techniques and strategies which could be used by EFL teachers in the classrooms. For this purpose, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) stated that recently, more and more researchers have decided to examine the pedagogical implications of research by conceptualising motivational strategies. Thus, motivation research has reached a level of maturity such that theoretical advances have started to inform methodological developments.

3.2. Motivational Strategies

As FL/L2 motivation is recognised as one of the main factors of the FL/L2 learning process, strategies that are used to motivate FL/L2 learners are viewed as an important aspect of FL/L2 motivation. However, in the past 50 years, most of the research in the field

of FL/L2 motivation has been concerned with understanding and defining the concept of motivation, examining its constructs, and theorising different types of motivation which might relate to FL/L2 learning and teaching as was explained in Chapters 1 and 2 previously. At the same time, most of these studies have paid little attention to studying the practical strategies and teaching practices which EFL teachers can use to generate and promote students' motivation. In this respect, Guilloteaux (2013:4) cited "Yet, almost fifteen years on, relatively few empirical studies have been published in that vein, with most of them appearing very recently (e.g., Arabai, 2011; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2010; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky et al., 2013; Ruesch et al., 2012; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010)."

She (2013) further added that in spite of these efforts, much work remains to be done on the transferability of strategies to other cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts since the results of some previous studies provide further evidence that some strategies can transfer across contexts. Moreover, she argued "Studies of this type are essential if researchers are to make reasonable suggestions to educators regarding the design of motivating language learning environments" (Guilloteaux, 2013:4).

In the same vein, Sugita and Takeuchi (2014) indicated that very little research exists on how the practices used by teachers impact students' motivation through their teaching strategies referring to the works of Dörnyei (2001a) and Clark and Trafford (1996).

Significantly enough, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008:55) expressed "The teacher's use of motivational strategies is generally believed to enhance student motivation, yet the literature has little empirical evidence to support this claim". According to them, all what has been proposed and reported in the literature in terms of motivational strategies are

usually grounded in sound theoretical considerations for, as mentioned earlier, motivational psychologists have been more concerned about what motivation is than about how we can use this knowledge to motivate learners. Hence, scholars and practitioners attempted to search for more practical solutions on how to motivate students.

Motivational strategies in FL/L2 research are techniques used by EFL teachers to promote and maintain students' motivation to learn English. They are defined by Dörnyei (2001a:28) as “those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect”. He further expressed that in respecting the various strategies that promote classroom FL/L2 learning, there are several ways to cluster them into separate themes (Dörnyei, 2001a).

In a recent study by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), motivational strategies are defined as instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate students' motivation. Very recently, Guilloteaux (2013:4) stated that “Motivational strategies for the language classroom are situated at the interface of L2 motivation research and classroom practice.” And she provided a more elaborate definition as follows “ They [Motivational strategies] can be defined as instructional interventions consciously applied by L2 teachers to elicit, enhance, and sustain student motivated behaviour, as well as protect it from competing (and thus potentially distracting) action tendencies.”

Indeed, the last twenty years witnessed an increased interest in the study of motivational strategies and motivational applications in the classroom in both educational psychological research and in FL/L2 motivation research.

3.3. Motivational Strategies Frameworks

A number of motivational strategies which could be used in FL/L2 classrooms by teachers are proposed by some researchers within certain frameworks for FL/L2 motivation as introduced in Chapter 2 (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). Dörnyei (1994) develops a three-level framework which encompasses language level, learner level and learning-situation level. A main significance of this framework lies in its acknowledgement of the multidimensional nature of FL/L2 motivation.

Within this framework, 30 motivational strategies draw on the theories of motivation in educational psychology, early FL/L2 motivation research and Dörnyei's (1994) own experience in the field. Examples of these motivational strategies are: encouraging students to set achievable learning goals, and making the teaching materials relevant to the students by basing them on students' needs. It is worthy of note that Dörnyei (1994) indicates that these strategies are not "rock-solid golden rules, but rather suggestions that may work with one teacher or group better than another" (p: 280).

Another detailed model of FL/L2 motivation is presented by Williams and Burden (1997), which includes a number of factors influencing motivation. They (1997) also view FL/L2 motivation as a multi-dimensional construct, and acknowledge that each individual is motivated differently. At the same time, they recognise that "an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences" (p: 121). These influences include, for example, teachers, the learning environment, and the education system. They (1997) also suggest factors which FL/L2 teachers could use to influence students' motivation in a positive way. The motivational factors were grouped according to whether they were internal or external factors and are largely based on the research of motivation in educational psychology. Examples of internal factors are intrinsic interest of activity and

perceived value of activity. In terms of external factors, they relate to the social and contextual influences such as parents, teachers, class and school ethos.

Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) offer additional suggestions for motivating language learners. Their study concerns the importance of helping teachers develop techniques for increasing students' motivation. Dörnyei and Csizér surveyed 200 foreign language teachers, asking them to rate the frequency and importance of a set of 51 teaching strategies. The frequency ratings indicates how often the teaching strategy was used in the classroom, and the importance rating indicated how important teachers perceived the teaching strategy was in order to increase student motivation. From this survey, Dörnyei and Csizér compiled a list of the 10 most important teaching practices to include in classroom instruction, or the so-called "Ten Commandments" for motivating language learners.

The Ten Commandments embrace preparing for lessons, creating a positive learning environment, giving clear instructions, developing a good relationship with the students, giving positive feedback, selecting interesting tasks, encouraging creative ideas, making the content personally relevant, helping the students set and achieve realistic goals, and familiarising learners of the language with the cultural background of the target language.

Dörnyei and Csizér's 10 commandments for motivating language learners represent an important first step in understanding how teachers can motivate their students. However, their research, and later research (Cheng & Dörnyei 2007), focused exclusively on the perspectives of teachers and did not take into account the perspectives of learners. This insistence on treating students and teachers as separate units is particularly troubling in light of a growing recognition that language learning is a socially-mediated process. In

fact, Ushioda (2006) asserts that motivation itself is a socially mediated process, that it “is not located solely within the individual but is socially distributed, created within cultural systems of activities involving the mediation of others” (p: 154). In order to provide a more accurate picture of FL/L2 motivation, scholars must consider the perceptions of both students and teachers.

In another respect, it has been argued by Guilloteaux (2013) that the different lists of recommended motivational techniques that were published by various scholars (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997) lacked a theory-based framework that could accommodate them. However, she recognises that Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) study of the motivational beliefs and practices of Hungarian teachers of English was valuable on two accounts. It was the first investigation of L2 motivational strategies and it made motivational strategies more teacher-friendly by yielding an empirically-based list of ten macrostrategies that language teachers could use to motivate their students. She further added that “The most systematic attempt to date to produce such a taxonomy was made by Dörnyei (2001), who proposed a parsimonious system of four main dimensions” (2013:57).

Dörnyei (2001a), based on his research on L2/FL motivation, proposed a more comprehensive framework of FL/L2 motivational strategies, it includes the components of FL/L2 motivational teaching practice in a classroom. It embraces a total of 102 motivational strategies, called motivational teaching practice (MTP). This MTP comprises four phases: creating motivational conditions; generating student motivation; maintaining motivation and protecting motivation; and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. According to Dörnyei (2001a), this circular system implies that student

motivation should be built, generated, maintained and encouraged. Figure 7 on the next page displays the components of L2 motivational teaching practice in a classroom

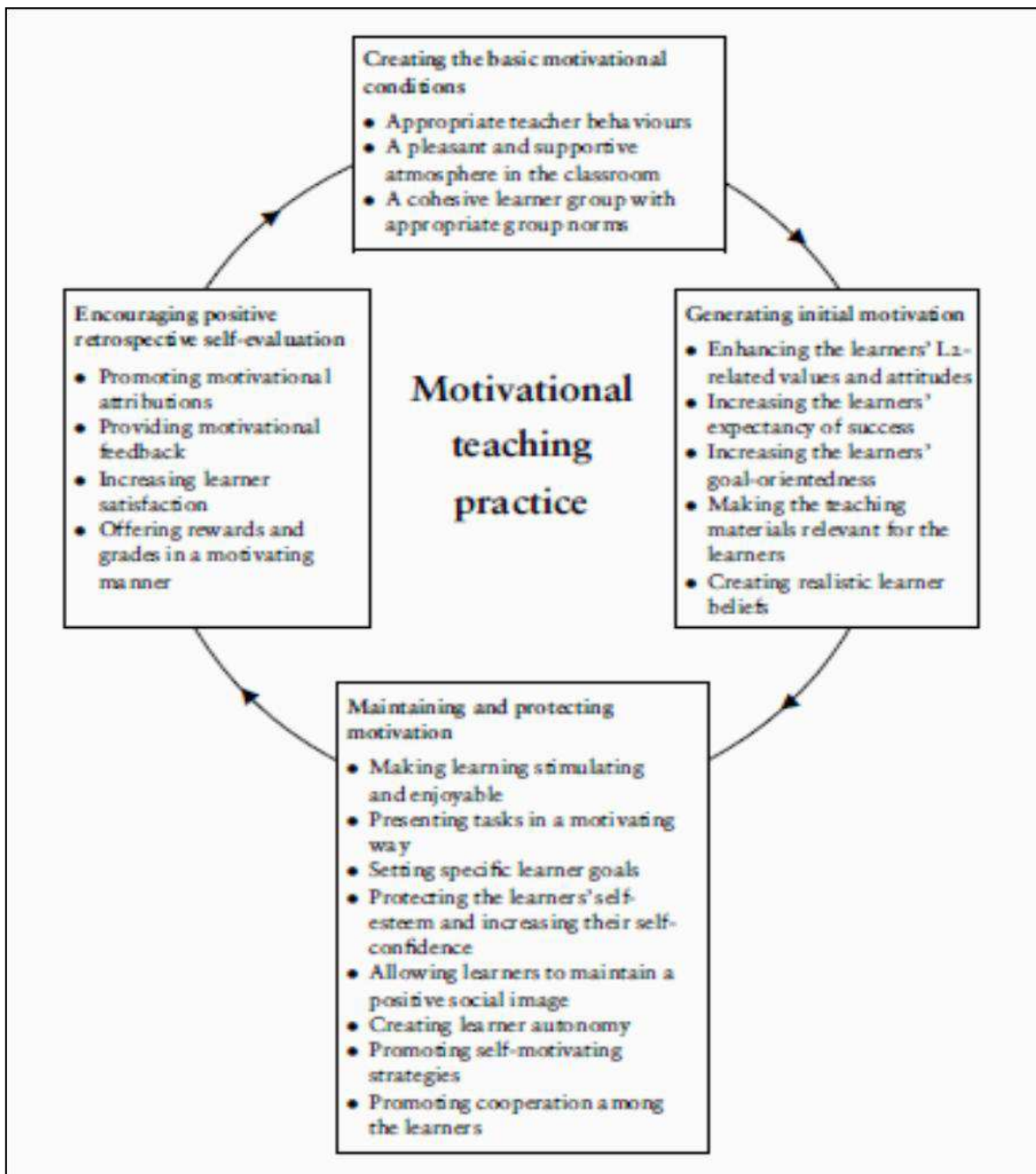


Figure 7: Components of L2 Motivational Teaching Practice in a Classroom

(Dörnyei, 2001a:29)

In this framework, L2 motivational teaching practice is seen as a cyclic process, and is divided into four main dimensions. One of the strengths of this framework is that it is centred on theory as it is based on the ‘Process-Oriented Model’ proposed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998), discussed in Chapter 2. Another feature of this framework is its ability to involve different strategies within its four main areas. The framework includes four areas which are creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. Each area involves broad motivational strategies which are broken down into more than 100 motivational strategies.

The significance of this motivational strategies framework is that it has been based on the Process-Oriented Approach of L2 motivation which is proposed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998). Although the process model has its limitations, it attempts to account for the dynamic and fluctuating nature of L2 motivation in the classroom whether during one class or over a period of time (Dörnyei, 2000).

Taking into consideration the non-static and cyclical nature of motivation, it can be assumed that EFL teachers can raise their students’ motivation by using motivational strategies. This Process-Model of L2 motivation also expands the area in which EFL teachers can influence their students’ motivation, and this influence goes in a cyclic motion starting with creating the basic motivational conditions and ending with rounding off the learning experience. These motivational strategies will be developed hereafter.

3.3.1. Creating Basic Motivational Conditions

The first area of motivational teaching practice is creating the basic motivational conditions. Dörnyei (2001a) suggests that some conditions should be created in the classroom in order to use motivational strategies effectively. These conditions, which will

be explained in more detail, are demonstrating appropriate teacher behaviour, creating a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom and generating a cohesive learner group.

3.3.1.1. Appropriate Teacher Behaviour

The first strategy which can contribute to creating basic motivational conditions relate to teacher behaviour. Teacher behaviour is recognised as an effective factor in motivating students. In this vein, Dörnyei (2001a) stated that teachers could influence their students' motivation by using different strategies such as showing their enthusiasm in teaching their subject by sharing the reasons of their interest in the L2 with their students.

In addition, Brophy (2004) suggest that teachers should know their students by learning their names, greeting them, and spending some time with them. Teachers could create good relationship with the students by using some strategies such as accepting them, and paying attention to each student (Dörnyei, 2001a). From this overview of the effect of teacher behaviour on student motivation, it can be seen that teachers could play a key role in motivating students in the FL/L2 classroom.

3.3.1.2. Pleasant and Supportive Classroom Environment

Creating a pleasant and supportive classroom environment is a second strategy which helps to create basic motivational conditions. Along with FL/L2 teaching, the educational context for FL/L2 learning should provide an enjoyable and inspirational classroom ambience, in order to maintain motivation throughout the class. Dörnyei (2001a) suggests some strategies which create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere including the use of humour in the class. Another strategy is promoting a safe climate in the classroom which allows risk taking and encourages students to make mistakes.

3.3.1.3. Cohesive Learner Group with Appropriate Group Norms

The third strategy which can be used to create basic motivational conditions is promoting a cohesive learner group. The dynamics of a learner group is one of the classroom factors affecting students' motivation (Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). Group dynamics have many aspects including group cohesion and group norms. Group cohesion is the 'magnetism' that connects the group members in the classroom. It points to "the members' commitment to the group and to each other" (Dörnyei, 2001:43).

Some studies indicate that students feel more comfortable when participating in small group activities (Young, 1991). Murray and Christison (2011) point out that teachers should teach students cooperative skills and the principles of cooperative learning. These principles include "making certain that learners see the value in group work, that they develop the language skills necessary for functioning in a group, [and] that they are given time to practice the skills" (Murray & Christison, 2011:191).

Another aspect of group dynamics is establishing group norms. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) state that in order for a norm to be constructive, group norms should be discussed clearly with the class members and adopted by them willingly. An example of such norms is tolerance which is essential to help students not feel embarrassed when they make mistakes. Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) add that teachers should introduce group norms at an early stage of group life by discussing potential norms and justifying their purpose. Having discussed the strategies which relate to creating the basic conditions for motivation; in the next section, the second area of this framework, generating initial motivation, will be discussed.

3.3.2. Generating Initial Motivation

Brophy (2004) indicates that academic learning in schools is the activity that students would least like to do if given the choice. However, students have to do academic learning, their school attendance is compulsory, and the curriculum is chosen by policy-makers rather than themselves. It can be assumed then that some students do not come to classroom with the motivation to learn. Therefore, Dörnyei (2001a) suggests that teachers need to actively create positive student attitudes towards learning by using some strategies. Examples of some broad strategies which L2 teachers could use are enhancing L2 related values of learners, increasing the goal orientedness of the learners, and encouraging students to create an attractive vision of their Ideal L2 self.

3.3.2.1. Enhance the Learners' Language-Related Values

FL/L2 teachers should familiarise learners with FL/L2 related values which might contribute to developing positive attitudes towards FL/L2 learning. Dörnyei (2001a) states that individuals have a 'value system' which is based on past experiences and involves their beliefs and feelings towards the world. This value system has an influence on individuals' choices and approaches to different activities. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest that there are three types of FL/L2 related values which are intrinsic, integrative, and instrumental values. Intrinsic values relate to the internal interest in the L2 learning process. Integrative value includes the positive attitudes towards, for example, a FL/ L2 community and culture. Instrumental value involves the practical outcomes of FL/L2 learning such as accessing a future job or avoiding failure. Many strategies have been suggested to promote these previous values in FL/L2 classroom. Examples of such strategies are highlighting an enjoyable aspect of FL/L2 learning, encouraging learners to

explore an FL/L2 community, and reminding students of the benefits of mastering the FL/L2.

3.3.2.2. Increase Learners' Goal-Orientedness

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:115) define goal-orientedness as “the extent to which the group is attuned to pursuing its official goal (...FL/L2 learning)”. Many researchers have indicated the need for defining goals for class group in order to generate student initial motivation (Hadfield, 1992). Hadfield (1992) points out that in spite of the difficulty of agreeing on group goals, it is essential for the successful working of a group as it directs the group to a common purpose.

One of the reasons of the difficulty for identifying class goals is the diversity of goals which students have (Dörnyei, 2001a). In addition, students' motivation is not only related to academic goals, but also to social goals such as relationship with teachers (Wentzel, 2000). However, one of the strategies suggested to establish common goals in the classroom is allowing students to negotiate their individual goals and identify their common purpose. In addition to group goals, students are also encouraged to set individual specific and achievable goals (Dörnyei, 2001a).

3.3.2.3. Develop Learners' Ideal L2 Self

This broad motivational strategy is not included in the framework of motivational strategies proposed by Dörnyei (2001a). However, it is believed that motivational strategies related to this concept will fit in the area of the framework which is ‘generating initial motivation’. This is because motivational strategies concerning creating an attractive Ideal L2 self would help students to generate their motivation at an early stage of the

motivation process. The importance of Ideal L2 self for motivating students has been found in many studies in different contexts such as Hungary (Csizér & Kormos, 2009).

3.3.3. Maintaining and Protecting Motivation

Maintaining and protecting motivation is the third area of the framework, which concerns nurturing motivation throughout the learning process. There are many strategies which could be used in the L2 classroom to contribute to this area of the framework including presenting tasks in a motivational way, increasing the self-confidence of learners, and promoting autonomous learning (Dörnyei, 2001a).

3.3.3.1. Presenting Tasks in a Motivating Way

The tasks referred to in this research are everyday activities used in the language classroom to promote language learning. Teachers should present tasks in a motivational way to maintain student motivation. They can do this by making tasks interesting for students. In addition, Dörnyei (2001a) points to a number of strategies which teachers could use to make tasks motivating such as identifying the purpose of the tasks and attracting students' attention to the content of the task.

3.3.3.2. Increasing Learners' Self-Confidence

Teachers should build students' self-confidence in order to maintain students' motivation. One of the main components of self-confidence is the affective factor of language anxiety, as self-confidence increases when an individual has low language anxiety. Therefore, L2 teachers are encouraged to reduce language anxiety by, for example, avoiding social comparison, and indicating to learners that mistakes are part of L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001a).

Another strategy which a teacher could use to increase the confidence of the students is encouragement which could be defined as ‘the positive persuasive expression of the belief that someone has the capability of achieving a certain goal’ (Dörnyei, 2001a:91). To encourage students, teachers should praise students, believe in their efforts to learn English, and highlight their strengths and abilities.

3.3.3.3. Promoting Learner Autonomy

Another broad strategy which could be used to maintain students’ motivation is promoting autonomous learning. Little (1991:4) points out that “it presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning”. Dickinson (1995:167) adds that it is important to maintain “learning autonomy in a teacher-directed classroom setting as well as in settings such as self-access learning centres”.

Much research has investigated the link between L2 motivation and autonomy (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000; Noels et al., 1999). Deci and Ryan (2000) point to the need to support autonomy in order to increase learner motivation in general. Noels et al. (1999) indicate a positive relationship between teachers’ support of learner autonomy and the intrinsic motivation of students. Dickinson (1995) analyses the link between autonomy and cognitive motivation theories, such as self-determination theory and attribution theory. In terms of attribution theory, Dickinson (1995) states that autonomous learners can increase their ability to achieve learning tasks.

A study by Alrabai (2011), as will be detailed later, found that amongst all the motivational strategies used by the teachers, promoting learner autonomy was the least implemented. Therefore, teachers are encouraged to use different strategies which could promote learner autonomy such as allowing learners choices about different aspects of

their learning process and encouraging learners to take responsibility for their learning (Dörnyei, 2001a).

3.3.4. Encouraging Positive Self-Evaluation

The fourth area of this framework is encouraging positive self-evaluation which relates to the students' evaluation of their own past experiences. Teachers could help students in assessing their accomplishments in a positive way by, for example, providing motivational feedback and offering rewards and grades (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

3.3.4.1. Providing Motivational Feedback

Feedback given by teachers could influence students' motivation in the FL/L2 classroom. The importance of feedback is addressed by many researchers (e.g., Brophy, 2004). Brophy (2004) indicates some qualities of motivational feedback such as appreciating achievements, showing confidence that eventual goals will be accomplished, and providing useful feedback that highlights the areas in which students need to improve.

In addition, Dörnyei (2001a) suggests different strategies which teachers could use to provide motivational feedback. For example, teachers should give prompt and regular feedback, and react to positive contributions from students.

3.3.4.2. Offering Rewards and Grades in a Motivating Manner

The use of rewards and grades are one of the controversial issues in education. Although some researchers indicate the advantages of using rewards and grading systems, the disadvantages of using them are also highlighted (Brophy, 2004). Rewards are available motivational tools which help teachers control student behaviour, however, the extensive use of rewards could negatively affect the intrinsic motivation for activities. In

this respect, Dörnyei (2001a) indicates that teachers could avoid the limitations of using rewards by following some techniques such as not overusing them, and offering rewards for difficult tasks. Rewards could involve offering chocolate, certificates and using notice board displays. Having discussed the broad motivational strategies of Dörnyei's (2001a) MTP framework, the following section will presents empirical studies which investigate motivational strategies in different contexts.

3.4. Studies Examining Motivational Strategies

Many studies have explored FL/L2 motivational strategies through different ways and in several contexts such as Hungary, Taiwan, Brazil, Turkey, United States, Iran, Korea, Indonesia, and Saudi Arabia. Some of these studies have addressed teacher evaluation and use of strategies (e.g., Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Fewer studies have addressed the student beliefs (Deniz, 2010) and fewer still have compared the two (Ruesch et al., 2012).

Among the studies which investigate the teachers' perception and use of motivational strategies, Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) landmark study. It was the earliest initiated study in this line of inquiry as mentioned at the general introduction and explained in Chapter 2. The results of this study revealed ,as indicated in the previous section, the 'Ten Commandments' for motivating students which were derived from the top ten important motivational strategies as ranked by the teachers. However, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) argue that these motivational strategies might be context-specific, and therefore, might not be valid in different contexts. Table 2 on the next page sums up the motivational strategies in ten macrostrategies or what is known as the 'Ten Commandments'.

Table 2. Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998:215)

- Set a personal example with your own behaviour.
- Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
- Present the tasks properly. • Develop a good relationship with the learners.
- Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.
- Make the language classes interesting.
- Promote learner autonomy.
- Personalise the learning process.
- Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.
- Familiarise learners with the target language culture.

In order to examine motivational strategies in a different context and to investigate whether they are valid for all learning settings in terms of culture, ethno-linguistic and classroom context, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) replicated the study of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in an Asian context: Taiwan. The participants were 387 EFL teachers from institutions ranging from elementary school to university. The results show that teacher behaviour, presenting the tasks properly, building the confidence of students are ranked in the top five motivational strategies, and this is similar to the Hungarian context. However, there are some differences in the views of teachers in Taiwan. For example, in the Taiwanese context, 'recognising students' efforts' is in second place in terms of importance, while this strategy does not feature in the top ten in Hungary. Another difference is that the least important motivational strategy is promoting learner autonomy. This highlights that while some results may be more universal and motivational across contexts others appear to be more context-based. In other words, the study found that

some motivational teaching strategies are transferable across nations but some strategies are culturally bound.

In response to this, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) conducted large scale observational research involving 40 EFL classrooms consisting of 27 teachers and 1,381 students in South Korea. They used classroom observations to document learners' motivational behaviours and teachers' motivational teaching strategies; they also used student motivation questionnaires and observations of teachers' overall motivational strategies. They found that teachers' motivational strategies had a positive effect on students' motivation. This finding filled the gap in the literature left by a lack of empirical evidence that teachers' motivational strategies did impact on learners' motivation.

In the Brazilian EFL context, Xavier (2005) investigated three teachers and 213 high school students. The result suggests that some motivational teaching strategies from Dörnyei's framework also applied in Brazil. In this study, Xavier asked both teachers and students to fill out the same questionnaire and followed this with interviews and classroom observations. The study found that factors from Dörnyei's research, such as promoting learner autonomy, and emphasising the usefulness of learning English, both of which enhance student language learning motivation, are underutilised in this context.

In Turkey, Deniz (2010) conducted a study with students at Mugla University to be EFL teachers in primary and secondary schools. He used questionnaires and interviews to examine the opinions of students towards motivational strategies in FL/L2 learning.

The findings revealed that the most valued strategies by this group are teacher behaviour, recognising students' efforts and building confidence. However, the least valued strategies relate to learner group and learner autonomy. These results appear to be similar to the findings from the teachers in the previously mentioned studies. This may be

due to students and teachers having similar beliefs or because the students in this setting were student teachers who would be employed to teach in primary and secondary schools, so they have similar perceptions to the teachers.

In the Saudi context, Alrabai (2011) conducted a study with EFL teachers and referred only to the use of the strategies without the teachers' perceptions of their importance. The results show that the top five broad strategies emerging include proper teacher behaviour, building self-confidence, increasing learners' satisfaction, increasing learners' expectancy of success, and presenting tasks in a motivational way. However, promoting learner autonomy is the least used.

A similar study was conducted by Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2011) in an Iranian context. The study involved 741 students and 17 teachers. The results indicated that teachers' motivational teaching strategies significantly increased the students' motivation. Classroom activities showed a strong positive correlation between teacher motivational teaching strategies and students' engagement in learning. The research findings thus indicate that language teachers can enhance student language learning motivation by implementing specific methods and techniques.

Papi and Abdollahzadeh's (2011) findings are supported by Sugita and Takeuchi's (2012) study. It was conducted in a Japanese EFL context. The researchers found two strategies that enhanced Japanese university students' motivation, namely, starting the class on time and giving a clear explanation for helping students to prepare for class assessments and exams.

Kassing's (2011) qualitative study investigated the motivational teaching strategies used in an Indonesian university. The participants were EFL lecturers and their student-teachers. The study found that lecturers and student-teachers agreed that a caring

relationship between them is a highly effective motivational teaching strategy. However, the lecturers were not aware that the strategies they used impacted on the student-teachers' motivation.

Ruesch, Bown, and Dewey (2012) have conducted the only study which investigates the views of both EFL teachers and students towards the use of L2 motivational strategies. This study is undertaken in the context of a language school in the United States of America involving international students from a variety of countries such as Russia, China, and Arabic countries. The instrument used in this study is questionnaires, and the results further support previous studies as teacher behaviour features as the most important strategy. The results also reveal that there are many similarities in teacher and student views. The differences were revealed to be in strategies relating to presenting tasks whereby the students rate this significantly higher than the teachers. Teachers, on the other hand, rank strategies relating to recognising students efforts and avoiding comparison in the class significantly higher than students. These differences in student and teacher perceptions highlight the need for further studies comparing teacher and student perceptions within the same context in order to enhance teachers' understanding of what the students really need to motivate them in EFL classrooms.

The most recent study examining teachers' views about motivational strategies was undertaken by Guilloteaux (2013) in a Southern Korean context involving 268 secondary school teachers. She confirmed her previous study with Dörnyei (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) that some motivational strategies can be transferred across contexts. However, unlike her previous study, she found that Korean teachers rarely used motivational teaching strategies related to generating a positive classroom climate, or engaging students in group work and enabling them to control student's learning. Her findings disclosed as

well that the highest ranking broad strategy in terms of importance relates to teacher behaviour, and the least important one is encouraging autonomous learning.

In summary, the reviewed research studies indicated a correlation between the motivational teaching strategies used by teachers and students' motivation. Although these strategies cannot be generalised and applied to all FL classrooms owing to culture-specific variables, and other factors in the learning environment that influence student motivation (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Ruesch et al, 2012), the importance of some motivational strategies appears to be universal and valid in different contexts, in particular the broad strategy of teacher behaviour which featured as most important in all the studies regardless of context. Within the top five results, building confidence and presenting tasks properly are featured across all contexts. The strategy which appears to be more context-specific is 'promoting learner autonomy'. In the Asian context, this strategy is viewed as the least important, but in the European context, it features more highly.

Conclusion

So far in this chapter, we have introduced the move from theory to practice concerning the study of motivation. Researchers are more interested in what could be beneficial for the FL classroom teachers in terms of practical strategies to help them motivate their students whose motivation is rather shrinking. Besides, different frameworks proposed to organise the motivational strategies are presented with more emphasis on Dörnyei's (2001a) L2 MTP framework that will be used as a basis for the analysis of the qualitative data of the undertaken study. It has been reported by a number of researchers such as Guilloteaux (2013) that the different lists of recommended motivational techniques that were published by various scholars (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin,

1994;William & Burden,1997) lacked a theory-based framework that could accommodate them while Dörnyei's (2001a) MTP taxonomy appears to be a parsimonious system of four main dimensions. Moreover, a number of empirical researches conducted in many and different worldwide contexts are discussed with special reference to the motivational teaching practices they studied. In reviewing these studies, it has been revealed that most of them included teachers' use of strategies while only few have targeted the perceptions and beliefs of teachers and students alike.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

As has been pointed out in the general introduction of this thesis motivational research has recently shifted focus to include what roles and the motivational strategies teachers use in the language learning classroom (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Traditionally, motivational research has gathered data from either teachers or students. However, researchers have recently been calling for a shift in focus from this individualistic perspective to evaluating motivation more holistically (Dörnyei, 2000; Ushioda, 2006). Nevertheless, few studies have included the opinions of both students and teachers.

The present study underscores the importance of including teachers' and students' perspectives on classroom practices. It has elicited the opinions of students and teachers to find out which motivational strategies both groups believe foster students' motivation in the FL classroom. As the research questions of this study concern the perceptions of EFL teachers and students alike about motivational strategies and the possible differences in their opinions, this chapter describes the research methodology used to answer these questions. It commences by discussing the research paradigms, methods and design adopted, then followed by description of the research sample. Next, detailed information about the instruments, both quantitative and qualitative, is provided. In addition, it explains some ethical considerations.

4.1. Research Paradigms, Methods and Design

A mixed methods approach is used in this study because it is assumed that different methods and theoretical perspectives can complement each other and help to confirm results, and uncover possible paradoxes. There will be a discussion of some of the major theoretical considerations that inform the approach and methodology of this study. It will start with a discussion of the major research paradigms, followed by an overview of the research approaches with a focus on the mixed methods approach. This section ends by presenting the design of the study.

4.1.1. Research Paradigms

From the perspective of Guba and Lincoln, “both qualitative and quantitative methods may be used appropriately with any research paradigm” (1994:105). In their viewpoints the questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm, which they define as “the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways.” (1994:107).

These research philosophies can be broadly divided into positivist and interpretivist paradigms. Positivist theory is generally considered a hard scientific approach. It is based on deriving facts from data, based on rules and developing hypotheses to test these facts. According to Angus (1986) and Marshall (1994), positivism is related to observation and experimentation in a systematic way and applying it to laws. It is a theory based on cause and effect, which the researcher will evaluate and apply to the study’s results in a generalised way.

Robson (2002:21) states that “essentially, positivists look for the existence of a constant relationship between events, or, in the language of experimentation, between two variables”. In the eyes of Howe (1988), positivism as a paradigm is the view that scientific knowledge is the paragon of rationality; that scientific knowledge must be free of metaphysics, that is, that it must be based on pure observation that is free of the interests, values, purposes, and psychological schemata of individuals; and that anything that deserves the name “knowledge,” including social science, of course, must measure up to these standards.

The interpretivist paradigm rejects the view that absolute truths about the social world can be found in the same way as is done in the natural world. In accordance with this, Howe (1988:13) states “the view that, at least as far as the social sciences are concerned, metaphysics (in the form of human intentions, beliefs, and so forth) cannot be eliminated; observation cannot be pure in the sense of altogether excluding interests, values, purposes, and psychological schemata; and that investigation must employ empathic understanding (as opposed to the aims of explanation, prediction, and control that characterise the positivistic viewpoint)”.

Robson (2002:24) argues that “people, unlike the objects of the natural world, are conscious, purposive actors who have ideas about their world and attach meaning to what is going on around them”. Therefore, data cannot be generalised and “systematically theorised” due to the nature of humans and their subjectivity. Researchers seek a “complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas” (Creswell, 2009:8). Rather than starting with a hypothesis, as is the case with positivist researchers, interpretivists begin by trying to interpret the meanings that others give to their environment and develop a theory, as the research is ongoing (Creswell, 2009).

The quantitative research method is usually related to positivism and the qualitative to interpretivism. In response to the perceived divide and the ardent dispute between the two, many researchers have called for the use of mixed methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), and this raises the issue of the compatibility of the research paradigms. Some researchers argue against the compatibility of the research paradigms and suggest that research paradigms cannot be mixed because of their differences (Howe, 1988). In line with this, Howe (1988:13) stated “The positivist and interpretivist paradigms are incompatible; the positivist paradigm supports quantitative methods, and the interpretivist paradigm supports qualitative methods. Therefore, quantitative and qualitative methods are, despite the appearance that research practice might give, incompatible”. However, other researchers have called for incorporating paradigms into mixed methods studies to expand our understanding of the research inquiry (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

4.1.2. Research Approaches

There are many approaches to dealing with research. Two of the most common are known as quantitative and qualitative. In this context, Mackey and Gass (2005) declare that although this distinction is somewhat simplistic as the relationship is best thought of as a continuum of research types. Quantitative research generally starts with an experimental design in which a hypothesis is followed by the quantification of data and some sort of numerical analysis is carried out while qualitative studies generally are not set up as experiments; the data cannot be easily quantified, and the analysis is interpretive rather than statistical.

4.1.2.1. Quantitative Research

The quantitative method “involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods” (Dörnyei,

2007b:24). Quantitative research is conducted in an objective manner; it asks specific questions which can be measured. The data are quantifiable and usually analysed using statistics. Examples of quantitative research are questionnaires, tests and experiments. The early influence of social psychology research, such as that by Gardner and his colleagues from 1959 to 1990, led to the widespread use of quantitative research methods in L2 motivational research (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The quantitative methodologies in early motivational research were used in order to build models of motivational components, and the statistics informed the building of the models.

Quantitative research has many advantages, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011:203) state that it is “systematic, rigorous, focused, tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that are generalisable to other contexts”. Due to its narrow questions and numerical data, quantitative research can collect data from large-scale questionnaires in order to understand the nature of an inquiry, and its findings can be generalised. These are the main reasons for using questionnaires in this study. At the same time, quantitative research has some limitations. For example, Gable (1994) suggests that quantitative research is relatively weak in obtaining an in-depth understanding of an enquiry or phenomenon.

4.1.2.2. Qualitative Research

Qualitative research involves “an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:2). Data collection in qualitative research involves, for example, interviews, diaries, and recorded speech samples. Data analysis consists of discovering meaningful themes and patterns.

Qualitative research is a relatively new method in L2 motivation research in comparison with quantitative research; however, some researchers have adopted qualitative methods in their studies (e.g., Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005).

L2 motivation is an “intricate, multifaceted construct” (Dörnyei, 2001b:46); and therefore, it might be difficult to explore its dynamic and complex nature using a quantitative method only. Ushioda (2001:97) asserts the need to use a qualitative method when investigating L2 motivation in order to “analyse and explore aspects of motivation that are not easily accommodated within the dominant [quantitative] research paradigm”.

It appears that qualitative research has great potential to collect rich data and expand the understanding of a phenomenon. However, the main drawback of qualitative data is the involvement of only a small number of participants, which makes it impossible to generalise the findings of a study (Dörnyei, 2007b:41). Put simply, Mackey and Gass (2005) expressed that the term qualitative research is associated with a range of different methods, perspectives, and approaches. In their brief definition of the term, they cited “the term qualitative research can be taken to refer to research that is based on descriptive data that does not make (regular) use of statistical procedures.”(P: 162).

It is worth mentioning in this context that both advocates of the aforementioned approaches have engaged in divisive debates and ardent disputes for more than a century. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) noted that from these debates, purists have emerged on both sides. On one hand, quantitative purists (e.g., Ayer, 1959; Maxwell & Delaney, 2004; Popper, 1959; Schrag, 1992) who articulate assumptions that are consistent with what is commonly called a positivist philosophy as we have mentioned previously. They believe that social observations should be treated as entities in much the same way that physical scientists treat physical phenomena.

On the other hand, the qualitative purists (also called constructivists and interpretivists) who reject what they call positivism. They argue for the superiority of constructivism, idealism, relativism, humanism, hermeneutics, and, sometimes, postmodernism (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Schwandt, 2000; Smith, 1983, 1984).

A more common view of both modes of analysis is held by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie who expressed: “We hope the field will move beyond quantitative versus qualitative research arguments because, as recognised by mixed methods research, both quantitative and qualitative research are important and useful.” (2004: 14-15)

4.1.2.3. Mixed Methods Research

There are many definitions of mixed methods research (e.g., Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). Johnson et al. (2007:123) define it as follows: “Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.”

In this definition, Johnson et al. (2007) focus on the purpose of mixing quantitative and qualitative methods, which is expanding the understanding of a research problem.

Many researchers agreed with this purpose for using mixed methods research (e.g., Reams & Twale, 2008). Reams and Twale (2008:133) add that mixed methods research leads to “more accurate conclusions”.

It has been indicated in the research of L2 motivation that L2 motivation cannot be fully explored using quantitative methods only. In this vein, Dörnyei (2001a:242) calls for

using mixed methods research to investigate L2 motivation as “a combination of qualitative and quantitative designs might bring out the best of both approaches while neutralising the shortcomings and biases inherent in each paradigm.”

Furthermore, the mixed methods approach can be used for many purposes. It can be used in research to employ the result of one method in developing the other method, to expand the results of one method and to seek triangulation by observing the “convergence” of different methods’ results (Dörnyei, 2007b). In addition, mixed methods research has a complementarity function, which aims to produce a comprehensive understanding of the research enquiry by examining its different aspects (Dörnyei, 2007b:164).

4. 1. 2.4. Triangulation Approach

The central purpose behind using triangulation as an approach is to amplify the chances of collecting more reliable data and to evade any biased findings through attempting more than one research method, participant, and approach of inquiry allowing comparison and corroboration of results.

In this context, Olsen (2004) defines triangulation as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints cast light upon a topic. The triangulation of data is helpful in validating the claims that might arise from an initial pilot study. The mixing of methodologies, e.g. mixing the use of survey data with interviews, is a more profound form of triangulation. This means that during this process, the researcher uses multiple sources of data.

It is argued by Olsen (2004) that triangulation is not aimed merely at validation but at deepening and widening one’s understanding and as a research aim, this one can be achieved either by a person or by a research team or group.

It is worth to mention that triangulation, as a process, can be carried out either sequentially, that is, one method after the other, or simultaneously. In this research

triangulation approach is used sequentially. Data triangulation is done by gathering information from teachers and students, and methodological triangulation is achieved by gathering data from questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews to yield more robust evidence.

Dörnyei (2007b:165) identifies this process as “validation-through-convergence” because it increases research validity and overcomes the limitations and biases of using one research method. Triangulation does not entail congruence between the findings of different instruments; on the contrary, it can be viewed as “the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints cast light upon a topic” (Olsen, 2004:3).

In this case, triangulation aims to provide an in-depth understanding of the research enquiry. In some cases, researchers do not expect similar results from using different instruments; however, using more than one instrument to collect data expands the breadth and depth of the research results.

As is the case with previous research approaches, the mixed methods approach has some limitations. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) state that these limitations include the difficulty for one researcher to conduct mixed methods research – as this might need a team of researchers – the complexity of interpreting conflicting data, and the fact that mixed methods research is more expensive and time consuming.

Based on the previously cited purposes of using mixed methods research, this research has adopted the mixed methods approach because it allows provision of a breadth of information using quantitative instruments, as well as exploring the research enquiry in depth using qualitative data. The present study started by distributing and collecting questionnaires from EFL teachers and students. Afterwards, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a number of teachers and students to collect the qualitative data.

Another reason for adopting the mixed methods design in this study is to develop a reliable qualitative instrument which is specifically related to the content of the questionnaire and hence to the context of the study. The questionnaire results provide the different views of participants about motivational teaching practices and the findings of the semi-structured interviews yield a more detailed picture about such views.

Furthermore, the triangulation of data in this study allows the researcher to notice the congruence in participants' beliefs toward motivational strategies; therefore, the validity of the results would be increased through the convergence of quantitative and qualitative findings. Having discussed the research approach used in this study, the design of this research will be presented in the next section.

4.2. Research Design

The research design of any study is framed with the objective of bringing clear answers to the research questions asked by the researcher. According to Creswel (2009:3) "Research designs are plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis". He added "The selection of a research design is also based on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experiences, and the audiences for the study" (p: 3)

The undertaken research involved the use of two interrelated instruments: two questionnaires and two semi-structured interviews. The design followed a QUAN - QUAL mixed methods design to explore the experiences, the perceptions and the views of participants. The quantitative component involved two questionnaires (one for students and another one for teachers) and the qualitative component included two semi-structured

interviews (one with teachers and another one with students). Figure 8 below displays the study design.

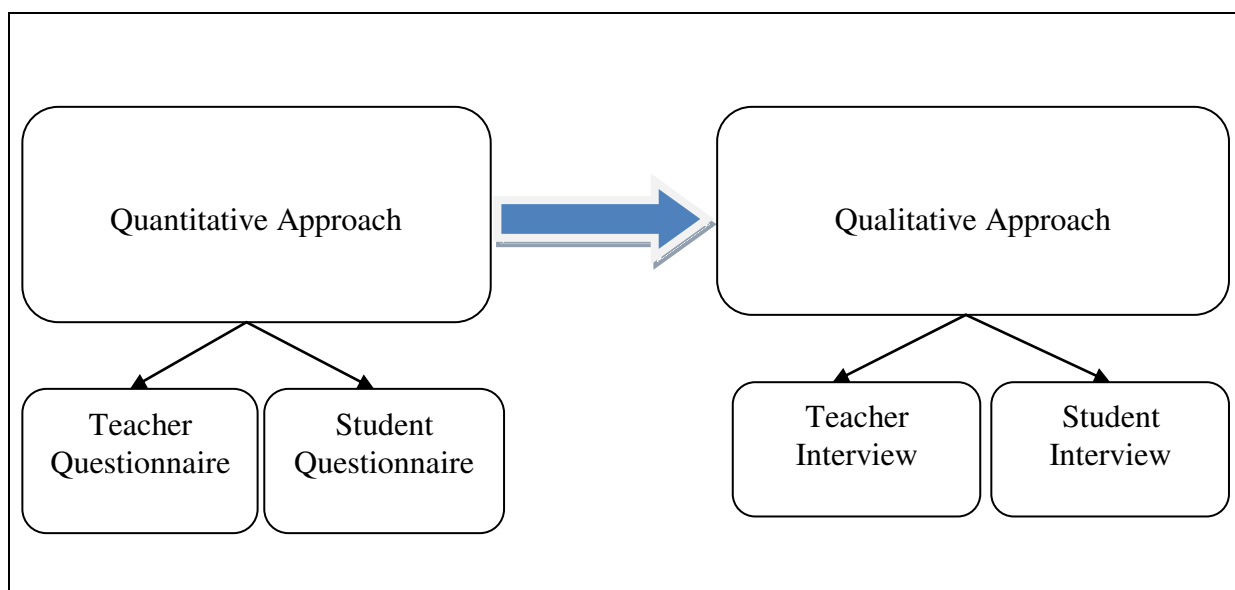


Figure 8: Design of the Study

In this study, the role of each factor was identified; the quantitative and qualitative strands were interactively related as the design of the semi-structured interview was essentially based on teachers' and students' questionnaires. Furthermore, the conclusions and inferences of the study were based on the data of the questionnaires and the interviews. As for the priority in terms of the weight assigned to data collected, it was assigned to both: the quantitative and qualitative strands as explained and indicated in the research design and schematised in Figure 8 above.

Regarding the procedures for mixing the research methods, the quantitative and qualitative strands were combined during the interpretation of the results. In other words, after analysing both sets of data, the conclusions and the interpretations drawn from both data were combined in the discussion chapter. So far, the research approach and design have been identified. In the following section, information about the research sample will be presented before discussing the research instruments.

4.2.1. Research Sample

The participants were EFL university teachers and students from Souk-Ahras University, and the age of student participants is 18 years old and over. The students were enrolled in the first year Human Sciences. The technique used for sampling was ‘convenience sampling’. That is our sample was conveniently selected. It is a non-random sampling method and is defined as “the selection of individuals who happen to be available for study” (Mackey & Gass, 2005:122).

Sampling techniques have advantages as well as weaknesses. Mackey and Gass (2005) point to some strengths and limitations of using convenience sampling in second language research. The main disadvantage of convenience sampling is that it is likely to be biased, which affects population representation. However, using such sampling techniques has many advantages, as the respondents’ participation depends on their willingness to be involved in the study, and there is a “match between the timetable for the research and their own schedules and other commitments” (Mackey & Gass, 2005:122). More information about the participants will be supplied in the following sections.

4.2.2. Research Instruments

The research instruments included two individual semi-structured interviews and two questionnaires. It is stated that structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews are often used in mixed method studies to generate confirmatory results despite differences in methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Brown & Harris, 2010).

In the research methods literature, questionnaires and interviews are seen as having differing and possibly complementary strengths and weaknesses. In this sense, Kendall (2008 cited in Brown & Harris, 2010:1) indicated: “While questionnaires can provide

evidence of patterns amongst large populations, qualitative interview data often gather more in-depth insights on participant attitudes, thoughts, and actions.”

In the following section, there will be an explanation of the instruments used and the designing of the quantitative instrument.

4.2.3. Quantitative Research Instrument

As mentioned earlier, the current research is conducted under the quantitative approach in some of its aspects. In order to grasp the nature of quantitative research it is important to check some relevant knowledge.

In broad brush, this type of research uses numbers and statistical methods. It tends to be based on numerical measurements of specific aspects of phenomena; it abstracts from particular instances to seek general description or to test causal hypotheses; it seeks measurements and analyses that are easily replicable by other researchers (King, Keohane & Verba, 1994). In the same context, in a structured questionnaire, participants respond to prompts by selecting from predetermined answers for example: Likert scales and multiple choice responses; these data are typically analysed quantitatively (Harris & brown 2010).

However, Oppenheim 1992 (cited in Harris & Brown,2010:2) argued that “Questionnaires are usually viewed as a more objective research tool that can produce generalisable results because of large sample sizes, results can be threatened by many factors including: faulty questionnaire design; sampling and non-response errors; biased questionnaire design and wording; respondent unreliability, ignorance, misunderstanding, reticence, or bias; errors in coding, processing, and statistical analysis; and faulty interpretation of results”. In this section, there will be a discussion of the development of the study questionnaire.

4.2.3.1. Development of Questionnaire Items

The main source that informs the development of the questionnaire items is the initial work conducted in the area of L2 motivational strategies by Dörnyei and his colleague Csizér in 1998 and that resulted in the conceptualisation of motivational strategies used in the L2 classroom. Dörnyei and Csizér's study is relevant for the field of L2 motivation since the researchers attempted to investigate whether and to what extent theoretical recommendations apply to real classroom practice. More importantly, their study throws some light on the application of motivational techniques in L2 and has uncovered that even strategies considered important may be underutilised in the FL classroom.

The questionnaire used in the study at hand is based on a questionnaire Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) used to rate the importance and frequency of different motivational strategies used in Hungarian English classrooms. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) administered a questionnaire consisting of 51 micro-strategies (teaching practices) and asked 200 teachers to rate on a seven point scale the importance of the strategy used and the frequency of classroom use of each individual strategy (116 of the teachers completed the importance survey, and 84 completed the frequency survey). However, the present study questionnaire differs slightly from that of Dörnyei and Csizér in some aspects that will be accounted for here.

Firstly, the present questionnaire attempts to verify the importance of motivational strategies from both student and teacher perspective through applying the same type of questionnaire. Secondly, Dörnyei and Csizér's questionnaire consisted of 51 strategies listed and ranked on a 7-point Likert scale while the undertaken study questionnaire consisted of 44 strategies and ranked on a 5- point Likert scale, 1 meaning "not important",

2 meaning “somewhat important”, 3 meaning “moderately important”, 4 “meaning important” and 5 meaning “very important”.

Moreover, a few motivational strategies from the previous version that did not apply to a college level classroom were eliminated including—“help maintain the set of classroom rules that students accepted,” “involve students in creating their own classroom rules,” “regularly review the classroom rules with your students,” and “encourage the learners to decorate the classroom and make it cosy in any way they can”. Furthermore, the omitted items were not replaced and no extra strategies were incorporated.

Additionally, the wording of each strategy was slightly adapted to apply to both students and teachers at Souk-Ahras University. Another salient difference between the survey instrument in this study and that of the Dörnyei and Csizér study upon which it is based is the absence of questions related to the frequency with which teachers use particular motivational strategies. For purposes of the present study, more focus is placed only on the extent to which each strategy was perceived as motivational or not on the teachers’ actual practices.

The motivational strategies were grouped into similar conceptual domains and also divided into individual micro-strategies. Conceptual domains are larger, more general categories made-up of related micro-strategies. For example, the micro-strategies “creating a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom,” and “having activities and fun in class” are individual teaching practices that contribute to the climate of the classroom. Thus, the conceptual domain for this group of related micro-strategies is “Climate”. Micro-strategies are the individual teaching practices that a teacher might use in the classroom to increase students’ motivation such as “creating a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom,” or “having activities and fun in class”. In fact, neither Dörnyei and Csizér’s list nor the study’s list are

exhaustive. They are, for the most part, syntheses of instructional techniques reflected in the literature and previous studies.

Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) framework of MTP will be used to classify the motivational strategies drawn from the quantitative data, since they synthesise most of the theories of L2 motivation and make these theories applicable in the language classroom.

This study consists of 44 individual micro-strategies (teaching practices). The 44 related micro-strategies have been clustered together into 15 larger categories, or conceptual domains. Table 3 on the next page presents a list of each conceptual domain and micro-strategy involved in this study, and how they have been grouped. These conceptual domain groupings are taken from previous research (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

As acknowledged by the authors, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), the list of strategies was a 'partly intuitive compiled list' (1998:223); it encompassed strategies drawn from a previous study (Dörnyei, 1994a) and from literature on the topic (e.g.: Brophy, 1987; Keller, 1983; Oxford & Shearin, 1994) as well as from the authors' own experiences. Table 3 on the following page shows the fifteen conceptual domains in addition to their respective micro-strategies.

Table 3. Conceptual Domains and Micro-Strategies

Conceptual Domains/Scales	Micro-Strategies
(1)Teacher	1. Properly prepare for the lesson.
	2. Show a good example by being committed and motivated to helping the student succeed.
	3. Behave naturally and genuinely in class.
	4. Be sensitive and accepting.

(2) Climate	5. Create a pleasant atmosphere in class.
	6. Bring in humor, laughter and smile.
	7. Have activities and fun in class.
	8. Have game-like competitions in class.
(3) Task	9. Give clear instructions.
	10. Provide guidance about how to do the task.
	11. Clearly state the purpose and utility of every task.
(4) Rapport	12. Develop a good relationship with the students.
(5) Self - Confidence	13. Give positive feedback and appraisal.
	14. Make sure that students experience success regularly.
	15. Encourage students.
	16. Explain that mistakes are a natural part of learning.
	17. Select tasks that do not exceed the learners' competence.
(6) Interest	18. Select interesting tasks.
	19. Choose interesting topics.
	20. Offer a variety of materials.
	21. Vary the activities.
	22. Make tasks challenging to involve the students.
	23. Build on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.
	24. Raise learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.

(7) Autonomy	25. Encourage creative and imaginative ideas.
	26. Encourage questions and other contributions from students.
	27. Share as much responsibility to organize the learning process with the students as possible.
(8) Personal relevance	28. Fill the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.
(9) Goal	29. Help the students develop realistic expectations about learning.
	30. Set up several specific learning goals for the learners.
	31. Increase the group's goal-orientedness.
	32. Tailor instructions to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.
	33. Help students design their individual study plans.
(10) Culture	34. Familiarise the learners with the culture of the language they are learning.
	35. Use authentic materials (i.e. printed or recorded materials that were produced for native speakers rather than students).
	36. Find penpals or "keypals" (Internet correspondents) for the students.
(11) Group work	37. Include group work in class.
	38. Help students to get to know one another.
	39. Participate as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.
	40. Organise extracurricular activities outside of class.
(12) Effort	41. Help students realise it's mainly effort that is needed for success.
(13) Language usefulness	42. Emphasise the usefulness of the language.
(14) Reward	43. Give the learners other rewards besides grades.
(15) Finished product	44. Allow students to create products that they can display or perform.

The student questionnaire presented a list of each of these 44 teaching practices that a teacher might use in the FL classroom and asked students to rate the importance of that particular practice according to their perception to the role it plays in motivating them to learn the language. Similarly, the teacher questionnaire presented a list of the same 44 teaching practices, and asked instructors to indicate how important they consider these motivational strategies in motivating their students to learn.

4.2.3.1.1. Participants

The questionnaire was administered to 21 EFL university teachers and 200 EFL university students. Both male and female teachers and students participated in the study. The number of both participants is displayed on Table 4 below.

Table 4: Number of Participants in Questionnaires

University	EFL Teachers	EFL Students
Souk-Ahras University	21	200

4.2.3.1.2. Questionnaire Administration Procedures

The focus of this study, as already stated, is to find out which teaching practices students consider motivational and which teaching practices teachers believe motivate students and not to find out how often certain teaching practices are employed.

The participants were not asked to rate the frequency of classroom use of each individual strategy. Each respondent, teacher and student alike, rated each strategy using a 5- point Likert type in scale “Very important, important, moderately important, somewhat important, and not important”. Likert scaling is the most frequently applied scaling technique in educational research.

The surveys also contained questions asking for basic demographic information about teachers and students including their age, gender and the teachers' teaching experience. The ordering of the questions is based on suggestions of previous research in designing questionnaires. It has been suggested that the questionnaire should start with questions relating to the topic of the study rather than background information, which should be placed at the end of the questionnaire. Beginning the questionnaires with background questions can "result in a kind of anticlimax in the respondents and it may be difficult to rekindle their enthusiasm again" (Dörnyei, 2003:61).

Yet, two forms of the questionnaire were distributed: namely, a teacher form and a student form. These two forms are mainly similar. As mentioned previously, the main source of the questionnaire items is Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) conceptualisation of motivational practices/strategies used in the L2 classroom , though it is worth to mention that their research, and later research (Cheng & Dörnyei 2007), focussed exclusively on the perspectives of teachers and did not take into account the perspectives of learners.

The questionnaires were distributed to EFL teachers and students. The teachers were handed the questionnaires by the researcher, while the students were administered the questionnaires by their EFL teachers during class time and took approximately 20-30 minutes to complete.

Before distributing the questionnaire among the students the nature and purpose of the survey were explained to them, moreover they were assured strongly that their responses will be kept confidential in order to relieve them from any kind of fear and pressure. Respondents were asked to read the questionnaire carefully and if they find any statement ambiguous or difficult they can ask freely for help.

All respondents agreed prior to their completion of the questionnaires. Students were asked to put a cross next to each statement according to how important they perceive it for their motivation to learn English. Similar procedure was followed in each class and for all the students to minimise the missing data.

4.3. Data Analysis (Questionnaires)

The questionnaires were coded with numbers for anonymity purposes. Then, the reliability of the scales was tested using Cronbach Alpha. The item analysis resulted in reducing the number of scales and questionnaire items. As for scales, they were reduced into 10 scales, see (Table 5) on the following page.

After item analysis, there are scales that could not statistically form reliable scales, and therefore they were combined to form one scale to increase its reliability. For example, 'Climate' as a scale was combined with 'Rapport' and scales such as: 'Effort', 'Personal relevance' and 'Language usefulness', all of them one item scale, were combined with the scale of 'Self-Confidence'.

It should be clarified at this stage that 'Self-Confidence Scale' comprises (5) items before the item analysis amongst which (2) were omitted and excluded after the item-analysis. Besides, we added to it the aforementioned individual -item scales (4) items, yet it counted (7) items and we added to it another item that we deleted from the 'Autonomy scale' since it reduced its internal reliability, then the total number of items in the 'Self-Confidence Scale' is (8).

In addition, some questionnaire items that reduced the internal reliability of the scale and could not be added to any scale were deleted and excluded from the study. These are items (1), (4), (16), (17), and (34). Only one scale, 'Reward Scale', remained as one

individual-item variable. Therefore, the number of the strategies was reduced from 44 items to 39 items. Table 5 below displays the questionnaire scales and items before and after the item analysis.

Table 5: Questionnaire Scales and Items after Item Analysis

Before Item Analysis		After Item Analysis		After Omitting/Adding Items to Increase Scales Reliability	
Scale (15 scales)	N°. of Items	Scale (10 scales)	N°. of Items	Scale (10 scales)	N°. of Items
Teacher	4	Teacher	2	Teacher	2
Climate	4	Climate	5	Climate	5
Rapport	1				
Task	3	Task	3	Task	3
Self-Confidence	5	Self-Confidence	3	Self-Confidence	7+1
Effort	1				
Personal relevance	1				
Finished product	1				
Language usefulness	1				
Interest	7	Interest	7	Interest	7
Autonomy	3	Autonomy	2	Autonomy	2
Goal	5	Goal	5	Goal	5
Culture	3	Culture	2	Culture	2
Group work	4	Group work	4	Group work	4
Reward	1	Reward	1	Reward	1

After these modifications, the present study questionnaire scales and number of items are shown on Table 6 below and for a full version of the conceptual domains/scales

and micro-strategies /items used in the present study questionnaire after the item analysis (see Appendix N°1).

Table 6: Questionnaire Scales and Number of Items

Scale	N° of Items
1. Teacher	2
2. Climate	5
3. Task	3
4. Self-Confidence	8
5. Interest	7
6. Autonomy	2
7. Goal	5
8. Culture	2
9. Group work	4
10. Reward	1
Total	39

4.3.1. Qualitative Research Instrument

In addition to the quantitative research instrument previously detailed, the present study made resort to another qualitative research tool: the interview.

In fact, interviews are seen as the most familiar strategies for collecting qualitative data. They can be classified as structured, semi-structured, or unstructured (Fontana & Frey, 1994; Mackey & Gass, 2005). In accordance with this, it has been indicated that qualitative research in contrast to quantitative research covers a wide range of approaches, but by definition, none of these approaches relies on numerical measurements (King et al, 1994). In the opinion of Mackey and Gass (2005) interviews are often associated with survey-based research and are used as a technique by many qualitative researchers. According to them, the less rigid ones are the semi-structured interviews during which the researcher is guided by a written list of questions and having the freedom to digress and probe for more information (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Significantly enough, King et al (1994) emphasised that even though the work of qualitative researchers focuses on one or a small number of cases, to use intensive interviews or depth analysis of historical materials, to be discursive in method, and to be concerned with a rounded or comprehensive account of some event or unit, they generally unearth enormous amounts of information from their studies.

Equally important, Kendall 2008 (cited in Harris & Brown, 2010:1) has stated that “qualitative interview data often gather more in-depth insights on participant attitudes, thoughts, and actions”. In the same direction, Harris and Brown (2010:1) have expressed, “In a semi-structured interview, interviewers begin with a small set of open-ended questions, but spend considerable time probing participant responses, encouraging them to provide detail and clarification; these data are generally analysed qualitatively.”

It bears emphasising, however, that in the research methods literature, interviews are seen as having strengths and weaknesses. In this sense, Harris and Brown (2010) argued that interviews provide contexts where participants can ask for clarification, elaborate on ideas, and explain perspectives in their own words, the interviewer can use

questioning to lead or manipulate interviewee responses. Interviews are an appropriate method when researchers are concerned with the quality, not quantity of responses, and when they seek to answer a why or how questions about contemporary events over which the researcher has little or no control (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

In the same direction, it has been pointed out that interviews can allow researchers to investigate phenomena that are not subject to direct observation, such as learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes or elicit data from learners who are not comfortable in other modes, writing for example (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Conversely, researchers must as well cater for the potential caveats of interviews. In this vein, Hall and Rist (1999 cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005:174) pointed it out clearly that interviews may involve "selective recall, self-delusion, perceptual distortions, memory loss from the respondent, and subjectivity in the researcher's recording and interpreting of the data". Mackey and Gass (2005) have added that it may not be an easy task for novice researchers to conduct unstructured interviews without practice and / or training in drawing participants out, encouraging them to express themselves, and gathering valuable data on the area of interest. More importantly than that, they cited the danger of the so-called halo effect. The latter happens when interviewees select cues from the researcher connected to what they think the researcher wants them to say, and yet they potentially influence their responses (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

The main aims behind conducting the interviews were firstly to develop an in-depth understanding of participants' views about motivational strategies. Secondly, to gain valuable information about the motivational strategies which were felt should or should not be used in the foreign language classroom and thirdly to strengthen the findings of the study.

The interview guidelines were developed to address the research questions. They investigate the motivational teaching practices used in the English classroom from the perspectives of teachers and students, and examine the reasons behind the importance of some motivational teaching practices. Interview guidelines were based on Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) conceptualisation about motivational L2 teaching practices.

For this purpose, semi-structured interviews were conducted with six EFL teachers and six EFL students. This type was chosen to structure the interviews because, as mentioned earlier, it allows the interviewer to set guideline questions and at the same time, it allows elaboration on useful information (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Purposive sampling is used to identify my participants since this technique of sampling is based on the fact that participants are rather selected strategically to make sure that those are the best-positioned to yield answers relevant to the context. In qualitative research, samples are not usually selected randomly (Creswell, 2007).

4.3.1.1. Participants

The second stage in the data collection was conducting semi-structured interviews with six EFL university teachers and six EFL students.

Table 7: Participants' Number in Interviews

University	EFL Teachers	EFL Students
Souk-Ahras University	6	6

4.3.1.2. Interview Conducting Procedures

The interviews were conducted in the participants' place of employment (The University). Interviews may be conducted in various modes: face-to-face, by telephone, videophone but face-to face is probably the best one.

In our case, interviews were conducted individually; they were face-to-face and recorded. They were conducted in English. The purpose of the interviews was explained to participants and they agreed prior to the commencement of the interview. The average length of each interview was about 30 minutes; the following table shows the duration of each interview. The interviews were semi-structured, individually recorded and took place in the university facilities. The anonymity of the participants was ensured by coding the interviews with alphabetical letters. Table 8 on the next page displays the duration of both teachers and students' interviews and the total time duration.

Table 8: Durations of Interviews

Participants		Interview duration
Teachers	Teacher A	23:03
	Teacher B	43:05
	Teacher C	28:30
	Teacher D	30.13
	Teacher E	27.19
	Teacher F	32.21
Students	Student G	19:02
	Student H	23:07
	Student I	22:28

	Student J	18:16
	Student K	21:11
	Student L	17:14
Total	6 teachers + 6 students	05:07:49

Two forms of interview guidelines were developed: namely, a teacher form and student form. During the interviews, participants were given the opportunity to express their thoughts and experiences. The topic of the study was explained to participants and they were provided with a short summary about motivational strategies that could also be used in the language classroom; this gave interviewees an opportunity to understand the main topic of the study and allow them to express their opinions around this specific area.

The interviews began with an introduction of the researcher, and explanation of the main purposes of the study and the basic interview process. Then, the participants were assured of the confidentiality of the interviews. The first few minutes of the interviews were spent discussing some biographical details, with the aim of creating a relaxed atmosphere. As recommended by Mackey and Gass (2005) the interviewer should attempt to make the interviewee as comfortable as possible. Yet, an interview starts with small talk to relax the interviewee and it is preferable to be conducted in a familiar place.

After that, the interviews followed the semi-structured interview guidelines. At the end of each interview, the participants were thanked for their time and cooperation. The interviews went well, and rich data were collected. Teachers spoke clearly about the strategies they use to motivate their students in the English classroom. They explicitly expressed their views about how students can be motivated.

EFL teachers who participated also appeared willing to discuss the topic of MTPs, and spoke about their really lived experiences in the FL classroom. Additionally, students find it an interesting occasion to express their views about how they can be motivated. They appeared willing to discuss the topic of MTPs. Teachers constantly referred to their current teaching practices, and students frequently gave examples of MTPs used by their teachers.

4.4. Data Analysis (Interviews)

The interviews were transcribed, coded, and translated. Then, the qualitative data were thematically analysed, and the themes related to the motivational strategies used in the language classroom were grouped and then classified. Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) conceptualisation of motivational strategies was used as a framework when analysing the motivational strategies which were discussed during the interviews; the guidelines are attached in Appendices (3) (Teacher Interview) and (4) (Student Interview).

The role of the interviews was of vital importance; the interviews were used to explore the EFL teachers and students' views about motivational strategies. Furthermore, the collected data provided essential information that will be compared with the information of the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires that were administered to both 21 university teachers and 200 first year human sciences university students and which were relevant to the context of the study.

The main aims of the interviews were to develop an in-depth understanding of participants' views about motivational strategies, and to strengthen the findings of the study. The interview guidelines were developed to address the research questions. They investigate the MTPs used in the English classroom from the perspectives of teachers and students, and examine the reasons behind the importance of some MTPs.

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. In order to describe these ideas, codes are generated from the data which are then classified into relevant themes. Dörnyei (2007b) suggests several stages to be taken in order to interpret qualitative data. Generally, these stages include transcribing the data, initial coding, grouping initial coding, searching for themes, defining and naming themes, and writing the report. These stages were used in the analysis of this qualitative data, and this is not to say that they are separate stages, as the researcher might be in stage four, but at the same time modify some codes in stage two.

However, it bears emphasising at this phase that some software programmes are designed to assist the analysis of qualitative data such as: NVivo and which is not used in this research. Now, the stages of the qualitative analysis will be presented, and excerpts from the data will be provided in parallel to illustrate these stages:

Stage 1:

All the interviews were transcribed in English. Pauses are marked by two or three dots, and missing words are marked with more than three dots. An excerpt of the transcription for one teacher and one student are reported in Appendices (10 & 11). The transcripts were read through to have an overall impression about the data.

Stage 2:

The data were organised into tables of two columns, the first column for the transcript and the second for initial coding, as shown in the excerpt in Figure 9 below.

Research interview number 2. Semi-structured interview with teacher B.	
The researcher (Question): Tell me about the	Interviewee (Answer): To motivate them ,we have first to set up goals:

<p>teaching practices you use when you want to motivate your students?</p>	<p>Improving their pronunciation, learning, language structure, language in general.</p> <p>So, working on these different aspects, we noticed that we need extra materials:</p> <p>New technology, this new virtual world in terms of what may enhance and encourage them to do better</p> <p>Our objective is just to make them improve and progress. I personally, use different strategies</p> <p>I tell them to link the learning with the objectives they need in life.</p> <p>We need visual aids, videos, movies.</p> <p>Speak the language like the native speakers.</p> <p>Make their desire grow.</p> <p>Build on emotional aspects. Learners are no longer cognitive beings but rather emotional...that means we should look for their desires, what do they want? Tell them you can do better.</p> <p>May be one day, you visit a foreign English speaking country.</p> <p>It's better to learn the language.</p>
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Figure 9: Organising Data into Tables

Then, the transcript was initially coded. At this level, all the segments were coded whether they were related to the research questions or not. If the paragraph had more than one coding, each segment was given one or two word summary or code for each chunk of data in the coding column as an open coding or what is sometimes referred to as indexing, as appeared in the following excerpt in Figure 10.

The Transcript	The Initial Coding
<p>The researcher (Question): Tell me about the teaching practices you use when you want to motivate your students?</p> <p>Interviewee (Answer):</p> <p>To motivate them ,we have first to set up goals: Improving their pronunciation, learning, language structure, language in general.</p> <p>So, working on these different aspects, we noticed that we need extra materials: New technology, this new virtual world in terms of what may enhance and encourage them to do better</p> <p>Our objective is just to make them improve and progress. I personally, use different strategies</p> <p>I tell them to link the learning with the objectives they need in life.</p> <p>We need visual aids, videos, movies.</p> <p>Speak the language like the native speakers.</p> <p>Make their desire grow.</p> <p>Build on emotional aspects. Learners are no longer cognitive beings but rather emotional...that means we should look for their desires, what do they want?</p> <p>Tell them you can do better.</p> <p>May be one day, you visit a foreign English speaking country. It's better to learn the language.</p>	<p>Setting specific learning goals</p> <p>Need of Extra-materials New technology</p> <p>Make students do better Develop Realistic learning expectations Visual aids Ideal L2 Self Affective and emotional learning aspects</p> <p>Feedback Benefits of English in future</p>

Figure 10: Initial Coding

After the initial coding, a list of codes was generated as in Figure 11 below.

<p>Table of Codes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Setting learning goals -High technology materials - Realistic learning expectations “goals” - Using visual aids - Ideal L2 self

- Emotional and affective learning aspects
- Feedback
- Future benefits of English

Figure 11: Table of Codes

Stage 3:

After that, the most important codes were grouped into subthemes, as shown in the excerpt in Figure 12 on the next page.

Qualitative Data	Codes	Subthemes
To motivate them ,we have first to set up goals: Improving their pronunciation, learning, language structure, language in general.	Setting various learning goals	Learning Goals
May be one day, you visit a foreign English speaking country. It's better to learn the language.	Future benefits of using English	L2 related values
Make their desire grow. Build on emotional aspects. Learners are no longer cognitive beings but rather emotional...that means we should look for their desires, what do they want?	Emotional and affective learning aspects	Affective learner aspects

Figure 12: Generating Subthemes

Stage 4:

In this stage, the salient aim was to combine codes and subthemes and narrow them down into themes. This step was conducted by grouping multiple subthemes or subcategories which were related to each other. For this purpose, constant comparisons were done to check new codes matching with the subthemes that lead to the broader theme

through reading all the collected extracts for each theme, and considering if they appeared to form a coherent pattern. If the theme was coherent, it was kept; and if the theme included unrelated subthemes, this theme was modified by moving the subthemes to another theme or by discarding some subthemes from the analysis. It was done in an iterative process.

Stage 5:

After reviewing all the themes, a new column for themes was inserted, as shown in Figure 13 below.

Qualitative Data	Codes	Subthemes	Themes
To motivate them ,we have first to set up goals: Improving their pronunciation, learning, language structure, language in general.	Setting various learning goals	Learning Goals	Goals
May be one day, you visit a foreign English speaking country. It's better to learn the language.	Future benefits of using English	English future benefits	L2 related values
Make their desire grow. Build on emotional aspects. Learners are no longer cognitive beings but rather emotional...that means we should look for their desires, what do they want?	Emotional and affective learning aspects	Affective learner aspects	Affect

Figure 13: Identifying Themes

By the end of these five stages, twelve themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis and these themes will be presented in Chapter 7. It should be noted that during this process, a number of criteria suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985) was followed including credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. These criteria relate to the evidence of exposure to the context of the study, richness of the interpretation

of the data, and documentation of the research design and data analysis. These criteria contribute to the ‘trustworthiness’ of the findings of the qualitative findings. Trustworthiness refers to ‘how can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences (including self) that the findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to, worth taking account of’ (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:290).

4.5. Ethical Considerations

This research was guided by ethical considerations throughout the different stages. Essential ethical principles were adopted when collecting and processing the quantitative and qualitative data. Such principles were based on suggestions from some researchers such as Mackey and Gass (2005) and Dörnyei (2007b). These principles include voluntary participation, informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality.

When administering the questionnaires and conducting interviews, teachers and students were voluntary recruited and they were given the option of withdrawing at any time. The confidentiality and anonymity of the participant were ensured by following some procedures. First, participants were not asked to write their full names on the questionnaire papers. Second, participants who provided their personal information in the interview data were anonymised. Third, questionnaires were numbered and interviews were alphabetically coded. Fourth, data was kept confidential and stored in a safe place, and will be destroyed after the completion of this project.

Conclusion

This chapter discusses the methodology applied in examining EFL teachers’ and students’ beliefs about the MTPs. It starts by describing the research paradigms and approaches which inform the research design and methods used in this study to yield



quantitative and qualitative information about the importance of the strategies. In addition, a detailed explanation of the research instruments is provided. In the next two chapters, the quantitative results will be presented.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF TEACHERS

QUANTITATIVE DATA

Introduction

This chapter provides the results of the teachers' quantitative data and will be followed by the presentation of the students' quantitative data in the following chapter. The main findings of chapters 5 and 6 in addition to the findings of the qualitative data reported in chapter 7 are integrated and discussed in chapter 8 as suggested by a number of researchers (e.g., Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

As for the current chapter, it starts with discussing the reliability of the instrument and the normality of data which affects the choice of statistical tests used to examine the quantitative data. Next, teacher descriptive results in terms of teacher background information are reported. Besides, teacher perceptions about motivational scales are stated in more details with particular reference to each scale and finally a summary of the teachers' perceptions about motivational strategies rounds up the chapter. In the following part, the reliability of the quantitative research instruments is confirmed, and the normality of the data is examined.

5.1. Reliability of Scales

In psychology, sociology, and other social sciences, internal consistency perspective becomes dominant and formed the basis of many reliability estimates and of factor analysis (Bollen & Lennox, 1991). In the same vein, it has been cited by Steiner (2003:217) that "One of the central tenets of classical test theory is that scales should have a high degree of internal consistency, as evidenced by Cronbach's α , the mean interitem correlation, and a strong first component". Yet, in our study, the internal reliability of the multi-items scale was measured using Cronbach Alpha coefficient as the most efficient

statistic measure of internal consistency. It should be as well indicated that ‘Internal consistency’ is sometimes termed or referred to as ‘Homogeneity’.

Some researchers such as Dörnyei (2007b) recommended that the Cronbach Alpha of a scale should be above 0.70. However, it is pointed out that it is difficult for short scales (fewer than ten items) to reach 0.70 (Dörnyei, 2007b); and therefore, it is suggested that reaching .60 is sufficient (Dörnyei, 2003).

In a similar context, other researchers such as Briggs and Cheek (1986:115) argued that “The optimal level of homogeneity occurs when the mean interitem correlation is in the .2 to .4 range. Lower than .1 and it is likely that a single total score could not adequately represent the complexity of the items; higher than .5 and the items on a scale tend to be overly redundant and the construct measured too specific. The .2 to .4 range of inter-correlations would seem to offer an acceptable balance between bandwidth on the one hand and fidelity on the other”.

With the above information in mind, a number of 21 teachers’ questionnaires containing 10 Conceptual Domains (CDs) /scales and 39 strategies/items were subjected to statistical analysis. SPSS 18.0 was used to compute descriptive statistics and reliability analyses of the questionnaires. The internal consistency analysis of the 39 strategies shows a high level of reliability among the teachers. They obtained a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of **.878**. Table 9 on the next page displays the Cronbach Alpha of each scale and the mean inter-item correlation.

Table 9: Internal Reliability of Scales and Mean Inter-Item Correlation.

Scales	Item n°	Teachers		
		Case n°	α	MI-IC

Teacher behaviour	2	21	0.67	0.4
Classroom climate	5	21	0.75	0.3
Task	3	21	0.59	0.2
Self-Confidence	8	21	0.65	0.2
Interest	7	21	0.78	0.3
Autonomy	2	21	0.58	0.3
Goal	5	21	0.60	0.2
Culture	2	21	0.58	0.2
Group work	4	21	0.58	0.2

Note: 1= Cronbach Alpha, 2= mean inter-item correlation.

As table 9 above displays, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the questionnaire scales ranges from 0.58 to .78; this is considered within the range of accepted reliability of the scales, based on Dörnyei's (2003) argument (0.58 equals 0.6 when rounded).

5.2. Normality of Data

The normality of the data is investigated by the examination of the Skewness and Kurtosis values of the scales, and the histograms of the data distribution which are suggested by Field (2009). Skewness is the measure of symmetry of the distribution, while Kurtosis values indicate the degree of the 'peakedness' of the distribution. The value of skewness and kurtosis in normally distributed data is zero, and if Skewness and Kurtosis values are above or below zero, this indicates a non-normality in the data distribution (Field, 2009). When the Skewness values are positively skewed, this indicates that scores are piled at the low values (left-hand side of a graph).

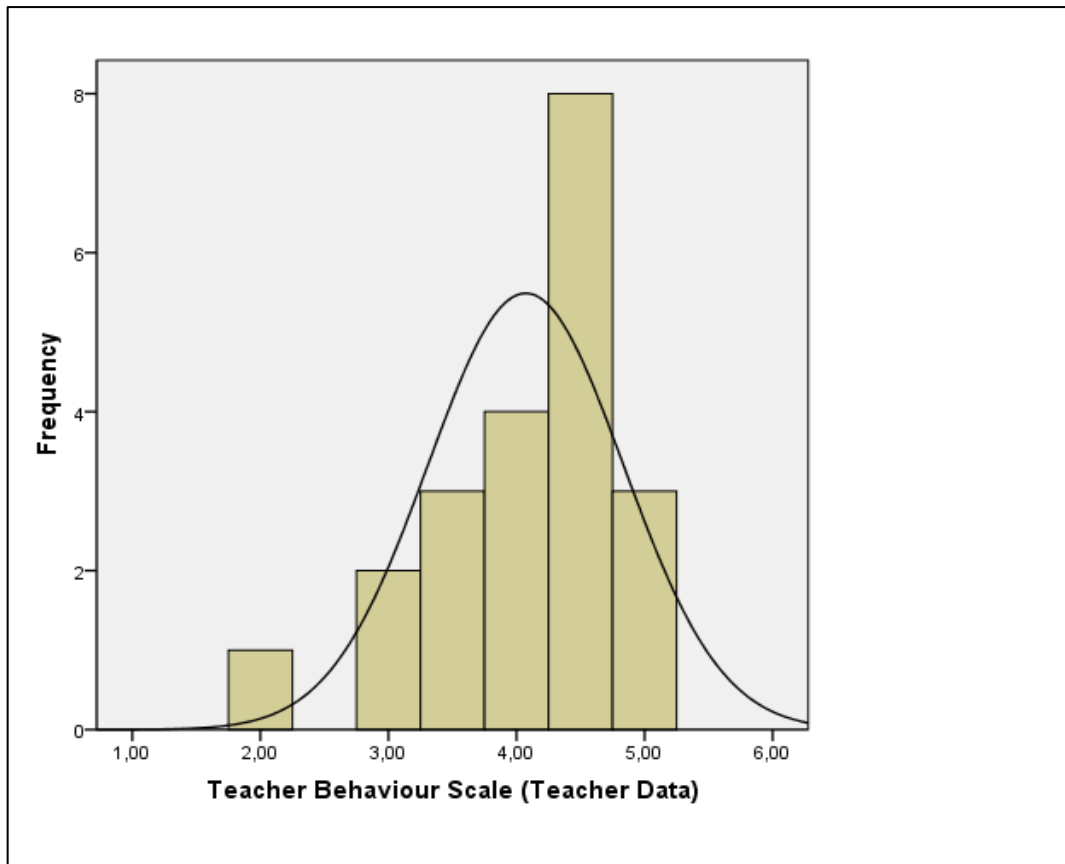
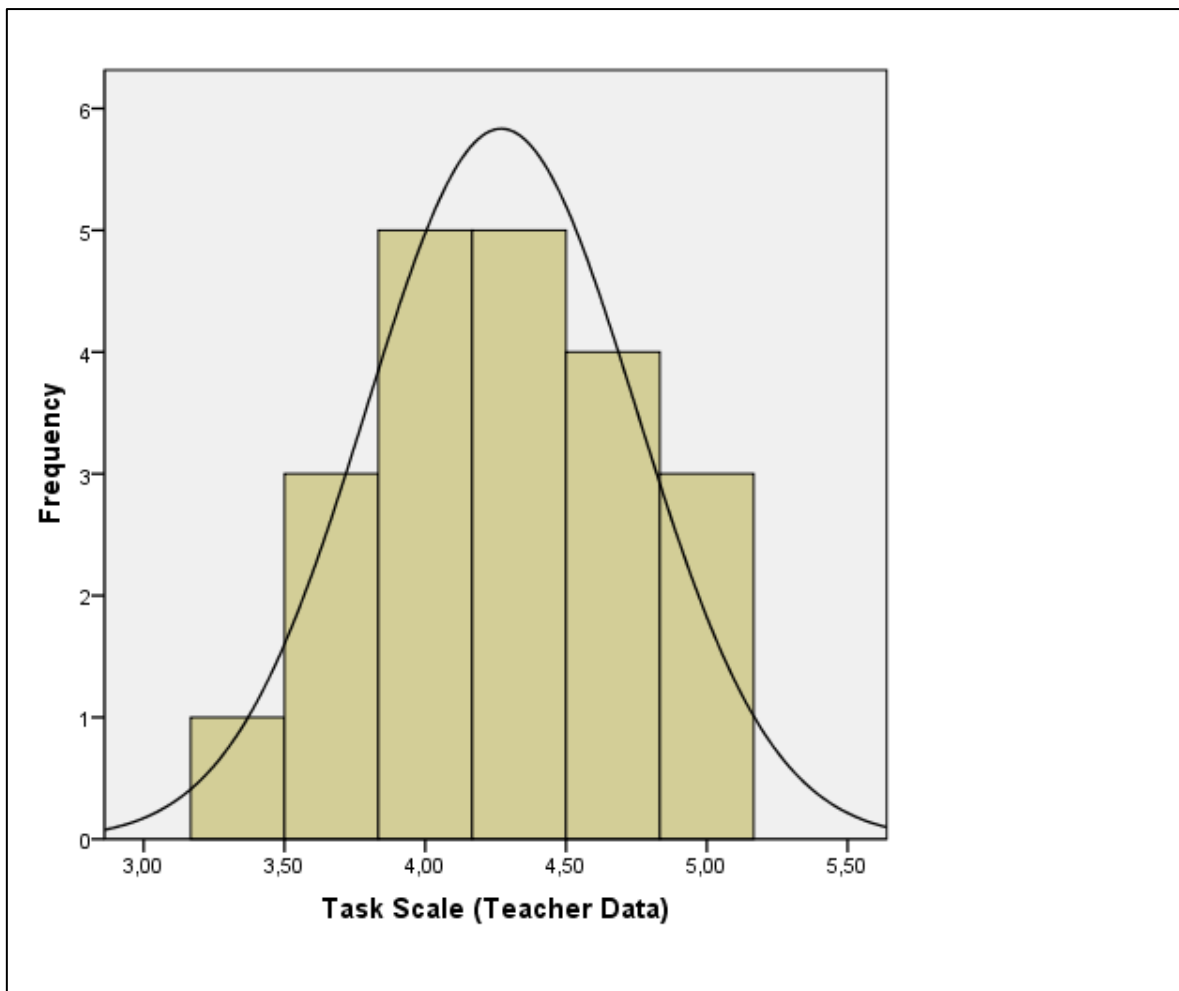


Figure 14: Illustrating Skewness and Kurtosis of Data Distribution, Teacher Behaviour Scale (Teacher Data)

When there are negative Skewness values, the scores are clustered at high values (right-hand side of a graph). Figure 14 illustrates the skewness of the ‘Teacher behaviour scale’ (Teachers data), which is negatively skewed at -2.205.

As for Kurtosis, positive kurtosis indicates that the distribution is clustered or peaked, with a long tail, while negative Kurtosis indicates that the distribution is flat, with some cases in the tails. Figure 15 on the next page represents a negative Kurtosis (-.770) of the ‘Task scale’.



**Figure 15: Illustrating Skewness and Kurtosis of Data Distribution,
Task Scale (Teacher Data)**

In the following section there will be more discussion on the normality of the data where some scales appear to be near/normally distributed. Figure 15 above illustrates positives Skewness and Kurtosis of the 'Goal scale '(Teacher Data) at (1.317) and (.397) Kurtosis.

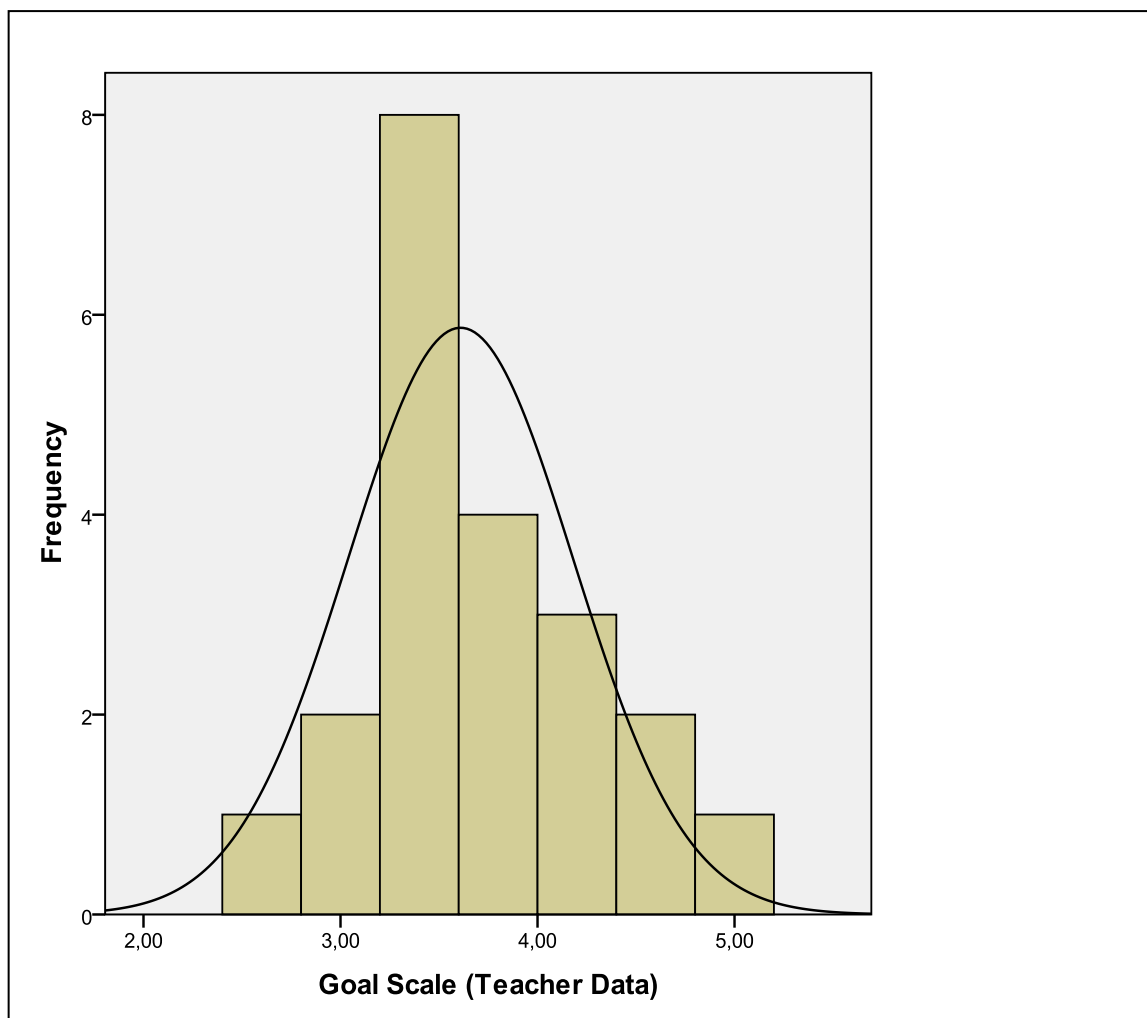


Figure 16: Illustrating Skewness and Kurtosis of Data Distribution, Goal Scale (Teacher Data)

The following table presents the Skewness and Kurtosis values of the ten scales of teachers' data. In Appendix 14, these values of teachers' questionnaire items are reported.

The obtained figures show that all the scales in the teachers' data are negatively skewed, which shows that most of the responses are clustered in the agreement direction of the scale. Most of the Kurtosis values in the teacher data have positive and negative Kurtosis values. Applying the rule of ± 1 as a problematic indication of the normality of the data, it appears that about half of the scales are not normally distributed. When the histograms are examined, it appears that some scales are clearly not normally distributed (see Figure 14), while other scales are normally or near normally distributed (see Figure

15). For the histograms of all the scales of teacher and student data, (see Appendices 15 and 16).

In the following sections, the teachers' descriptive results will be presented in addition to their perceptions of motivational scales that are examined.

Table 10: Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Scales

Scales	Teachers	
	Skewness	Kurtosis
Teacher behaviour	-2.205	1.283
Classroom climate	-1.219	.036
Task	-.159	-.770
Self-Confidence	-.229	-.064
Interest	-1.453	.280
Autonomy	.375	-.770
Goal	1.317	.397
Culture	-.101	-.274
Group work	1.263	-.337
Reward	-.932	-.794

5.3. Teacher Descriptive Results

5.3.1. Teacher Background Information

The total number of teachers is 21. Both male and female teachers participated in the study. The following table presents the background information of teachers related to

age, nationality, academic qualification, teaching qualification, teaching experience, place of work and university type.

Table 11: Teacher Background Information

Background Information	Value	Count	Percentage (%)
Age	20-30	10	47.61
	31-40	7	33.33
	41-50	4	19.04
Gender	Male	7	33.33
	Female	14	66.66
Academic Qualification	Magister Degree	21	100%
Teaching Experience	1-5	13	61.90
	6-10	8	38.09

As shown in Table 11 above, the age of teachers is between 20 and 50. All the teachers hold a Magister degree. In terms of the teaching experience, at the time of collecting the data, most of the teachers have taught English from 1 to 5 years, while 38.09% taught English for more than 5 years. All participating teachers are working in the same university. In the following section, an overview of teachers' perceptions will be provided.

5.3.2. Teacher Perceptions about Motivational Scales

Before presenting the descriptive results of each scale and its items, it bears emphasising here to explain how we have proceeded in categorising the strategies and hence the CDs or Scales.

In Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) study, the strategies were grouped into broad CDs. The categorisation of the strategies into 18 CDs was based on internal reliability analysis. That is, Dörnyei and Csizér’s clustering of strategies was based on internal consistency analyses: only items that maintained or increased the internal consistency of a CD remained in it; items that reduced the internal consistency of a CD were treated separately, making up CDs containing one single item.

According to Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) ranking system, CDs were to be rank-ordered based on the strategies with the highest importance means within their CDs. In the present study, it should be mentioned that the categorisation of CDs was based on internal reliability analysis following Dörnyei and Csizér’s categorising system, however the rank-order of CDs was not based on that used by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) since one single strategy may not accurately represent a broader CD in its entirety.

Yet, the methodology that we followed consisted of calculating the general mean value of each CD or macrostrategy. This was accomplished by calculating the mean of each individual microstrategy within a particular category and then averaging these means. Yet, the obtained averages were used to rank-order the macrostrategies or conceptual domains. The resulting importance ranking list of teachers is laid out in Table 12 below displaying all 10 CDs in top-down order.

Table 12: Teacher Perceptions about Motivational Strategy Scales

Scale/ Conceptual Domain	Mean Value of each CD
Autonomy	4.29
Task	4.26

Teacher behaviour	4.09
Interest	3.95
Self-Confidence	3.93
Goal	3.60
Classroom climate	3.39
Group work	2.94
Reward	2.90
Culture	2.69

From the results shown in the above table and which are organised from the most important to the least, it can be seen that teachers accorded too much importance to learner autonomy, task, and the teacher behaviour as they received the highest means. Conversely, group work, culture, and reward are found to be at the bottom of the table with significant low mean scores. Autonomy scale is regarded as the most important motivational scale displaying the highest arithmetic mean ($M=4.29$) while the CD of culture ranked last with a significant low arithmetic mean ($M=2.69$).

From the overview of scale results, it would appear that the teachers are aware of their influence on student motivation and the influence of using MTPs. They show their greatest importance with teacher-led motivational strategies and student-centered motivational strategies.

5.3.2.1. Autonomy Scale

The results of autonomy scale reveal that most of the teachers (66.67%) value the encouragement of creative and imaginative ideas (Item 25) as an important motivational practice. Teachers tend to encourage all what comes from the students to promote their autonomy. As for this item, students are provided with a high degree of freedom to express themselves and produce new and imaginative ideas not necessarily linked to what they do in class since creation needs imagination.

Encouraging questions and other contributions from the students (Item 26) is receiving the highest mean as the most motivating teaching practice in the autonomy scale (4.33). Additionally, more than 57% of teachers consider it as ‘very important’. This indicates that teachers want to interact with their students to involve and motivate them. Asking questions engages the students with teachers in a continuous ‘give and take’ process of learning. The more questions they ask, the more they understand the lesson and hence more engagement and learning take place. Students are afforded possibilities and other contributions are welcome, these could be in oral or written forms. What matters most these contributions are students made while teachers act as counselors, facilitators, organisers, or guiders. The table below displays the mean scores and the obtained percentages for each scale item.

Table 13: Teachers Autonomy Scale

Questionnaire Items=2	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
25. I encourage creative and imaginative ideas.	0.00	0.00	4.76	66.67	28.57	4.24
26. I encourage questions and other contributions from the students.	0.00	0.00	4.76	57.14	38.10	4.33

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI =Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.2. Task Scale

Task scale is ranking second with an arithmetic mean ($M=4.26$) which indicates that teachers are valuing their role to motivate the students. In the table below, more than 47 % of teachers perceive the item ‘I give clear instructions’ as ‘very important’ and more than 42% see it as ‘important’. This indicates that teachers attempt to avoid any ambiguity or misunderstanding of the task assigned to the students through providing them with clear instructions to motivate them to do the task. When students do not understand what is required for them, they just find the task difficult and rather feel demotivated to do it. Item (10) about providing guidance about how to do the task is considered important by more than 61% of teachers. That is teachers know that prior to every task, they supply guidance to attract the students and make them feel that they can do it. This suggests as well that the teachers seem to value more highly the teacher role in presenting and choosing the content of the task than other aspects.

Item (11) ‘Stating the purpose of the task and its utility’ is seen as ‘somewhat important’ by more than 23% of teachers which means that some teachers do not see a strong connection between students’ motivation and presenting to them the purpose of the task. This could also be because they do not think this is necessary. If the task is already related to students’ experiences, perhaps this is clear to them without having recourse to explaining it explicitly. However, a high score of teachers (42.86%) consider it ‘important’ to motivate the students. To their minds, attracting students’ attention to the task content and explaining to them why they are doing it motivate them more. Table 14 below presents more details about task scale.

Table 14: Teachers Task Scale

Questionnaire Items=3	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
9. I give clear instructions.	0.00	0.00	9.5.622	42.86	47.62	4.38
10. I provide guidance about how to do the task.	0.00	0.00	4.76	61.90	33.33	4.29
11. I clearly state the purpose and the utility of every task.	0.00	0.00	23.81	42.86	33.33	4.10

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.3. Teacher Behaviour Scale

The teacher behaviour scale is also regarded as an important motivational conceptual domain by receiving high means particularly Item (2) which is related to teacher commitment to help the students to succeed by showing a good example (M=4.38). This means that the teachers depend heavily on themselves and show enthusiasm to involve the students and to afford help at whatever stage of the lesson in order to keep them connected to the learning process. In terms of Item (3), which relates to teacher's behaving naturally and being him/herself in front of the class, more than 47% of teachers perceive it as 'important'. In fact, by so doing, teachers can have powerful effects on students' intentions for learning as, often times, students are impacted by what their teachers say in words or do in some actions or certain behaviours. Table 15 hereafter sums up what has been discussed above.

Table 15: Teacher Behaviour Scale

	NI	SI	MI	I	VI	Mean
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Questionnaire Items=2	%	%	%	%	%	
2. I show a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.	0.00	4.76	0.00	47.62	47.62	4.38
3. I try to behave naturally and am genuine in class.	0.00	14.29	14.29	47.62	23.81	3.81

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.4. Interest Scale

Interest scale unveils that a high score of teachers see in selecting interesting tasks an important motivational strategy. Teachers know that when they include tasks that attract students, they can easily involve them and hence increase their engagement and motivation. Yet, teachers have to do their best to opt for what suits their students' preferences and interests.

More than half of the teachers consider the item of selecting interesting topics an important teaching practice because it is up to them to choose bearing in mind that topics which do not fit their students' interest will rather cause boredom and demotivation. The same can be said for Item (21) 'I vary the activities'. In making tasks challenging to involve the students, teachers seem to give different answers. A low score of teachers indicate that this teaching strategy is 'very important' (28.57%), an equal score of teachers see it as 'somewhat important' while more than 33% of teachers consider it 'important'. This may mean that challenge in activities, to some teachers, does not yield involvement of students as interest and variety do as we have seen previously.

As for Item (23), a significant score of teachers (66.67%) focus on the interest of the learners as a crucial element in energising the learning rather than tests and exams. Teachers seem to value the interest of learners and use it as a criterion to give life to the learning process. Item (24) is receiving a significant low score of teachers who rate it as ‘important’ and ‘very important’. More than 9% of teachers consider it as ‘somewhat important’ while more than 38% of teachers see it ‘as moderately important’. Again, teachers do not regard the use of exotic or unexpected elements as motivating for students. Teachers may consider something unexpected can cause the opposite effect of what they hoped for. More details appear on Table 16 below.

Table 16: Teachers Interest Scale

Questionnaire Items=7	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
18. I select interesting tasks.	0.00	0.00	9.52	57.14	33.33	4.24
19. I select interesting topics.	0.00	4.76	9.52	52.38	33.33	4.14
20. I offer a variety of materials.	0.00	4.76	14.29	57.14	23.81	4.00
21. I vary the activities.	0.00	9.52	0.00	42.86	47.62	4.29
22. I make tasks challenging to involve the students.	0.00	9.52	28.57	33.33	28.57	3.81
23. I build on the learners’ interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.	0.00	9.52	14.29	66.67	9.52	3.76
24. I raise learners’ curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.	4.76	9.52	38.10	38.10	9.52	3.38

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.5. Self-Confidence Scale

In this scale, more than 47% of teachers consider feedback as a motivating teaching strategy and more than 33% of them value it as ‘important’. More than half of the teachers view Item (15) ‘Encouraging constantly the students’ as ‘a very important’ teaching practice to motivate the students and involve them in lessons. Sharing responsibility to organise the learning process with students is considered as ‘important’ by more than 42% of teachers and ‘moderately important’ by more than 33% while only 19% regard it as ‘very important’. They believe that by so doing they reduce students’ anxiety and make them gain confidence to feel motivated to learn English. In the opinion of more than 62% of teachers, Item (28) ‘filling tasks with personal content and material relevant to students’ is ‘important’. That is to say, teachers focus on including materials that relate to students to meet differentiated needs and aspirations and yet make them self-confident as the instruction is paced to their learning and tailored to their learning preferences far from being hold as a hostage of the class pace.

Item (41) is about helping students understand that effort is needed for success. It is clear from the table that this motivational practice is ‘moderately important’ for more than 19% of teachers and ‘important’ for more than 30% while more than 38% consider it ‘very important’. In fact, students need to know that effort brings positive results and sometimes students require to double their efforts to make up for their deficiencies since learning is not just the successful transfer of knowledge and skills but interaction in which the students invest effort. In the table that follows, the findings about teacher perceptions about the ‘Self-confidence scale’ are presented in more details.

Table 17: Learners Self- Confidence Scale (Teachers)

	NI	SI	MI	I	VI	Mean
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Questionnaire Items=8	%	%	%	%	%	
13. I give positive feedback and appraisal.	0.00	9.52	9.52	33.33	47.62	4.19
14. I make sure that students experience success regularly.	0.00	9.52	38.10	33.33	19.05	3.62
15. I constantly encourage students.	0.00	4.76	4.76	38.10	52.38	4.38
27. I share as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible.	4.76	0.00	33.33	42.86	19.05	3.71
28. I fill the task with personal content and material that is relevant to the students.	4.76	14.29	28.57	62.86	9.52	3.38
41. I help students realise that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.	0.00	9.52	19.05	33.33	38.10	4.00
42. I emphasise the usefulness of the language.	0.00	4.76	4.76	42.86	47.62	4.33
44. I Allow students to create products that they can display or perform.	0.00	0.00	9.52	71.43	9.52	3.81

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.6. Goal Scale

The results of goal scale disclose that 47.62% of teachers see Item (32) as 'important' and 28.57% as 'a very important motivational practice'. In fact, Item (32) receives the highest mean (4.00) amongst the other items in the goal scale. This indicates as well that teachers place value on the learning goals and the students' needs by adapting their teaching and instruction. Equally important, Item (30) about setting specific language learning goals ranks second in the goal scale and perceived as 'more important' by 28.57% of teachers. 38.10% of teachers viewed it as 'important' and 28.57% judged it as 'moderately important'. This means that teachers appear to account for their students'

needs that guide them to design their teaching and tailor it in accordance with the specific goals connected to the learning of English and hence make them engage in different activities to fulfill different goals such as: developing one's abilities, mastering a new skill, or trying to accomplish something challenging. Moreover, it can be argued here that teachers seem to regard as 'important' the motivational strategies that meet the specific L2 goals of students and build the lesson on their needs and setting several learning goals (Items:32, 30) and devalue the motivational strategies that relate to increasing the group's goal and students' individual plans (Items:31, 33).

This mirrors the results from the previous scale that the more motivating strategies for students are related to the lessons being interesting and useful rather than explaining the task purposes and attracting their attention to its content. Table 18 on the following page presents the findings relating to the scale 'Goal'.

Table 18: Teachers Goal Scale

Questionnaire Items=5	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
29. I help the students develop realistic expectations about learning.	0.00	4.76	28.57	61.90	4.76	3.67
30. I set up several specific learning goals for the learners.	0.00	4.76	28.57	38.10	28.57	3.90
31. I increase the group's goal-orientedness.	0.00	19.05	28.57	47.62	4.76	3.38
32. I tailor instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.	0.00	4.76	19.05	47.62	28.57	4.00

33. I help students design their individual study plans.	9.52	23.81	33.33	19.05	14.29	3.05
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Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.7. Classroom Climate Scale

The findings of the ‘Classroom climate’ displayed on Table 19 on the next page reveal that Item (12) is scoring high with an arithmetic mean ($M=4.05$). According to teachers, the establishment of good relationships with their students is necessary to start the learning process and involve all the students since good relationships yield positive results in the lives of students and teachers alike. Creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere, Item (5), is viewed as ‘important’ by more than 42 % of teachers and ‘very important’ by more than 38% of teachers.

However, three strategies within this scale score low. Item (7) is receiving a significant low mean ($M=2.33$). At least 23 % of teachers consider it as ‘not important’ and more than 28 % perceive it as ‘somewhat important’ to motivate their students. Perhaps to teachers’ minds, including games and fun in class would rather cause confusion and disorientation and divert students’ attention or may lead to discipline problems. The same can be said for Item (8) about competition between students in a form of a game. At least 4 % see it as ‘not important’ and more than 38 % regard it as ‘somewhat important’. It could be that teachers have never included games or at least game-like learning activities or game-like competition activities in their lessons. Item (6), about humour, laughter and smile, is no exception as it received a low mean too ($M=3.52$). More than 19 % of teachers

regard it as ‘somewhat important’ and equally the same percentage of teachers views it as ‘moderately important’. It could be argued that, in their opinion, these practices do not actually relate to academic outcomes. Table 19 below is about the classroom climate scale. It contains 5 items and other statistical figures.

Table19: Teachers Classroom Climate Scale

Questionnaire Items=5	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
5. I create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	9.52	9.52	0.00	42.86	38.10	3.90
6. I bring in humor, laughter and smile.	4.76	19.05	19.05	33.33	23.81	3.52
7. I have games and fun in class.	23.81	28.57	38.10	9.52	0.00	2.33
8. I have game-like competition in class.	4.76	19.05	38.10	33.33	4.76	3.14
12. I develop a good relationship with the students.	0.00	9.52	14.29	38.10	38.10	4.05

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.8. Group Work Scale

This scale is lowest in terms of importance mainly Items (38), (39) and (40). They also score high percentages of teachers who view no importance in including group work. More than 19% of teachers consider that helping students to know one another as ‘not important’ to make students operate within a group, take risks, and thus motivate them to engage in interaction with each other. Only 14% of teachers view it as ‘an important practice’. The same can be said for Item (40) about organising extra-curricular activities with students outside the classroom and for which more than 19 % of teachers express absence of importance and only 9 % amongst them recognise it as ‘an important practice’.

It can be argued as well that teachers do not appreciate outings and do not include it in their teaching practice with the purpose of increasing their students' L2 motivation. Table 20 below uncovers the results of the scale 'Group Work'.

Table 20: Teachers Group Work Scale

Questionnaire Items=4	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
37. I include group work in class.	4.76	4.76	33.33	52.38	4.76	3.48
38. I help students to get to know one another.	19.05	28.57	38.10	14.29	0.00	2.48
39. I participate as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.	14.29	33.33	9.52	38.10	4.76	2.86
40. I organise extracurricular activities outside class.	19.05	38.10	23.81	9.52	9.52	2.52

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.9. Reward Scale

Reward is a one scale item that ranked last but one amongst the other ten scales. It received a significant low mean ($M=2.90$). It appears that giving students rewards in addition to grades or marks is 'not important' for more than 9% and 'somewhat important' for more than 23 % and only 33 % recognise it as an important practice to motivate their students while none of them describe it as 'very important. This means that teachers do not give rewards to students and limit themselves to the grades or marks that they give them since they do not actually see any importance in rewards. Table 21 on the following page shows the obtained statistics.

Table 21: Reward Scale (Teachers)

Questionnaire Items=1	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
43. I give the learners also rewards besides grades and marks.	9.52	23.81	33.33	33.33	0.00	2.90

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.3.2.10. Culture Scale

Culture is the last ranked scale with a significant low mean ($M=2.69$). It is crystal clear that teachers do not place value on culture of the language and do not expend efforts to familiarise them with the target language culture when they teach them, they just attempt to present lessons emphasising some grammatical principles. As a matter of fact, Item (36) that relates to finding penpals or keypals for the students receives the lowest mean amongst its scale and the other scales as a whole. This means teachers are not interested in this practice and see no significance in including it and yet they down played its importance. More than 57% of them regard it as ‘not important’, while more than 23 % view it as ‘somewhat important’ and only 4% consider it ‘important’.

Item (35) about using authentic materials is seen as ‘important’ by more than 47% of teachers and more than 19% of teachers consider it ‘very important’. In this item, teachers recognise the importance of authentic materials as a tool to motivate their students since these materials help the teachers to introduce the cultural aspects and backgrounds that are an integral part of the target language. This suggest as well that teaching the language through its culture bears some significance here and yet foreign language teachers need to focus on the introduction of other aspects that connect to the culture of the

target language such as: promoting contact with native speakers of the FL. Below is Table 22 about culture scale.

Table 22: Teachers Culture Scale

Questionnaire Items=2	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
35. I use authentic materials.	4.76	14.29	14.29	47.62	19.05	3.62
36. I find penpals or keypals for the students.	57.14	23.81	9.52	4.76	4.76	1.76

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

5.4. Summary of Teacher Perceptions about Motivational Strategies

From the results of teacher views towards motivational scales, it can be stated that some scales are viewed as important and therefore are top ranked while others are not regarded as important and yet they ranked last. In the eyes of teachers, some of these scales are perceived as important and very important than others such as Learner autonomy compared to Goal. In addition, there is also a divide in some of the scales as to how motivating particular elements or items are compared to others such as in the ‘Task scale’ where teachers tend to express more importance regarding items related to providing guidance about how to do the task rather than giving clear instructions and stating the purpose and the utility of every task.

To sum up the teacher perceptions, the results will be organised based on Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) framework of motivational L2 teaching practices as mentioned previously in Chapter 4 with more focus on the ‘Ten Commandments’ for motivating language learners that embraces 10 macrostrategies. It is worthy to note that these

motivational strategies were intended to be broad recommendations as argued by Dörnyei and Csizér rather than perspective rules that every teacher must observe in order to motivate their students. It is worth mentioning as well that the terms commandment and macrostrategy are used, in the study at hand, interchangeably.

In terms of setting a personal example with the teacher's own behaviour as the first macrostrategy, one scale is probed in this study that relates to this area 'Teacher behaviour'. In fact, this scale seems to have connections with creating the basic motivating conditions that can be linked to the teachers' roles which focus mainly on the academic progress of students in L2 learning and as included in Dörnyei's (2001a) framework of L2 motivational strategies.

The highest scoring item in this scale is about the teacher commitment and showing a good example to help the students succeed followed by the teacher's personal behaviour as natural and genuine in front of his or her class. The teacher can be considered as a prominent role model in the classroom, expend much efforts by committing himself/herself to deliver the lesson and to help the students succeed and influence them with his/her behaviour and thus make them model their own attitudes after him in terms of interest in the subject and expending effort.

As for 'Classroom atmosphere', the highest scoring items are about developing a good relationship with the students and creating a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom. However, the teachers give less importance to the other items that relate to using humour, fun and games. It can be argued that though all the scale items might not directly relate to academic teaching but the teachers expressed certain preferences for the aforementioned items (developing a good relationship and creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere) at the expense of the left items.

It can be argued as well that to the mind of teachers using humour, laughter, smile, and games in the class might not achieve the expected impact and might lead to the reverse side of the matter. It is suggested that teachers should be conscious of the tense classroom climate that most of the time results in creating students' anxiety and yet it becomes a potent factor that decreases students' motivation.

The third commandment in Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) list is linked to presenting the tasks properly. In Dörnyei's (2001a) framework, it is concerned with maintaining and protecting motivation, and equally in our study it goes with 'the task scale'. In fact, this scale has a high position in the rank scale with high mean scores for the three items that it comprises. When examining the items of this scale, the results suggest that teachers give much importance to its motivational strategies particularly those in which the teacher's role is salient as giving clear instructions to the students and providing guidance about how to do the task. It can be said that teachers see in the way they present the task a powerful tool to raise their students' interest in doing the activity and yet expect them to fulfill the task and make them progress in their learning.

Developing a good relationship with the learners is treated as a motivational microstrategy as it constituted a one scale item 'Rapport scale' and thus, in the present study, we clustered it with the items of the climate scale as it increased reliability as we explained previously and was categorised by Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) study in the classroom climate scale and yet it is no longer seen as the fourth macrostrategy as in Dörnyei & Csizér's study but rather a motivational strategy. However, it should be pointed out that this strategy received a high mean and importance in teachers' beliefs since a good rapport between the teacher and the students is a basic requirement in any student-centred approach.

As for the fifth scale that relates to students' self-confidence and corresponds to Dörnyei and Csizér's fifth commandment or macrostrategy and which is categorised in the third area in Dörnyei's (2001a) L2 framework in addition to task that we have tackled previously and autonomy that we will see in accordance with the seventh commandment of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998). In the study at hand, this scale ranks in the fifth position and in which teachers place value on some strategies and express importance since they feel that they are responsible for encouraging students, giving positive feedback, helping students realise that all what is needed from them to succeed is expending effort which will lead them to be confident.

It should be stressed that self-confidence is not directly related to one's actual ability or competence but rather to subjective ability/competence as argued by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998). That is to say, it is not necessarily what someone knows or can do which will determine their L2 use but rather what they think they know or can do. For example, some people feel quite confident about talking with only 100 words, whereas others with an extensive L2 knowledge shy away from putting that knowledge into action (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

The sixth macrostrategy is based on making the language classes interesting. In fact, interest scale is valued by teachers. It ranks in the fourth position as it is seen as an important contributor to motivating students to learn. It is a seven-item scale that received high score means especially for the strategies that focus on varying the activities, selecting interesting tasks, choosing interesting topics ,and offering a variety of materials. However, strategies that relate to introducing unexpected or exotic elements to raise interest and curiosity, and making tasks challenging received less importance in teachers' beliefs.

As for the autonomy scale that falls within the seventh commandment ‘Promoting learner autonomy’, the results disclose that it ranks at the top of the ten scales by receiving the highest mean score. Encouraging questions and other contributions from students is viewed as important by roughly all the teachers. This means that teachers want their students to be responsible for their own learning since they believe that learners have the power to take charge of their own learning. Students should be autonomous learners and spend effort and get resort to strategies that are at their reach rather than factors or conditions that are out of their control. Asking questions during a lesson helps students to engage in interaction with the teacher and the classmates as well. Other contributions from the students are welcomed and could be actions that students can do by themselves. Encouraging creative and imaginative ideas makes students feel free to come up with their own ideas and feel certain autonomy in his/her actions and the teacher had better promote such kind of actions and support students in their development towards autonomy.

As for personalising the learning process as the eighth commandment, it concerns the need that the L2 course should be personally relevant to the students in terms of their needs. Again, this was one-item scale and for purposes of our study, we grouped it with the items of self-confidence scale that we explained previously. In fact, it is worthy to note that according to both Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), the current version of the commandment is broader in that it extends relevance to the personal content of tasks as well like sharing personal information, and interpersonal awareness-raising.

The results of goal scale that coincides with the ninth macrostrategy that deals with increasing the learners’ goal-orientedness unveil that goal scale ranks in the sixth position. Teachers expressed importance toward some items mainly those that require from the teacher to tailor his/her instruction and teaching to meet the language goals and students’

needs, setting up several specific leaning goals for the learners to stimulate their L2 learning motivation, and more importantly help them develop realistic expectations about learning. That is, students should achieve their learning goals and see the realisation of their efforts in really lived learning situations.

The last commandment has to do with familiarising learners with the target language culture. In our study, culture is the scale that fits with this macrostrategy. The results reveal that it ranked last. The teachers do not see any importance in the cultural aspects of the target language in order to motivate their students. Though it bears emphasis that, Gardner's (1985) claims that language learning success is dependent on the learners' affective predisposition towards the target linguistic-cultural group is still valid.

In fact, we are left with two other scales that do not fall within the scope of the Ten Commandments and these are as follows: group work and reward. They ranked at the bottom of table 5.4 cited before. As for the results of the group work, teachers expressed less importance for all the items. As a matter of fact, they all received low means. Including group work in the class is seen as moderately important by a big majority of teachers. This might indicate that teachers are not aware of the impact of group work on the academic outcome and achievement of the students though the teacher's role is of primary importance since he/she is regarded as the group leader or member in both teacher-centred and learner-centred classrooms.

It might be argued as well that teachers prefer the predominant mode of instruction or what might be termed 'the lockstep'. That is the teacher as a single and distant initiator sets the same instructional pace and content for students, by lecturing, explaining a grammatical point, or asking and answering questions.

The last investigated scale is reward as one item-scale. It ranked at the ninth position. In teachers' opinion, giving students other rewards besides grades or marks is not considered as a motivating practice. It could be argued that teachers confine the use of reward to giving marks to students and to praising them verbally for their works. Tough, it is suggested that rewards whether verbal or tangible are given in an attempt to increase students' self motivation, interest, and persistence at learning tasks.

Conclusion

The teachers' quantitative results discussed in this chapter sort out the importance of some motivational scales over others and resulted in a divide between those that were top ranked due to their importance in the teachers' perceptions while others ranked last. Teachers appeared to place emphasis on students' autonomy, task, teacher behaviour, interest, and self-confidence. However, they held in low regard the motivational scales that relate to goal, language culture, reward, and group work. Besides, the survey findings disclosed that within the favoured scales themselves, there is a divide in how motivating particular microstrategies or items were when compared to others within the same scale. All questionnaire results were the results organised based on Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) framework of motivational L2 teaching practices. It is worthy to note that most of the examined scales seem to share close connections with Dörnyei's (2001a) framework of L2 motivational strategies.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF STUDENTS'

QUANTITATIVE DATA

Introduction

As stated in Chapter 5, the current one is devoted for the presentation of the students' quantitative data. To start with, we discuss the reliability of the instrument and the normality of data. Next, student descriptive results in terms of student background information will be stated. In addition, student perceptions about motivational scales are

reported in more details with particular reference to each scale. A summary of students' perceptions about motivational strategies is included. Finally, a comparison between teachers' and students' perceptions of motivational strategies rounds up Chapter 6. In the following part, the reliability of the quantitative research instruments is confirmed, and the normality of the data is examined.

6.1. Reliability of Scales

200 student coded questionnaires containing 10 CDs and 39 strategies were subjected to statistical analysis. SPSS 18.0 was used to compute descriptive statistics and reliability analyses of the questionnaires. The internal consistency analysis of the 39 strategies shows a high level of reliability among the students. They obtained a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of **.827**, Table 23, on the page that follows, discloses the Cronbach Alpha of each scale and the mean inter-item correlation. A Table that includes the whole sample reliability scales is placed in appendix (N°7).

Table 23: Internal Reliability of Scales and Mean Inter-Item Correlation.

Scales	Items n°	Students		
		Cases n°	α	MI-IC
Teacher behaviour	2	200	0.64	0.4
Classroom climate	5	200	0.63	0.2
Task	3	200	0.58	0.2
Self-Confidence	8	200	0.59	0.2

Interest	7	200	0.61	0.2
Autonomy	2	200	0.58	0.3
Goal	5	200	0.59	0.2
Culture	2	200	0.58	0.3
Group work	4	200	0.60	0.2

Note: 1= Cronbach Alpha, 2= mean inter-item correlation.

6.2. Normality of Data

As dealt with in Chapter 5, data normality is investigated by the examination of the Skewness and Kurtosis values of the scales, and the histograms of the data distribution which are suggested by Field (2009). The obtained Skewness and Kurtosis values of the ten scales are given in Table 24 on the next page in addition to some histograms to illustrate Skewness and Kurtosis of students' data distribution. In Appendix (N°15), the Skewness and Kurtosis values of students' questionnaire items are attached. As can be seen for student data, some Kurtosis values are positive, which indicate that some scores are peaked.

Table 24: Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Scales

Scales	Students	
	Skewness	Kurtosis
Teacher behaviour	48.563	297.961
Classroom climate	-.808	-1.567

Task	-5.110	2.383
Self-Confidence	-3.308	1.002
Interest	-4.912	.000
Autonomy	-4.226	1.093
Goal	-3.186	-.394
Culture	-1.290	-1.991
Group work	-2.238	-2.020
Reward	67.313	448.426

As mentioned earlier, some histograms to illustrate Skewness and Kurtosis of students' data distribution are included. As for the 'Interest scale', Figure 17 on the next page illustrates the Skewness of this scale which is negatively skewed at -4.912.

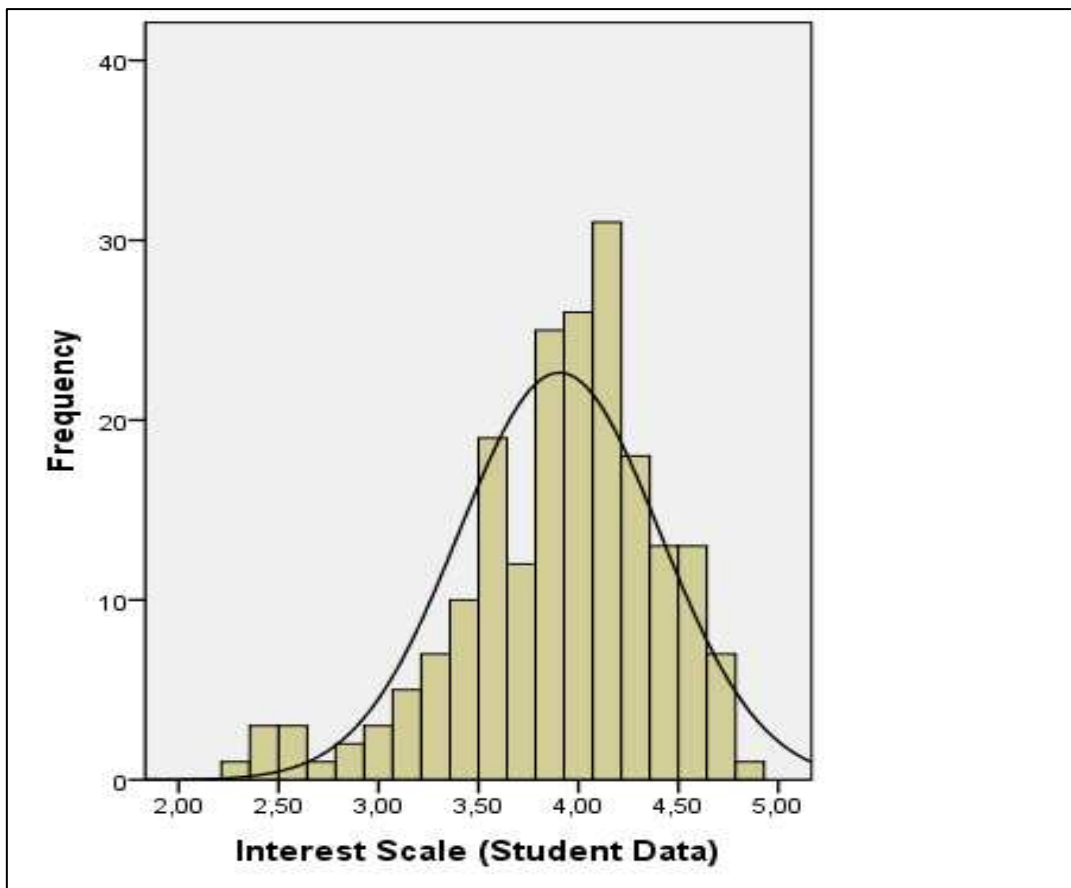


Figure 17: Illustrating Skewness and Kurtosis of Data Distribution, Interest Scale (Student Data)

As for Kurtosis, positive Kurtosis indicates that the distribution is clustered or peaked, with a long tail, while negative Kurtosis indicates that the distribution is flat, with some cases in the tails. Figure 18 on the next page represents a negative Kurtosis (-1.290) of the 'Culture scale'.

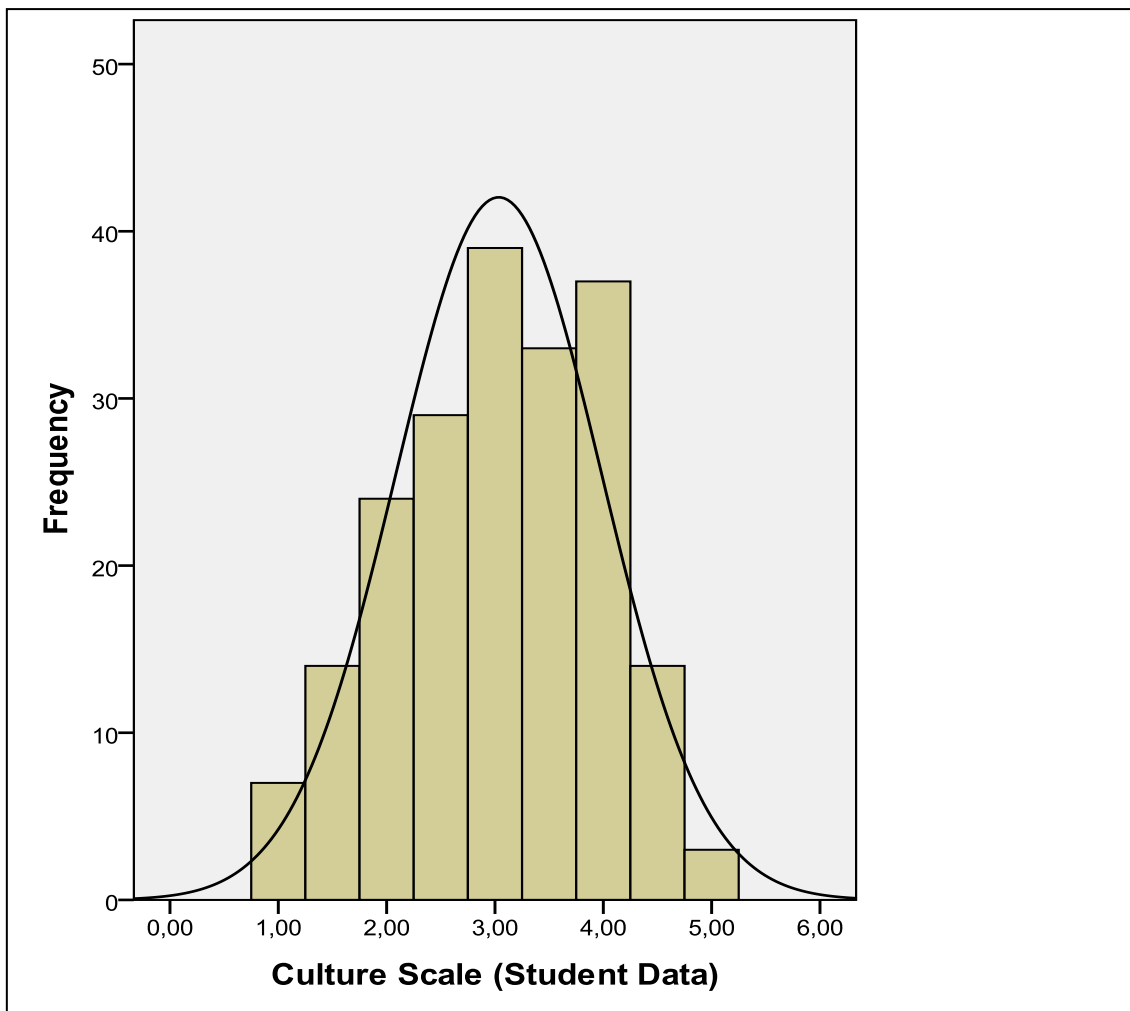


Figure 18: Illustrating Skewness and Kurtosis of Data Distribution, Culture Scale (Student Data)

6.3. Student Descriptive Results

6.3.1. Student Background Information

Table 25 that appears on the following page presents the background information of the students. It provides as well information in relation to age, and level.

Table 25: Student Background Information

Background Information	Value	Count	Percentage (%)
Age	18-20	165	82.50
	21-23	35	17.5
Gender	Male	57	28.5
	Female	143	71.5
Study Level	First Year Human Sciences Students	200	100%

The above table reveals that the age of students is between 18 and 23. All the students are first year Human Sciences students at Souk-Ahras University. In terms of the teaching experience, at the time of collecting the data, most of the teachers have taught English from one to 5 years, while 38.09% taught English for more than 5 years. All participating teachers are working in the same university. In the following section, an overview of students' perceptions will be provided.

6.3.2. Student Perceptions about Motivational Strategies

The following table on the next page presents the descriptive results of the motivational scales investigated in this study. As mentioned earlier in chapter five, the motivational scales and items within scales are organised based on the results of the mean (M) value of the related items or strategies of whole scale or conceptual domain.

Table 26: Students' Perceptions about Motivational Strategy Scales

Scale	Mean
Teacher behaviour	4.26
Autonomy	4.12
Task	4.05
Interest	3.92
Self-Confidence	3.88
Goal	3.79
Classroom climate	3.33
Group work	3.32
Reward	3.26
Culture	3.03

Based on the displayed scores in Table 26 above, the teacher behaviour scale is ranking at the top with the highest mean score ($M=4.26$), followed by autonomy and task scales while group work , reward , and culture scales are found at the bottom of the table with low mean scores ($M=3.32$, $M=3.26$, $M=3.03$) respectively. In fact, the scales in Table 26 are ordered, as previously dealt with teachers' results, from the most important to the least important in students' view points.

Having a glance at the table, one can realise that it has some common results with those of teachers with slight dissimilarities that will be accounted for in more details at the end of Chapter 6. At this level, all scale results will be described as outlined in the preceding chapter about teachers' quantitative data.

6.3.2.1. Teacher Behaviour Scale

The findings of the aforesaid scale indicate the strategies which are most motivating for students relate to the behaviour of the teacher and his/her commitment to help students succeed, Item (2). More than 35% of teachers view it as ‘important’ and more than 57% of students regard it as a ‘very important’ strategy. In fact, this Item has received the highest mean score amongst all the Items in the other scales. This means as well that students see the behaviour of their teacher as a model to be followed. As for Item (4) about the genuine and natural behaviour of teachers in front of the class, half of the students perceive it as ‘important’ and 32% value it as ‘very important’. This indicates that the behaviour of the teacher has an impact on the students’ actions and reactions during lessons and students also appear to find it highly motivating. Table 26 below carries the results of the ‘Teacher Behaviour Scale’.

Table 27: Students Teacher Behaviour Scale

Questionnaire Items=2	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
2. The teacher shows a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.	1.50	2.00	3.50	35.50	57.50	4.46
3. The teacher tries to behave naturally and is genuine in class.	2.00	3.50	12.50	50.00	32.00	4.07

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.2. Autonomy Scale

According to the displayed figures, students appear to see the autonomy scale with high regard. This scale ranks in the second position right after teacher behaviour. Item (26) about encouraging questions and other students' contributions from the part of the teacher receives a high mean score ($M=4.12$) with a significant number of students who mention its importance. As for Item (25) about encouraging creative and imaginative ideas, more than 44% of students see it as 'important' and 34% view it as 'very important'. It can be argued that students' autonomy is sought by students themselves as they want to be responsible for their learning through being able to ask questions, to take risks, to bring other contributions, and to come up with creative and new imaginative ideas. Table 28 mentioned hereafter presents the data of the 'Autonomy scale'.

Table 28: Students Autonomy scale

Questionnaire Items=2	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
25. The teacher encourages creative and imaginative ideas.	1.50	1.50	18.50	44.50	34.00	4.08
26. The teacher encourages questions and other contributions from the students.	0.50	3.50	9.00	52.50	34.50	4.17

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.3. Task Scale

The findings of 'Task' scale reveal that most of the students consider this scale and its items as important. The majority of the results are shared between the sections of 'important' and 'very important' except for Item (11) about stating the purpose and utility of every task by the teacher where more than 16 % of students regard it as 'moderately

important'. As for Item (9) about teacher' clear instruction and Item (10) about providing guidance about how to do the task they both receive high score means (M=4.10) and (M=10.14) respectively. Though these strategies are teacher-led, students see its usefulness and value its importance and the teacher's role in so doing.

Explaining the purpose of the task Item (11) scores lower showing that the students do not view understanding why they are doing a certain task to be as motivating as the way it is presented. This could also be because they do not think this is necessary, if the task is already related to their experiences this is clear to them without any explicit explanation. More scores are displayed on Table 29 on the following page.

Table 29: Students Task Scale

Questionnaire Items=3	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
9. The teacher gives clear instructions.	1.50	5.00	10.00	49.00	34.50	4.10
10. The teacher provides guidance about how to do the task.	0.00	4.00	10.50	53.50	32.00	4.14
11. The teacher clearly states the purpose and the utility of every task.	4.00	5.50	16.50	42.00	32.00	3.93

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.4. Interest Scale

The items related to 'Interest' as a scale exhibit some results. Item (19) is about the teacher selection of interesting topics and is receiving the highest mean score (M=4.22). More than 45% of students see it as 'important' and more than 40 % view it as a 'very important' strategy. In fact, students expect from teachers to present topics that suit their interests to motivate them since foreign language learning does not depend only on their

ability but also on other variables, such as student interests that energise and activate the learning process mainly when students feel related to the topics. As for Item (21) about varying the activities, students seem to consider it important. As a matter of fact, this Item occupies the second position in its scale in terms of importance ($M=4.08$). It can be argued that varying activities contributes to a better learning quality as students seek novelty and appropriateness of activities. The same thing can be said for Item (18) about selecting interesting tasks. The figures indicate that more than 48% of students perceive it as 'important' and 33 % of students value it as 'very important'. Conversely, Item (22) about including challenging tasks is not receiving an equal importance in students' beliefs. This indicates student preference to have motivating tasks rather than challenging ones. It seems that the use of tasks which are relevant and interesting to them is much more motivating for than those which are challenging.

In comparison with the previously cited strategies, the less important ones in students' eyes are Items (23) and (24) as displayed in Table 30 on the following page. 27% of students consider the introduction of unexpected elements by teachers to raise their curiosity and hence their motivation as 'moderately important' and more than 10% regard it as 'somewhat important' while at least 5 % amongst students see 'no importance' at all. It might be argued that students feel more motivated with elements that meet their expectations rather than those exotic or unexpected elements. Moreover, Item (24) is the lowest one in terms of mean score. Table 30 below presents the data of the 'Interest Scale'.

Table 30: Interest Scale

Questionnaire Items=7	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
18. The teacher selects interesting tasks.	3.50	4.50	10.50	48.50	33.00	4.03
19. The teacher selects interesting topics.	1.50	1.00	12.00	45.50	40.00	4.22
20. The teacher offers a variety of materials.	1.00	7.00	25.00	42.00	25.00	3.83
21. The teacher varies the activities.	1.00	4.00	14.50	47.50	33.00	4.08
22. The teacher makes tasks challenging to involve the students.	2.50	4.50	16.00	50.50	26.50	3.94
23. The teacher builds on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.	4.50	7.00	21.00	38.50	29.00	3.81
24. The teacher raises learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.	5.00	10.50	27.00	41.50	16.00	3.53

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI =

Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.5. Self-Confidence Scale

Self-Confidence scale is amongst the five top-ranked scales. Its items reveal some details. Item (15) about encouraging students constantly has the highest score mean (M=4.30). 36% of students view it as 'important' and a significant number of them perceive it as 'very important'. In fact, students always need encouragement from their

teachers to try hard and thus can do better or when they do well and yet it promotes their self-confidence.

Item (41) is about helping students realise that only effort is needed for success. It receives a high score mean ($M=4.14$) after Item (15) stated previously. More than 42 % of students regard it as 'important' and more than 40 % value it as 'very important'. It can be argued that expending effort toward learning L2 promotes students' self-confidence and hence leads to success. 'Giving positive feedback' is included in Item (13) and it is seen as an important teacher practice by a considerable number of students. 45% of students perceive it as 'important' and more than 32% describe it as 'very important'. That is, students getting a good or positive feedback when they have worked or performed well appears to be rewarding and energises them to keep doing class work.

In addition, within the scale, around 46% of students perceive Item (14) 'The teacher makes sure that students experience success regularly' as 'important' and 27% view it as 'very important' while 21% of students describe it as 'moderately important'. This suggests that students relate their success to their teachers who should do their best to make them experience it as success promotes self-confidence.

As for Items (27) and (42), both of them receive the same mean score ($M=3.79$). The former is about 'the teacher shares as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible'. More than 43% of students consider it 'important' and more than 32% perceive it as 'very important'. To the mind of students, when the teacher shoulders responsibility and participates in the organisation of the learning process, he/she is able to manipulate and help them accomplish many tasks. As a teacher, he/she is no longer seen as a distant initiator on the contrary, he/she is playing an equal role. As for the latter which is about emphasising the usefulness of the language, more than half of

students value it. However, Items (28) and (44) receive the lowest score means in this scale (3.60) and (3.59) respectively. Table 31 below sums up the different mean scores and percentages of this 8- Items scale.

Table 31: Students Self-Confidence Scale

Questionnaire Items=8	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
13. The teacher gives positive feedback and appraisal.	5.00	3.00	14.50	45.00	32.50	3.97
14. The teacher makes sure that students experience success regularly.	2.00	4.50	21.00	45.50	27.00	3.91
15. The teacher constantly encourages students.	1.00	4.50	8.50	36.00	50.00	4.30
27. The teacher shares as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible.	3.00	6.00	24.00	43.50	32.50	3.79
28. The teacher fills the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.	3.00	10.50	28.00	40.50	18.00	3.60
41. The teacher helps students realise that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.	2.00	5.50	10.00	42.00	40.50	4.14
42. The teacher emphasises the usefulness of the language.	3.50	7.50	20.50	44.00	24.50	3.79
44. The teacher allows students to create products that they can display or perform.	3.00	11.00	27.50	41.50	17.00	3.59

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI =

Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.6. Goal Scale

As for goal scale, the findings reveal that the students appear to value more the teacher strategy that is linked to tailoring the instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students (Item 32). This strategy receives the highest mean in the goal scale ($M=4.01$). As for its importance, a significant number of students hold it in high regard. This means that what matters most for students is that language goals should meet or coincide with the teacher's instruction to make them achieved. The same point can be said for their needs that require fulfillment after being analysed and classified by the teacher. As a teacher- led strategy, teachers should cater for students' needs and language goals by putting into practice the right and effective methodology. Students, on their part, are expected to highlight their potential language goals and exhibit their salient needs to the teacher.

As for Item (29) about helping students to develop realistic expectations about learning, more than 42% of students perceive as 'important' and more than 30% judge it as 'very important'. This suggests that students' goal is to see a meaning to their learning. That is, what students are learning makes sense and is expected to be of practical use afterwards. More than half of students see in Item (30) about setting several specific learning goals by the teacher an important teacher strategy that generates their motivation. In point of fact, 43 % of students consider it 'important' and around 23% value it as 'very important'. This suggests as well that the more learning goals the teacher sets, the more benefits the students get in terms of learning the language. Again, it is worthy to mention at this level that the teacher has a salient role to play.

As for the two left Items (31, 33), both of them display low mean scores. Students regard the teacher's help to make them design their individual study plans a less important strategy (item 33). At least 6% perceive it as 'not important', while around 8% view it as 'somewhat important' and more than 29 % value it as 'moderately important'. Actually, this suggests that students find it difficult to design an individual study plan since it necessitates from them certain engagement and autonomy. Though Item (31) about increasing the group's goal orientedness by the teacher is receiving rather a low mean score compared to the other items, more than 40% of students seem to give it importance and approximately 20% perceive it as very important. In fact, goals are crucial for students to be motivated particularly when students themselves believe in achieving future outcomes. Data of the 'Goal Scale' are shown on Table 32 below.

Table 32: Students Goal Scale

Questionnaire Items=5	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
29. The teacher helps the students develop realistic expectations about learning.	2.00	5.00	20.00	42.50	30.50	3.95
30. The teacher sets up several specific learning goals for the learners.	2.00	10.50	22.00	43.00	22.50	3.74
31. The teacher increases the group's goal- orientedness.	3.50	8.50	24.50	44.00	19.50	3.68
32. The teacher tailors instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.	1.50	4.50	17.00	46.00	31.00	4.01
33. The teacher helps students design their individual study plans.	6.00	7.50	29.50	34.50	22.50	3.60

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.7. Classroom Climate Scale

As for climate scale, it ranks in the seventh position in terms of its mean score and according to the displayed percentages on Table 33 on the next page. Students are putting it in low regard especially three items amongst the five. Actually, 43% of students see ‘no importance’ in Item (7) about having games and fun in the class, more than 16% consider it ‘somewhat important’ and only 21 % perceive it ‘as moderately important’. It might be argued that students are more interested in what brings them information and helps them to interact and communicate than having fun and games. In fact, Item (7) displays the lowest mean score in the scale ($M=2.22$). Item (8) about having games in a form of competition in the class is not viewed as important by around 9 % of teachers, more than 18% perceive it as ‘somewhat important’, and 29% judge it as ‘moderately important’ while only 31% see it as ‘important’. As for Item (6) about bringing humour, laughter, and smile, it also receives less value in the students’ belief. This indicates that students accord more attention and importance to the strategies that relate to the academic outcomes.

However, two items make difference and reveal their importance to students’ generation of motivation. These are as follows: Item (12) about the development of good teacher relationship with students and Item (5) about the creation of a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom. Indeed, students tend to stress on the classroom atmosphere as a salient factor that allow them to learn without any form of pressure. Intense and extremely competitive types of classroom settings can provoke certain anxiety which can interfere with student learning. Table 33 on the following page presents the data of the ‘Climate Scale’.

Table 33: Students Climate Scale

Questionnaire Items=5	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
5. The teacher creates a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	5.00	7.50	13.50	41.00	33.00	3.90
6. The teacher brings in humor, laughter and smile.	10.00	14.50	20.50	39.50	15.50	3.36
7. The teacher has games and fun in class.	43.00	16.50	21.00	15.00	4.50	2.22
8. The teacher has game-like competition in class.	8.50	18.50	29.50	31.00	12.50	3.21
12. The teacher develops a good relationship with my students.	5.00	7.50	13.50	32.50	41.50	3.98

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.8. Group Work Scale

From obtained data, it appears that students down play the role of group work in motivating them to learn English. As a matter of fact, only half of the students regard Item (37) about the inclusion of group work by the teacher as ‘important’. This suggests that students themselves do not see the positive impact that group work might have on their learning. As for Item (38) relating to helping students get to know one another by their teacher, it scores low as a significant number of students minimise its role. It might be argued that students prefer not to mix with other students and share their thoughts and experiences. Organising extracurricular activities outside class (Item 40) is believed to be much less motivating to the minds of a high number of students. It might be argued that

students do not find outings beyond class motivating possibly because they are not accustomed to this practice. Exceptionally, in terms of Item (39) about teacher participation as an ordinary member of the group, it is found to be ‘important’ for 39% of students and ‘very important’ for around 22% of them. This means that as a group member, the teacher is going to organise the learning and stimulates more the students to take part in any group activity. Table 34 below contains the results of the group work scale.

Table 34: Students Group Work Scale

Questionnaire Items=4	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
37. The teacher includes group work in class.	3.50	11.00	29.50	31.50	24.50	3.63
38. The teacher helps students to get to know one another.	15.00	18.00	25.50	27.50	14.00	3.08
39. The teacher participates as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.	7.00	10.00	22.50	39.00	21.50	3.58
40. The teacher organises extra-curricular activities outside class.	19.50	13.50	24.00	31.50	11.50	3.02

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI =

Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.9. Reward Scale

As a one item scale, reward is a bottom ranked scale with reference to its obtained mean score as displayed on Table 35 below. As a point in fact, only half of the students believe that receiving rewards in addition to the marks is important for motivation.

Table 35: Students Reward Scale

Questionnaire Items=1	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
43. The teacher gives the learners rewards besides grades or marks.	15.00	10.00	23.50	37.50	14.00	3.26

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.3.2.10. Culture Scale

Table 36 on this page presents the data of the ‘Culture Scale’ as the last ranked one in the list of the probed scales. Students play down the role of Item (36) about finding penpals or keypals in motivating them to know the culture of the language and more importantly to feel motivated to study it. The same can be said for Item (35) about using authentic materials, students appear to devalue it and see no real importance in motivating them as a strategy.

Table 36: Students Culture Scale

Questionnaire Items=2	NI %	SI %	MI %	I %	VI %	Mean
35. The teacher uses authentic materials.	8.00	15.50	30.50	32.00	14.00	3.29
36. The teacher finds penpals or keypals for the students.	21.50	17.50	28.50	27.00	5.50	2.78

Note: No. of participants = 21. NI= Not important, SI = Somewhat important, MI = Moderately important, I = Important, VI = Very important.

6.4. Summary of Student Perceptions about Motivational Strategies

From the results of the students' views about motivational scales, it can be seen that they perceive most of the scales in terms of being important and yet motivational though it is worth to notice little difference in the statistic results as the mean score ranges from 4.26 at the top to 3.03 at the bottom. In this summary, as has been done with the teachers results, the results will be recapitulated according to Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) 'Ten Commandments' for motivating language learners.

As for setting a personal example with the teacher's own behaviour as the first commandment, teacher scale is probed in this study relating to the area of 'Teacher behaviour'. In this scale, the teacher has a salient role to create the basic motivating conditions. As a matter of fact, the results are very interesting in terms of how important students place value on this scale and rank it at the top of the list since it leads to visible impacts on their motivation. In most cases, students duplicate the same behaviours modeled by their instructor. Teachers' natural behaviour in presenting information and their genuine interest in teaching maintains students' motivation, too.

In terms of 'Classroom climate', less importance is expressed toward the items that relate to using humour, fun and games. Conversely, developing a good relationship with the students and creating a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom are scoring high. It can be argued that students prefer strategies help them feel supported as they see no real importance in the mentioned practices that do not relate directly to academic teaching. Though, it should be stressed here that humour and fun do play a crucial role in reducing anxiety when learning in the classroom.

In accordance with the third commandment that is linked to presenting the tasks properly, the study at hand investigated task scale that ranks in the third position with a

high mean score ($M=4.05$). Depending on the obtained results in this scale, students appear to give high importance to the items included in it. It might be argued that clear instructions and guidance from the teacher facilitate the learning process and foster students' engagement.

The fourth macrostrategy in Dörnyei and Csizér's study relates to developing a good relationship with the learners. For purposes of our study, we included it in the climate scale as explained previously in the fifth chapter when describing teachers' quantitative data and hence we treated it as a strategy. It bears emphasising that it received a high mean score and over which students expressed high importance.

As for the fifth commandment that relates to students' self-confidence, in the current study, this scale ranks in the fifth position. It is clear from the results that its highest scoring items, in the opinion of students, are those connected to strategies through which the teacher uses constant student encouragement in addition to focusing on students' effort expenditure and giving positive feedback. It might be suggested that students want to be recognised for the hard work and effort they put into their classes.

Making the language classes interesting is the sixth macrostrategy that coincides with the interest scale. Actually, this scale is highly valued by most students. It is among the five top ranked scales. Students rank it in the fourth position and seem to be motivated to study and learn the language when their teachers cater for their interests and make them like what they do in terms of assignments and accomplish what they want. It can be said that students feel more interested when the teacher attempts to connect the content of the lessons to their interests.

As far as autonomy scale is concerned, it fits with the seventh commandment ‘Promoting learner autonomy’. The results of this scale indicate that it ranks in the second position amongst the other scales by receiving a high mean score. This means that students have the desire to be responsible for their own learning by spending more efforts and bringing their own contributions when having options in the classroom. This point is stressed by students as it received the highest mean score in its scale and highly valued in terms of importance by a significantly high percentage of students. This suggests as well that students’ motivation is increased if they feel that they have control of their learning outcomes.

The ninth macrostrategy deals with increasing the learners’ goal-orientedness and corresponds with goal scale that ranks in the sixth position. The results of this scale uncovers that the students place emphasis on the instruction that meets their specific language goals and needs. A significant number of students hold high importance mainly for the strategies that target the fulfillment of their needs and their language learning goals.

The last commandment has to do with familiarising learners with the target language culture. In the undertaken study, culture is the scale that equals this macrostrategy. The results disclose that students are not really attracted by the cultural aspects of the target language. As a point in fact, students express less importance toward the scale items. It should be, however, remembered that language and culture are two facets of one coin and we cannot, at whatever circumstances, separate them from one another.

Last but not the least, two other scales that we probed in our study and that do not necessarily coincide with the ‘Ten Commandments’ are described as follows: group work and reward. Both of them are classified at the bottom of students’ table stated at the start of

the chapter. As for the results of the group work scale, students underestimate its role. As a matter of fact, half of the students perceive the inclusion of group work by the teacher as not important. It might be argued that students get accustomed to the teacher predominant mode of instruction. Actually, only one item about the teacher participation as an ordinary member of the group received students' importance.

Reward stands as the last investigated scale. It ranked at the ninth position. In students' viewpoints, providing students with other rewards besides grades or marks is not considered as a motivating practice. It could be argued that teachers confine the use of reward to giving marks to students and to praising them verbally for their works. Tough, it is suggested that rewards whether verbal or tangible are given in an attempt to increase students' self motivation, interest, and persistence at learning tasks. In broad brush, students always want to be recognised for the hard work and efforts they put into their classes and when teachers acknowledge the students' work they encourage them to strive for more.

6.5. Comparing and Contrasting Teachers' and Students' Perceptions

Though chapter six focusses more on presenting students' quantitative data, this section discloses the findings relating to both teachers and students in terms of comparing and contrasting their perceptions about motivational scales and items. The obtained mean values of the ten investigated scales indicate that teachers and students seem to share some similarities as well as some differences. As for the areas of similarities in their views, and in a broad brush, both of them agree to rank the following scales amongst the five top ones. These are: Teacher behaviour, autonomy, task, self-confidence and interest; while the lowest ranked scales are: Classroom climate, goal, culture, group work, and reward.

However, dissimilarity can be noticed in the priority accorded to each scale in terms of importance.

As for teachers, students' autonomy is perceived as very important that is why they rank it first. Autonomy gives the students more freedom to learn what is interesting and relevant to them, and thus potentially more motivating. It also suggests involvement and participation from the students in the learning process, and yet promoting these social aspects of learning. Conversely, students believe that teacher's behaviour is the most important scale and rank it at the top. They see in showing enthusiasm on the part of the teacher for teaching English and the commitment to help them succeed through behaving naturally and genuinely equally motivating for them. The teachers appear to value task scale and place it in the second position; however students moved it to the third one. The teacher behaviour scale is recognised by teachers' themselves, it is ranked right after task scale. This may be due to the teachers' role and their awareness of what works in the classroom and their understanding of the need to motivate students. Another difference arises from the findings and is expressed in the mean score of each scale. Some scales are more favoured by students while others are more favoured by teachers not at the expense of the other scales but in terms of the obtained mean scores. As for students, the scales they favour are as follows: Teacher behaviour, goal, culture, group work, and reward. The scales that are more favoured by teachers are: Classroom climate, task, self-confidence, interest, and autonomy. Table 37 on the next page displays the details and the mean scores obtained for each scale.

Table 37: Teachers' and Students' Perceptions of Scales

Scales / Items	Mean Value of Scales/ Conceptual Domains	
	Teachers	Students
Teacher behaviour	4.09	4.26
Classroom climate	3.39	3.33
Task	4.26	4.05
Self-Confidence	3.93	3.88
Interest	3.95	3.92
Autonomy	4.29	4.12
Goal	3.60	3.79
Culture	2.69	3.03
Group work	2.94	3.30
Reward	2.90	3.26

Conclusion

The current chapter presents the students' quantitative results. It starts with providing information about the reliability of the scales and the normality of the data. Secondly, it presents students' descriptive results in addition to the analysis of the data relating to student perceptions about motivational teaching practices. Thirdly, a section compares and contrasts teacher and student views about motivational strategies. As a matter of fact, the data show that the students value the role of the teacher as a powerful motivator in addition to perceiving the motivational strategies that relate to the social skills of learning, learner autonomy, pleasant classroom atmosphere and task as more motivating. Having presented the students' quantitative data, the next chapter will be devoted for the interpretation of the qualitative data.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' QUALITATIVE DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents the qualitative data analysis of all the interviews conducted with both teachers and students. By the end of the data analysis process, explained in the methodology chapter, fourteen themes had emerged. Amongst them ten themes are related to the motivational scales examined previously in the quantitative data in Chapters 5 and 6 and they are organised according to the L2 conceptualisation of motivational strategies (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998) with few modifications as explained in Chapter 4 earlier.

Two emergent themes that are mentioned by students and teachers alike fit into the L2 motivational teaching practice framework (Dörnyei, 2001a) which includes four areas: creating the basic motivation, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive evaluation.

The analysis of the qualitative data pointed also to two other emergent themes about the need for using motivational strategies. The first one relates to the use of information and communication technology mentioned by both teachers and students while the second one relates to students' emotional aspects mentioned by teachers only. It is worthy to note that these two themes do not fit into the aforementioned L2 motivational strategies (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001a). The figure on the following page shows all the themes that emerged from the qualitative data:

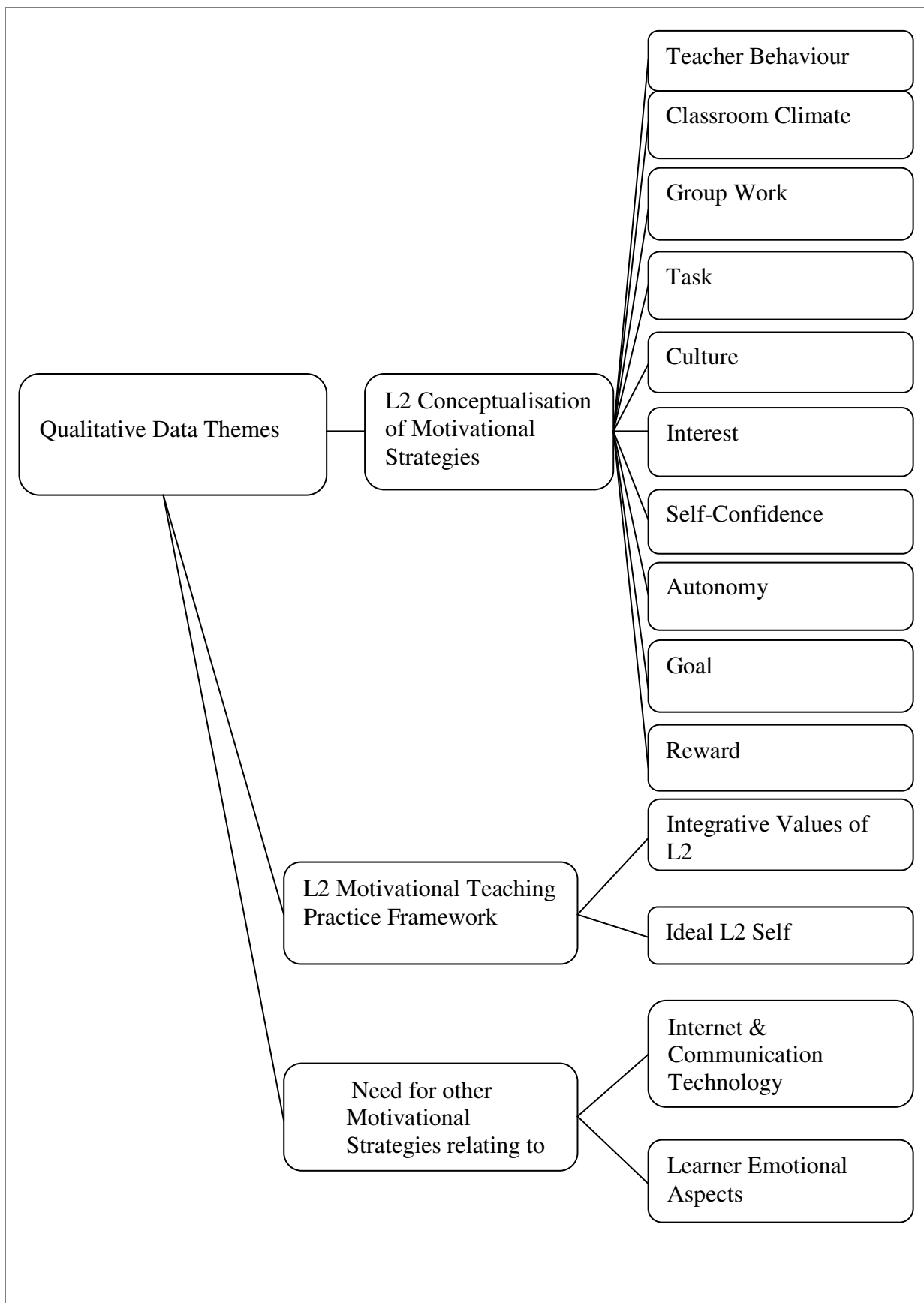


Figure 19: Illustrating Qualitative Data Themes

In Table 38 below, a profile of the participants in the interviews will be provided before presenting the interpretation of the qualitative data. The sample was chosen conveniently from a number of male and female participants who agreed to participate in the interviews. This sample includes teachers with different ages and teaching experiences. There is also a slight variation in the age of students as indicated by them.

Table 38: Profile of Participants in Interviews

Teachers		Students	
Teacher A	Age:29 Gender: Female Teaching experience:03 years	Student G	Age: 19 Gender: Female Level:1 st year Human Sciences
Teacher B	Age:48 Gender: Male Teaching experience:10 years	Student H	Age: 18 Gender: Female Level: 1 st year Human Sciences
Teacher C	Age:31 Gender: Female Teaching experience:05 years	Student I	Age:19 Gender: Male Level: 1 st year Human Sciences
Teacher D	Age:33 Gender: Female Teaching experience:05 year	Student J	Age: 20 Gender: Female Level: 1 st year Human Sciences
Teacher E	Age:42 Gender: Male Teaching experience:06 years	Student K	Age:18 Gender: Female Level: 1 st year Human Sciences
Teacher F	Age:32 Gender: female Teaching experience:03 years	Student L	Age: 21 Gender: Female Level: 1 st year Human Sciences

7.1. Presentation of Qualitative Data Analysis

In the presentation of the qualitative data, a number of themes which relate to teacher and student perceptions will be interpreted, and accompanied with a comparison of their views. Two transcription symbols are used in writing. Three dots (...) means there is a missing word or phrase, and this is because they are not clear when listening to the interviews, or because this missing part includes repetition of the same ideas. The square brackets are used to add some information in order to clarify the quote. It bears stressing that the qualitative data will be described within the framework of L2 motivational teaching strategies (Dörnyei, 2001a) since most of the emergent themes appear to fall within this framework with slight modifications.

7.1.1. Creating Basic Motivational Conditions

7.1.1.1. Teacher Behaviour

- *Teachers*

The teachers talked about many aspects of teacher behaviour that seemed to motivate their students and which included being helpful and fair when delivering the English lessons and explaining them. Both teachers B and C regard teachers' fairness as an effective motivational behaviour.

Teacher C said:

When you [the teacher] are fair! You communicate and behave the same way with all of them [the students] according to the situation. This gives them [the students] relaxation and safety! This makes them [the students] motivated and have the courage to work and get involved. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

From her quote, it is crystal clear that fairness ensues a set of positive reactions on the part of learners such as: relaxation, safety, work and involvement.

Teacher B simply said:

You [the teacher] have to consider them [the students] all the same. He further added: We [the teachers] try to provide them [the students] with the possibility to learn especially shy learners and stir up latent knowledge embedded inside them. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

Teacher B seems to share a part of what has been stated by teacher C in terms of teacher fairness and added another crucial aspect about providing shy learners with the possibility to learn via helping them to voice out what they carry inside themselves as, often times, their shyness stood as a barrier and make them refrain from taking part in the learning process. Teacher C emphasised on the way the teacher behaves in the class and said:

They [the students] learn something other than information. They [the students] like the way you [the teacher] work with them, they will be motivated. When you work hard and set rules, this will help them improve and make them understand the lesson. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher C is referring to the teacher's behaviour as a prominent model in the class through stating that students learn from the teacher something but not necessarily pieces of information. She might be thinking about the way the teacher behaves and impresses students and thus impacts and makes them emulate his /her actions. While teacher E focussed on his teaching practices such as: speaking clearly and loudly, explaining and involving students.

He stated:

To motivate my students I start speaking trying to be clear and attractive in my speech by basing myself on a very good pronunciation, speaking loudly, using gestures, exemplifying and explaining clearly. I do my best to involve them and make them speak. (*Teacher E: r16, T1*)

It appears from teacher E's quote that the ultimate objectives are to involve the students and make them speak via attracting them by voice clarity, exemplification, and explanation. In fact, this quote portrays the idea that the teacher playing a pivotal role to motivate his students

Teacher C said:

I give them information, I allow time for asking me questions, and I look at their eyes. You [the teacher] have to read their needs in their gestures and eyes. Interact with them and they [the students] will speak and answer questions. Students got bored with a teacher who keeps talking all the time. She further added: the way you [the teacher] interact with your students as humans is very important. When you [the teacher] know how to communicate with them [the students], you can motivate them. You [the teacher] communicate using signs, speaking, writing, gestures, and actions. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Again, Teacher C is placing value on interaction as a way of motivating her students. In her opinion, teachers should supply information and wait for questions. As a response, students will speak and interact for a talkative teacher rather causes boredom. She indicated that a teacher bears a responsibility in interpreting the way students look at

him/her (the eye contact and facial expressions) and the different gestures they make so as to locate their needs. Above all, students must be treated as humans!

Teacher C stated:

You [the teacher] have got to play a lot! Gestures will motivate most students and make them speak and work with you. Students hate to be taught in a mechanical robot way. They hate to have a static teacher! So, we [the teachers] have to be human in our teaching! (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher A said:

A foreign language teacher must be sensitive and avoid punishments. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Teacher A is raising two other points: one related to teacher's sensitiveness and another about evading punishments. In fact, the teacher did not include any details whatsoever about the sort of punishment she is targeting. Moreover, she introduced a new element about being sensitive toward students without citing any further details.

Teacher F seems to agree with what has been stated earlier by teacher E concerning the teacher's clear voice, good pronunciation and lesson explanation. She further expressed that students like a teacher who exhibits confidence, explains well, and understands students. She said:

Students want a teacher who explains with clarity, who has a good pronunciation, and being fluent. She further added: it is interesting also to point out that students like the teacher who understands the learners, and who feels confident and explains well. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

Teacher D said:

Teacher's behaviour is the reflection of all what he does inside the classroom. The teacher is always under the scope and often represents the body of the language. That's why he needs to be fair and help the learners understand the lessons. (*Teacher D: r25, T1*)

Teacher D is no exception, to her mind, the teacher's help and fairness are crucial characteristics of every classroom teacher to make students understand the lesson. She seems to agree with the previously interviewed teachers.

- *Students*

All the students also had the opinion that the teacher behaviour is motivational. They talked about different motivational aspects of teacher behaviour. Student G sees in the way the teacher presents the lesson as a game-like as opposed to the usual ordinary way a motivating behaviour. She also introduced a crucial element that relates to recognising students' effort when she evoked rewards such as: prizes and plus marks. As a point in fact, this detail fits more with the fourth area of encouraging positive evaluation that will be tackled later.

Another surprising aspect about her quote is requesting from teachers to deliver lessons the way a story is told. Student G appears to hint at a number of practices that make lessons interesting as developing the lesson gradually and let students see activities emerge using attractive speech and action to reach a particular goal in an entertained manner. She said:

I prefer a teacher who explains the lesson and gives us the information like in playing a game and not having a lesson in the usual boring way. I like the

teacher who gives prizes to the students when they participate in the classroom... plus marks... The teacher should create a weather of storytelling which means that the instead of presenting the lesson in the old way, he will present like in telling stories. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student I highlighted the positive effects of being a strict teacher which can make students respect the teacher, be afraid and under his/her control in the L2 classroom. Her quote conveys the idea that ultimately students mirror their teacher in terms of behaviour. She said:

The behaviour of the teacher reflects the personality of the teacher. For example, when the teacher is strict, the students will respect him and become afraid of his reactions so they will be strict but if the teacher is not strict the students also will not be strict and he will lose the control on them. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

Student L seems to slightly agree with student I when she indicates that the teacher's behaviour as being serious impacts the students' lives in the classroom. However, student L stresses the impact can be positive as loving the language and according it importance or negative and result in hating to study it.

She said:

The behaviour of the teacher can make the student love or hate the language, to give it importance. If teacher is good for example serious, the students give importance to the language. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Student J as well recognises the importance of the teacher's behaviour and considers the norms of teacher tolerance and gentleness as motivational characteristics but within the limits and in the right time. She underlines the fact some students may get

advantage of the situation in the wrong direction and yet they may end up with bothering the teacher.

She said:

The teacher behaviour is very important. The teacher must be gentle and tolerant but not too much and all the time because there are always gentle students and others not. (*Student J: r20, SI*)

Student K is of the opinion that students love the language owing to the teacher's good treatment, though she did not include any details on what or how could be this treatment in addition to varying topics and encouraging student competition. In her opinion:

The teacher makes us love English by good treatment, doing activities to encourage competition between students. Studying topics related to education, others to social to make students free and not limited. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

The strategies mentioned by the students in relation to teacher behaviour involve the teacher responding and caring about them as individuals and creating a good mood in the classroom, which appears to contribute to the social aspect of the process of L2 learning. They mention the teachers' role in terms of enjoyment, tolerance, seriousness, and mood. It seems that the students are aware of how the teacher is feeling and this affects them directly.

7.1.1.1.1. Teacher Behaviour Theme Summary

In the learning process, both teachers and students value the role of teacher behaviour in motivating students though the underlying reasons seem to be slightly different. The teachers talk about teacher behaviour in terms of how they motivate students to learn, interact, work hard, study and improve their FL. These areas relate to academic achievement. The students refer to strategies relating to teacher behaviour in terms of the impact it has on the social aspects of the FL learning process. They relate such strategies to their enjoyment and mood within the class regardless of any learning, and the interaction they have.

7.1.1.2. Classroom Climate

- *Teachers*

Relating to classroom atmosphere, all the interviewed teachers seemed to believe that creating a pleasant and relaxed environment motivated their students in the FL classroom, but they approached this point from a slightly different perspective. Two teachers focussed on the humour aspect and on the disadvantages of having a serious class. They talked specifically about humour being a motivational strategy particularly because students spend some time focussing in the classroom. Teacher C said:

The teacher should have humour in the class when explaining or having a conversation, and she added: It [humour] is very important mainly for tired students after some time of focus. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher A values the role of humour in changing the classroom atmosphere. She said:

Humour is very fruitful, it changes the mood of the classroom. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Both teachers agreed to consider humour as a motivational tool but teacher A did not include more details about humour and how it should be implemented while teacher C stated that humour should be incorporated when the teacher explains or interacts with his students and she later precised that it is really necessary for tired students in order to energise them once again, after having focussed for some time to get them follow the teacher and keep pace with what is going on in the class.

Though, it is worth mentioning here that teacher C evoked in the interview the need of a good climate and the right atmosphere with special reference to students who are already motivated. She stated:

In each class, you [the teacher] have some students who are already motivated, they just need the climate. She added: they just need the right atmosphere, they become totally involved. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher B and E commented on the need for a pleasant classroom atmosphere and the drawback of having a stressful class. They appear to view the process of learning in terms of the outcome which relates to students progression and expression in the FL learning. Teacher B said:

It is our job to make them [the students] learn in the correct way.

Then, he added:

Make them [the students] learn without fear and anxiety. (*Teacher B: r26, T1*)

Teacher E seems to share the same idea. He cited:

Creating a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere makes students feel at ease and allow them to say what they think and answer questions without any inhibition or anxiety. (*Teacher E: r21, T1*)

In the viewpoints of teachers' B and E , it is the responsibility of the teacher to prepare a stress free study atmosphere where learners find themselves free from any sort of pressure or fear that results in inhibition or anxiety and yet blocking learners mainly through raising their affective filter. Both teachers see in creating a pleasant and relaxed study atmosphere an occasion for learners to express their opinions and participate in the English class.

Teacher D is no exception, she stated:

The moment I [the teacher] tell my students to relax, to speak up, to express themselves, an immediate change in the atmosphere is noticed. (*Teacher D: r25, T1*)

Teacher F summarised the points that teachers need to cater for to motivate their learners and promote their desire for interaction by saying:

In fact, when I [the teacher] want to motivate my students, I take into account the learning atmosphere, the emotional climate and the enjoyment in the classroom. She added: The learning atmosphere and the emotional climate are important to motivate students. Students need certain ambience and a relaxed atmosphere that promote a desire for interaction. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

In her quote, teacher F appears to be making three separate points relating to the classroom atmosphere. She mentions that there should be certain ambience and a relaxed class in order to increase interaction. Although she makes recourse to enjoyment and emotional climate, she does not elaborate on how classes may be both of these two classroom aspects.

Teacher C is one amongst the other interviewed teachers who refers to teacher student rapport. She said:

If you [the teacher] do not establish good relationships with students, you cannot even start working with them. When you found good relationships, they respect you, you [the teacher] avoid problems and you will have good communication with them. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

By concentrating on her quote, we can remark that she is linking three main points together as a result of good relationship establishment. Firstly, students will respect their teacher. Secondly, there will be no classroom problems and thirdly effective communication will take place.

Teacher B simply said:

We [the teachers] have to give them [the students] the opportunity to develop good relationships. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

Teacher's E response appears to go with that of teacher C. In his perception, he stresses the social aspect of having a good relationship with students since it leads to mutual respect, understanding, and avoids any rigidity in the learning process.

He cited:

A good student teacher relationship will rather facilitate the learning process and allow mutual respect and understanding, avoiding any stiffness. (*Teacher E: r21, T1*)

Teacher A said:

Good relationships avoid conflicts, make them [the students and teachers] closer to each other and will lead to mutual understanding between them [the students and teachers]. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Teacher A's view seems to run in the same direction as the previous ones. Exceptionally, teacher D did not recognise the role of establishing a good relationship with learners as motivating for students. She said:

This practice is important but it is preferable that it takes place within the teaching learning entourage. That is to say keeping things formal. Distancing oneself from learners keep things formal. (*Teacher D: r25, T1*)

From her quote, we can deduce that teacher D fears from discipline problems in her class, so she prefers to keep certain distance between her and the students as a safety measure. In fact, her argument of being formal may provoke certain inflexibility and render the task of motivating students a difficult one.

In addition to what has been voiced by the aforementioned teachers, so far, teacher F introduced other elements related to the use of students' names as a motivating tool particularly for the anxious students. She as well highlighted the focal role of the teacher as a person, a friend, and a good communicator! She said:

We [the teachers] should also use students' names because when I call the anxious students and give examples using their names, I feel that they become more motivated. She expressed: The teacher's personality plays a crucial role in motivating students. Students want a good teacher, a good communicator.

They [the students] like a person [the teacher] who shares their problems and goals and who becomes their friend. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

- *Students*

All the students interviewed talk about the classroom environment as an important motivator. The strategies mentioned by the students which relate to classroom atmosphere were fun and facilitation. One of the students, Student G, talked directly about the benefits of having fun in the classroom. She said:

We like to have a funny weather of learning because learning the usual way makes students consider it a boring way. The teacher presents the lesson and then asks the students if they get the point or no. So, we search a new way to learn. (*Student G: r22, S1*)

Student G is focussing on fun as an element of change to shackle off the classroom routine. She clearly indicated that being taught in the traditional way, where the teacher is the prime source, is boring. She is requesting newness in learning. This may convey the fact that even at higher education level instruction is teacher-centred.

In student K's opinion, in order to be motivated, acquire information, be creative, and achieve success in their learning, teachers need to place emphasis on a relaxed study climate, facilitation, and creating bridges rather than barriers that hinder students progress. She also highlighted the extrinsic motivation requesting as she expressed a 'push' from the teacher.

She said:

The most important way to make turn out to study. Make the students in a comfortable situation make him so motivated to the acquisition of information. Motivate students to be creative in his practices in classroom. Push and make force to develop students in their works and facilitate teaching. Avoid obstacles between students and teachers and have a positive energy to realise excellent projects and to achieve success in excellent way. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

As for students J, L and H, a pleasant classroom atmosphere helps and encourages them to study positively and make them participate in class.

Student J said:

A good atmosphere helps students to understand and work positively in the class and make students like English sessions. (*Student J: r20, SI*)

Student L said:

Good climate helps us to love studying, we feel comfortable. It creates a desire to study. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

More importantly, student H adds that this makes students like the language and will use it when travelling or using internet. As a point in fact, student H is stressing a crucial point that is related to the FL/L2 related values as getting profit from learning the language and yet use it once they get access to the internet and communication technology or in the future when travelling.

Student H said:

Creating a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere encourages the student to work more and participate in the lesson. The student likes more the language and he will use the language in other contexts like traveling, internet... (*Student H: r16, SI*)

7.1.1.2.1. Classroom Climate Theme Summary

From the teacher results, we have seen that a large focus for most of them in terms of classroom atmosphere is on having humour, avoiding stress and anxiety, and founding good relationships with students in the class. Interestingly, only one student mentions fun as part of the classroom atmosphere. Instead, the main focus of the other students is on the teacher's role to motivate them by ways of facilitating lessons, creating a relaxed study atmosphere and encouraging participation.

Teachers and students alike appear to view the motivational power of a pleasant classroom atmosphere in fostering the social and interactive nature of the lessons in terms of facilitation, understanding, participation, expression, progression, and learning.

7.1.1.3. Group Work

- *Teachers*

All the interviewed teachers addressed the theme of group work and believed that it is not actually an important factor in increasing students' motivation. They pointed to the drawbacks of creating a group work in the English class. Teacher C emphasised that group work is not easy to be put into practice since it sometimes brings disorder than promoting cooperation.

She said:

Group work needs more than a mere application, how are they [the students] going to work? You [the teacher] have to set rules during group work activities. Then, she added: I do not want to have chaos and disagreements that make the group work goes wrong. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher B started by making an assumption saying:

Organising group work is a technique rather than a teaching strategy, only some aspects can be done. (*Teacher B: r26, T1*)

He seemed to agree with teacher C when he said:

It (group work) should be set according to some points and autonomy may be one. (*Teacher B: r26, T1*)

In his own words he declared:

It [the group work] does not promote learning.

Teacher B justified his position by saying:

A group is made up of different members who cannot get profit from one another simply because we [the teachers] will have a kind of monopoly within the group. He added: Different members form a small learner community, we [the teachers] do not have the conditions or the means to make the members profit from one another...always someone somehow is dominating. (*Teacher B: r26, T1*)

From this quote, we can clearly notice that the deficiency is not in the group work *per se* but in the way how it is organised and according to which conditions. This leads us to think that teachers themselves need to have a clear idea about setting group work norms in order to make it successful and make learners get profit from one another. Teacher B's perception conveys the idea that group work does not have a positive effect and is not promoting cooperation among learners during group work activities. Teacher A stated clearly:

I do not include group work in my classes since they [the students] do not realise the meaning of learning a foreign language ...they do not realise the responsibility of learning a foreign language in a group. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Form her quotation, teacher A, is stressing two elements which are related to the students. According to her, the students themselves ignore the positive and effective side of group work and need to be responsible learners so as to promote their learning within a group. Teacher D appears to agree with teacher A. She said:

Group work is not really important to me for the outcome is not interesting, group learners are not always manageable and over years it proved to be not efficient enough at least for me! (*Teacher D: r25, T1*)

In fact teacher (D) is playing down the role of group work because it is not that easy to be managed and at the same time she makes a personal judgement about its inefficiency. It seems obvious, form her quote that she attempted to operate with group work but it did not yield her the desired outcome. But it is still useful to say that the problem is not in the group work but in how to set it. Teacher E seemed to agree with all of them in minimising group work role and introduced a new element which is associated with the use of the mother tongue by students to deviate from the task assigned to them and

start a discussion. Teacher E placed too much emphasis on the teacher in organising group work to promote learning. He stated:

In group work, most students are passive and only one or two students are speaking. Sometimes students avoid the task assigned to them and start a discussion, using the mother tongue, about their daily actions. Teacher (E) further added: So, group work is not actually useful, it needs a lot of effort from teachers and students seem to ignore its advantages. (*Teacher E: r21, T1*)

Teacher F did not give more details on group work. In her own words, she stated:

When programming group work, teachers help less advanced learners, encourage their interests, and engage them. (*Teacher E: r16, T1*)

Teacher F spoke about teachers' help and encouragement for less advanced learners' interests and engagement but she did not include any information on how to afford this help to learners, or how to encourage their interests, or engage them. In fact, her quote portrays the idea that organising group work and managing it constitutes a difficult task for teachers.

As we have seen, all the teachers talked about group work from different perspectives but all of them agreed to down play its role in increasing learners' motivation. Yet, the teachers appear to hold group work in low regard, as they believe that it does not contribute to increasing students' motivation, but rather leads to the opposite impact causing disagreements and clashes among the group members themselves.

Additionally, we have to recognise the fact they stated about its implementation which requires effort from the teacher and its organisation needs certain conditions to make it achieve positive impacts in the students' lives.

- *Students*

The attitudes of students toward creating group work were quite common. Most of them seem to stress on the social aspect of getting to know each other. Students stated that working in a group help them knit relationships and share the information. Exceptionally, only one student (L) expressed her dissatisfaction. In her own words, she said:

Not a very good idea if we see the noise that students make. Students are always in disagreement and even when we work in group, there is always one who is working more than the others. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Conversely, the other interviewed students talked about group work positively. For instance, student G said:

...To have a good relationship between the learners because if there is no good relationship between them they will face problems also to share the ideas. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student K said:

...To share the information and the knowledge. Discover the other... Make the students closer and reinforce the relation between the students. ...Creates a climate of confidence and more than that solidarity. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

From her quotation, it seems that she is adding other benefits as a consequence of setting group work. She stated that when students work within a group, there will be a climate of confidence and solidarity. Students help each other and feel confident to express themselves. Indeed, some students feel confident to express themselves in front of a limited number of their classmates.

In addition to sharing information and competition, other students are in favour of group work and see it as an occasion to discuss and seek support from their fellow students and learn from them something new in terms of ideas and information. These students appear to highlight the social aspect of learning together and by ways of interaction.

Student I said:

[Group work] is a good strategy, we share ideas to avoid the miss lead. A dynamic member will push the other members. Group work creates more competition. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

Student L said:

Group work helps us to make a discussion in the group. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Student H said:

Including group work will give students the opportunity to share their information and learn from the others and get new information. (*Student H: r16*)

7.1.1.3.1. Group Work Theme Summary

Contrary to students, all the teachers believed that creating a group work is not a motivating teaching practice. In fact, there is a divide in teachers and students perceptions. The students appear to hold group work in high regard, as they believe that it contributes to strengthening the ties between students in class, however the teachers seem to have the opinion that group work can have the opposite impact causing problems between members who feel they are being taken advantage of or feel that other students are not co-operating or rather dominating the group.

Additionally, in the eyes of teachers, the problem with group work resides in the fact that it is not that easy to set it and succeed in achieving positive results. This discloses that teachers ignore to a certain extent the conditions or norms that guide or rather frame the setting of group work to make it successful. To students' minds, organising group guarantees to some degree certain confidence, solidarity, information sharing, and the establishment of student ties and new relationships.

7.1.2. Generating Initial Motivation

The present area of the framework deals with creating the basic motivation. It is generating initial motivation. This area embraces three scales which are as follow: FL/L2 related values, Goals and Ideal L2 self.

7.1.2.1. L2 Related Values

- *Teachers*

Two aspects of FL/L2 related values are drawn from the analysis of the teacher interviews, namely instrumental and integrative FL/L2 values with more focus on the former. In relation to FL/L2 instrumental values, most teachers stated that they reminded students of the practical benefits and usefulness of the FL/L2 particularly to get a job, visit a foreign country or meet foreigners.

Teacher B said:

It is better to learn the language. May be one day, you [the students] visit a foreign English speaking country or look for a job. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

This quote stresses on the future benefits of the English language and indicates that the teacher is encouraging the students to learn the language as a tool of communication

through which students could get in touch with foreigners speaking English or searching a job in the future.

Teacher C said:

When you [the teacher] start working with them [the students], you have to give them [the students] a clear statement of your purpose. Why do you study the English language? Then you [the teacher] try to make them [the students] like it [the English language] ... You [the students] need it for your future. You [the teacher] have to link the teaching of English with students' hobbies, everyday life and future use... The future always makes a person motivated to do something in order to promote their intrinsic motivation. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

According to teacher C, it is the teacher's responsibility to be purposeful and make students know at the very start why they are learning the language. However, from her quote, it appears that she is not making a clear distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and which type to promote. Initially, she focuses on motivating students extrinsically. She introduces an aspect that relates to students' affect in which teachers attempt to influence students and trigger a desire of liking the language through placing emphasis on the practical uses of the language in students' daily life, hobbies and future use without providing more details. Later, she mentions that the objective behind is the promotion of students' intrinsic motivation.

Teacher A said:

I [the teacher] explain to them [the students] how the target language helps them build their future life. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Again, teacher's A quote seems to focus on the future benefits of learning the language but she did not include more information on how the target language will help students construct their future life as studying abroad, travelling for touristic reasons, immigration or employment.

Teacher D said:

Providing students with information that make them survive in the real world... Bringing them the new information about the language... Bringing them information about the countries that use this language. (*Teacher D: r25, T1*)

Teacher D's quotation emphasises on equipping students with new practical information firstly about the language to make them struggle and survive in real life situations. This means the teacher targets students' performance via the actual use of the language. Secondly, the teacher highlights another aspect relates to information about the English speaking countries to attract his students attention and make them aware of all what has connection with the language in terms of culture, customs, traditions and way of life.

Teacher E appears to focus on effort expenditure rather than students' ability as a decisive element for learning the language. Besides, he mentioned other instrumental values related to the language use as: travelling or meeting foreigners.

He said:

We have to explain the importance of the language and tell students that learning a foreign language is not really a very difficult matter, it only needs

from their effort and perseverance. They need it when they travel or meet foreigners. (*Teacher E: r21, TI*)

To sum up, teachers believe that L2 related values are essential motivational strategies that focus on the instrumental and integrative values of the L2. The same can be said about students; however teachers seem place more emphasis on the instrumentality of the language.

- *Students*

As for the students, they also talked about motivational strategies related to L2 related values, including instrumental and integrative values. All the students talked about their need for English for instrumental reasons, which included getting a job, watching movies, listening to songs and communicating with native speakers when travelling. They appear to value the English language with special reference to its world status and universality. Student G seems to combine both values in her response.

She said:

I am so motivated to study the English language and am very curious to know more about it. I love this language it makes me watch films in English listen to English songs and write short stories in English also. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

...To know the importance of the English language in the other countries and know how they pronounce it. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

As for L2 integrative values, students expressed themselves mainly about how they regard the language itself and the role of the teacher in introducing the cultural aspects related to it.

Student I said:

I love the English language. It's a universal language. I want to improve my level. It's the only passage where I can express myself. It is a rich language and vivid. *(Student I: r15, SI)*

It's an advantage for learners, Have a look on other cultures, Get a new world by English. English makes communication with other countries easier and practice, keeping in touch with other cultures. *(Student I: r15, SI)*

Student J said:

When the teacher helps the students discover the other cultures, they become open on the other world...they know the customs of other people. *(Student J: r20, SI)*

Student K appears to combine instrumental and integrative values of learning the language.

She said:

...To learn a new language and to be more intellectual by studying English. Vary the ways of teaching as making them visiting other universities to exchange information as making them visiting classes to know many things. *(Student K: r18, SI)*

She also added:

They [the students] will have communications with native people and being so interested to learning more and knowing more of cultures of this people. *(Student K: r18, SI)*

As for student L, in addition to the integrative values of the FL, she mentions a crucial element that relates to the student affect. She said:

I'm so active because I like to study English. It's good to make us love English. I will be happy to study it. I will participate in each activity and do my best. I like the diversity in subjects of English, it makes me feel free and love English more and more. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Student H is no exception, she appears to stress on instrumental values of the FL by saying:

Because English is an international language and we need it even for jobs so we have to learn it and study it. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

7.1.2.1.1. L2 Related Values Theme Summary

The teachers and the students consider FL values as an important motivating factor and many of their views overlap, in particular in relation to their view about instrumental values which relate to professional and academic motivators such as jobs and further study. They also mention travel. The areas in which differences emerge are when the students speak about their motivations for learning English which reflect their personal and affective interests mainly in FL culture.

7.1.2.2. Goal

- *Teachers*

All teachers seem to value the role of goals as a motivating teaching strategy. Teacher B stated why he believes that setting goals is a motivational teaching practice and ensures the students' progression.

Teacher B said:

To motivate them [the students], we [the teachers] have first to set up goals: Improving their pronunciation, learning, language structure, and language in general. Then, he added: Our objective is just to make them [the students] improve and progress. I personally, use different strategies. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

Moreover, he encourages his students to connect their learning to real life needs and objectives. If they know their goals, they will know why they are studying, and why they are so doing. It is important for students to identify their own goals in life. It appears that teacher B prefers student-centredness and goes further in explaining that students' motivation should not be confined to goals and we require to materialise the objectives so as to fill the gap that exists between motivation and the goal. That is teachers have to search for practical tools that account for students goals in learning and yet motivate them.

He said:

I tell them [the students] to link the learning with the objectives they need in life. So here making a step forward improving language learning is to put in mind a set of criteria: Motivation is not bound to goals! ...The gap between motivation and the goal! Materialise your objectives, materialise your motivation. Learning a foreign language is not only sitting for exams, quizzes and tests. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

In teacher B's opinion, in addition to setting goals at the very start, the leaning a foreign language should go beyond the class walls where students can practice what has been learnt. More importantly, students can use the social media or even a virtual world where they can express themselves, exchange the information and learn after all.

He adds saying:

We have to set up goals beforehand. Learning a foreign language is not limited to the class. It is better to use what they learnt outside...Creating a virtual world, using social networks. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

Teacher E considers that teachers bear responsibility in emphasising the goals of all what occurs in the classroom. The students should know why they are studying a particular course. He also introduces two aspects that he judges important as a result of highlighting the purpose of every activity he does in class. These are students' interest and attention.

In his own words, he cited:

I [the teacher] each time underline the purpose of every action I do, just to interest them [the students] and draw their attention. As a teacher you have to stress the goals of what you do with them. (*Teacher E: r21, T1*)

Teacher C stated:

When you [the teacher] start working with them [the students], you have to give them a clear statement of your purpose. Why do you [the students] study the English language? Then you [the teacher] try to make them like it. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher C seems to differ from teachers B and E in the perception of setting goals. She insists, at the very beginning of the course, on why students study the English language. In fact, it is a too broad a goal. She did not expand on this point and she did not explain any techniques that might be used by teachers to make students reach their goal of

studying the language except for attempting to make them like the language without citing any further details.

Teachers D said:

Setting goals behind the given lessons is of great importance but what we [the teachers] notice is that students do not really know why or what for did they study this or that point. (*Teacher D: r25, T1*)

Teacher D recognises the importance of setting goals but she did not include any details about how to stress them to her students. She rather indicated that students did not see the purpose behind studying. This may lead us to think that teacher D, in practice, did not focus on highlighting goals and as matter of fact, in her eyes, students did not know why they are studying.

Teacher F is no exception. According to her, teachers had to set goals to make students know what is wanted from them without including other details.

She simply cited:

Teachers must set goals clearly. This makes students understand what the teacher wants from them. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

As has been seen, all the teachers talked about goal setting although one teacher had a somewhat different view. The teachers show they believe in setting goals as a positive strategy to help the students achieve in terms of FL learning. However, it is unclear whether goals mean the same to all the teachers as one teacher seems to equate goals only to one area of why to study the English language, which is a broad area.

- *Students*

Students spoke about the theme of ‘Goals’ and mentioned some of them. To their minds, goals are crucial in learning, however, they did not talk about them extensively. Student G pointed out that when goals are set, students can retain information and their understanding can be checked. She said:

Goals are important to maintain the information and keep it in the mind.

Second, to know if the students understood the lesson or no. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student H includes few details about the theme of goals. She seems to concentrate on all what has a connection with the mastery of the language in terms of speaking, writing and vocabulary building in addition to the aspect of newness in terms of concepts.

She said:

...Make the student speak, make the student express himself orally. To be able to write, discover new concepts and enrich the vocabulary. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

Student I seems to agree with student H concerning the aspect of newness in learning.

Student I said:

Learning something new and exploit it in our days, a new door to open, a new hope at the end of each day. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

Student K said:

Give the students information in the best way and make them more interested. Motivate them to ask questions and explain to them. Make them participate and

let them give their point of view. Give them positive energy to be excellent and achieve success in developed way. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

Student K's quote portrays the idea that students' success is achieved by ways of setting goals that allow them to get information, be interested, participate, ask questions, and voice out their viewpoints.

Student L said:

...Make the student understand the lesson... Limit the information, the teacher will not give importance to details. He makes the student feel comfortable because he knows the direction. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Exceptionally and contrary to all students, student L is found to be the only one who declares that she wants to know the goal of every lesson prior to its start. Besides, her goals in learning the English language are more linked to the phonetic aspects of the language and vocabulary building.

She simply said:

My goals are developing pronunciation, enrich my terminology. I like to know the goal of every lesson before we start. (*Student L: r 12, SI*)

7.1.2.2.1. Goal Theme Summary

As has been shown, the teachers give much more importance to the motivating aspects of goal setting than the students did. However, one teacher amongst the others appears to believe that their role is to encourage the students to set their own goals through linking them to their real learning needs, whereas students do not mention that at all. In fact, students' responses reveal that they may not set goals without their teachers'

guidance. Yet, it would be better for both of them to reach consensus and agreement on what to include and focus on in terms of goals to target any and every element that contribute in achieving students' success.

7.1.2.3. Ideal L2 Self

One of the teachers addressed this idea. Teacher B stated that 'Ideal L2 self' plays a key role in motivating students in FL/L2 classrooms. He talked about some points that can contribute to create an attractive vision of students' L2 selves. First, he cited that he reminded students of the benefits of learning English for their academic studying and career in the future.

- *Teachers*

Teacher B said:

I tell them learning English has many advantages in the future. May be you go abroad and pursue your studies or work with a foreign firm. I sometimes bring with me my PC to show them videos about native speakers. I want them to have an idea on how the language is spoken by its speakers. I explain to them why is it important to master the language and imitate the native speakers.

(Teacher B: r24, T1)

Teacher B is also stressing the English language from the production point of view. That is how it is uttered by its native speakers using visual aids and explaining to them why it matters to master the language and more importantly requesting students to emulate them.

Teacher C values the teacher's role in attempting to motivate students and allow them to develop certain independency through making them imagine themselves in future high positions which they can achieve and yet the teacher confines herself only to play the role of a guider.

She said:

Students sometimes need a kind of independency, so you have to push them far by telling them you'll be future teachers and researchers. So, you just interfere with your opinion. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

As for teacher A, her quote conveys the idea that students tend to depend so much on the teacher. Thus, it is essential to propel students through making them have an attractive vision and image of themselves by presenting some powerful role models to illustrate potential future selves.

Interestingly, teacher A stated that she discusses with her students some aspects that relate to the foreign language in terms of bringing and using vocabulary items heard by students previously in films or songs. She included herself as well in the fact of referring to famous singers and actors. That is teacher A is interactive with her students, she wants to boost their likes and make them exploit and get profit from what they see and listen to in terms of TV programmes diffused in the English language in order to enrich their vocabulary and build images of themselves.

She responded:

We [teacher and students] speak about films, actors and famous singers... They give extra-words that we don't necessarily need in a specific topic just because they heard them in a film or a song. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

It is clear from the results that teacher's perception of the students' Ideal L2 self connects to academic and professional future goals, as they mention further study abroad and samples from professional sectors.

- *Students*

In the eyes of students, the ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator that helps them to learn the FL because they are carrying desires and dreams they would like to realise. They already had a vision of what they want to become in the future.

Student H said:

...To be able to speak the language correctly...To be able to speak the language in foreign countries. It is spoken everywhere in the world, it is the first language. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

Studying English allows you to be open minded...To have a vision of English world. ...To go in the discovery of the other way of life, to have cultural exchange. (*Student J: r16, SI*)

Student I said:

I love the English language. It's a universal language. I want to improve my level. It's the only passage where I can express myself. It is a rich language. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

Students K, L, and I talked about the 'Ideal L2 self' as an important motivational strategy. They cited the positive impact of having an Ideal L2 self for their L2 progression and future career. They seem to believe that with this image they are more motivated and will progress better in their learning, as well as their academic and professional

achievement. They also made a reference to the status of the English language in the world and both mentioned speaking the language and the interaction they will have with other English speakers, as motivational factors. Their answers are as follows,

Student K said

...To be a future teacher of English and teach students in an excellent way. To communicate with many people in many parts of the world who speak English. To visit many countries that speak the English language. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

As for student L said:

I'm very motivated to learn English as a Language that helps me to communicate. I need it in my studies, more languages means more cultures. English takes now a very important place in the world and I want to be one of its speakers. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Besides, student I added:

Get out of the classroom routine and change roles teacher and student. This [changing roles] gives students courage to prepare them to be future teachers and good citizens. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

Student G said:

Finally, I want to say that actions speak louder than words which means that the students should put their efforts to succeed and also the study and succeed is everything in our life because it's the key to perfect future. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

I need it in my studies, more languages means more cultures. English takes now a very important place in the world and I want to be one of its speakers.

(Student L: r12, SI)

7.1.2.3.1. Ideal L2 Self Theme Summary

Teachers and students alike mentioned an Ideal L2 self and some of their ideas are similar. However, students seem to supply more details than teachers. The students' focus is in seeing their future career and plans in terms of studying the language. Both students and teachers appear to agree in terms of Ideal L2 self in creating an image of themselves in the future related to academic achievement, further study and professional achievement. Interestingly, some students wanted to be among the large population of English speakers to interact with other FL/L2 speakers in the future.

7.1.3. Maintaining and Protecting Motivation

7.1.3.1. Task

- *Teachers*

Teachers appear to believe that using some strategies related to tasks used in FL classes was motivating for their students. One of the main factors, indicated by the teachers, is clear instruction when presenting tasks for students.

Teacher B said:

Teachers must prepare before hand, you [the teacher] can't add lip, make instruction clear, make all students learn. *(Teacher B: r24, TI)*

In his view point, the teacher can't simply come to the class and improvise the lesson. A prior lesson preparation is fundamental to ignite learning since tasks embed information that students use to judge their ability and willingness to learn through clear instruction.

Though teacher C recognises tasks as the core of teaching, she did not include any characteristics that tasks involve to create interest in students. She solely indicated that teachers should provide explanation to make students understand what is required from them.

She stated:

Tasks are in the heart of our job. If you [the teacher] do not explain to students, they will not understand. So, they will not be motivated to do the task.

(Teacher C: r22, T1)

Teacher A is raising another point about tasks. She said:

I [the teacher] hate assigning too much tasks to students, you [the teacher] psychologically block them [the students]. They have to feel free. Too much tasks make them [the students] bored and fed up. *(Teacher A: r19, T1)*

Her quotation portrays the idea that students' motivation decreases because of the quantity of tasks in the class. According to her, students feel rather bored and psychologically blocked when assigned too much tasks.

As for teacher F, presenting tasks properly is required with more emphasis on the oral ones. Teacher F seems to give priority to oral tasks over the written ones without providing any justification whatsoever.

She said:

Students like the teacher who presents tasks properly and who is fluent, who has deep knowledge of the subject. She added: Teachers should give and present tasks in a motivating way. Later, she came up with another precision saying ‘They [the teachers] should give more oral tasks than written ones’
(*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

Teacher E agrees with teacher A in terms of presenting tasks properly without supplying any further details.

He cited:

Presenting tasks properly is highly important and recommended to assure a better response from your learners. (*Teacher E: r19, T1*)

Teacher A once again expressed:

I [the teacher] always stress on the responsibility to learn. There is something missing in their motivation there is a kind of lack! I [the teacher] stress on intrinsic motivation. Even though you [the teacher] explain a task properly and you expect them [the students] to work it they do not do it in a good way. There will be always some kind of shortage! (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Teacher A’s quote is interesting in many respects. First, the teacher is quite aware of students’ learning and at the same time she makes a conclusion about their motivation which is more or less absent. Second, she states that she emphasises on intrinsic motivation. Moreover, she highlights task explanation as a way to make students do it,

unfortunately, they fail. This means that explanation alone cannot suffice to motivate students and make them able to do the task.

Albeit the teacher cited a very crucial element namely ‘Intrinsic Motivation’, she did not make any linkages with the task. In fact, it is not only the way a task is presented that matters. Many factors that none of the interviewed teachers hinted at as: variety, diversity, personal challenge, sense of control over the process or the product, and students’ interest should be embedded in the structure and design of the learning task itself in order to create an intrinsic motivation or purpose to learn.

- *Students*

As for students, they appear to believe in the motivational effects of using strategies related to tasks used in the L2 class. They mainly spoke about three teaching practices: presenting tasks in different ways to shackle off the classroom routine, including tasks and topics relating to competition and involving students in the class to encourage participation.

Student I said that teachers should vary the ways they deliver lessons and create competition in order to avoid boredom. She also highlighted a central element that relates to the practice of changing roles that differs from the old ‘show-and-tell’ practices where students sit as bunch bound listeners and the teacher is lecturing.

He said:

...Using a variety of ways to present lessons... create competition between students. Get out of the classroom routine, change roles teacher and student.

(Student I: r15, S1)

Student L appears to agree with student I on the element of using tasks that encourage students to compete with one another and raise their curiosity to make them discover and learn by themselves.

She said:

...Tasks which encourage competition and challenge between students.

Develop the desire to study. Encourage students to discover, to know more.

(Student K: r18, SI)

Student L seems to agree with student I in terms of variety and diversity of tasks and more importantly she exemplified with task contents. She also valued interactive practices and lessons in which students express themselves.

She voiced:

The diversity of exercises is very important... phonetics, comprehension and written expression. Asking students and hearing their opinions as a very good practice. The lesson is more interesting when the lesson is about personal opinions. *(Student L: r18, SI)*

To the mind of student H, teachers are required to design tasks that rather facilitate the learning and encourage students to participate in a stress free atmosphere. This may suggest that when students find tasks difficult to do, they cannot participate and learn and yet they feel a sort of stressful study atmosphere imposing itself on them and hinder their learning.

She said:

We need tasks to make the learning easy. Make all students participate in relaxed atmosphere. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student G and K are no exception, they responded respectively:

To make the students understand the point and better understand the lesson and push them to participate in the classroom and get the information from their inside. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student K said:

Make students participate and create an atmosphere of competition. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

As has been cited previously, when addressing tasks, the students value a varied presentation style suggesting that their classes are ordinary and could be boring. The task content was also an important aspect for the students who state that the inclusion of useful and interesting topics is important to maintain their interest and encourage participation.

Participation also featured highly in the views of the students who appear to view the motivation factors of presenting a task as the process of learning. This process of learning should allow students to interact, speak and participate in the class, regardless of the task structure. In short, we can see that the students will not feel motivated by breaking up the routine only, but also need to be inspired by relevant topics and fully involved in the class.

7.1.3.1.1. Task Theme Summary

The teachers and the students believe strategies related to tasks have a key role in motivating students. One student amongst the others appears to stress the importance of breaking up the routine to prevent boredom and maintain student interest.

The result of this scale may also suggest an area of mismatch in the views of teachers and students about the motivating factors of using tasks. Students go into more detail about how the tasks and their content can be motivating. In their views, tasks should involve relevant topics to interaction, participation. It can be seen that the students give much more importance to the social aspects surrounding language learning. However, teachers accord more importance to presenting tasks properly, providing clear instruction and including more explanation.

7.1.3.2. Self-Confidence

- *Teachers*

During the interviews, the teachers talked about different strategies that they use to promote the learner confidence of their students. These strategies can be grouped under three general teaching practices, which are accepting mistakes as a part of L2 learning, reducing student anxiety and encouraging students.

Teacher E said:

Learners' confidence is associated with the way the teacher handles his classroom situation. If the teacher encourages the learners and welcomes their answers, this will increase their confidence and make them participate and even

ask questions in case they do not understand some points in the lesson.

(Teacher E: r21, T1)

Teacher B pointed out:

Many students have low self-confidence. *(Teacher B: r24, T1)*

He, then, added that teachers should focus on promoting the students confidence by using different strategies such as encouraging them.

He said:

I [the teacher] provide them [the students] with opportunities. I make myself equal to their academic achievements by telling them: you read better than me
Oh! My god you know things I don't know to commit myself to implicate myself in the learning process. *(Teacher B: r24, T1)*

As for the strategies used to promote learner confidence, Teacher A seems to believe that encouraging students to accept mistakes as a part of L2 learning increases learner confidence. Teacher A expressed:

You [the teacher] have to encourage and motivate them [the students] even when they make silly mistakes. I [the teacher] always tell students that they must expect to make mistakes during learning and if they do not make mistakes, they will not learn, and that mistakes need to be dealt with in a good way.

She rather added:

The teacher's role is important just to make them feel free, some students see the teacher as a monster! And this rather bad quality drops confidence between them [the students and the teacher]. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Teacher A said:

They speak freely, they laugh no constraints and they even joke with each other using the target language. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Teacher A supplies information about the different ways she used to persuade students to accept mistakes, for example as a positive part of learning, students were encouraged to participate in the class. They were allowed to make mistakes even the silly ones since mistakes are expected and what matters most is participation in the class. To her mind, mistakes should be exploited in the right way since they are indicators of misunderstanding of specific points and yet she can explain them again in a different way. It could also be an occasion for shy students who do not want to raise their hands and participate, or ask the teacher to explain things in detail to get profit from their classmates mistakes.

Teacher A said:

When they pronounce correctly, I say excellent, you have a good accent. In reading a passage, I ask them to dig out specific words and when they answer I praise them saying 'good, go on you did it'. Don't be afraid of mistakes you are learning. (*Teacher A: r19*)

Teachers A talked about encouraging students by praising them and using positive feedback. Teacher A stated that students should be encouraged even for doing little things.

Teacher C agreed and added that teachers should provide ongoing encouragement for their students in order to increase student confidence.

You have to help them defend their viewpoints. You try to give another dimension to their answers and they will be encouraged. Feeling some kind of satisfaction encourages them. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher F said:

This strategy is also important to motivate the students to learn the English language. The teacher tries to communicate and believes in students and makes them believe in themselves. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

As can be seen from the results, the teachers place a great deal of importance on learner confidence as a motivating teaching practice. They focus on three main strategies, namely accepting mistakes, reducing anxiety and providing encouragement. Teacher D offers an explanation for the lack of confidence, both teachers A and B agree that increasing confidence has a positive effect and teacher B elaborates on how she motivates her students to accept mistakes as a part of the learning process. Encouragement, from the teachers' perspective should also be provided to less hardworking students and for small achievements as the main focus of teachers is on promoting student confidence in order to maintain their motivation to help students in their L2 learning.

- *Students*

The students also believed that teacher strategies relating to increasing learner confidence were motivating. Students spoke about two strategies which teachers could use to promote their learner confidence, namely accepting mistakes and encouraging students.

Students H cited that increased students' confidence results in making them speak even if they commit mistakes.

She stated:

Increasing learner confidence encourages him to work more. Make the student speak with mistakes to be able to go far, to be in contact with the teacher.

(Student H: r16, SI)

In student L's perception, she appears to comment on what confidence brings to her in terms of expression, participation and happiness but she did not explain how she wants the teacher to increase her confidence.

She stated:

When I feel confidence, I speak, participate, and feel happy. *(Student L: r12, SI)*

Student H also stresses the importance of student confidence without stating further explanation

She stated:

It's very important to increase the student confidence because that helps them reach their aim.

Conversely, student I replied that when the teacher makes a positive reaction toward him, the teacher propels him to keep working and participate. This reaction could be a positive feedback, a word of encouragement or praise.

He responded:

...Positive reaction... make me do my best. It gives me chance to work all the time...encourage me to participate. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

7.1.3.2.1. Self- Confidence Theme Summary

The previous analysis discloses that the theme of learner confidence is believed to be a motivational teaching practice by teachers and students alike. Teachers speak in more detail about the importance of encouraging mistakes for the learning process by sharing the benefits of making mistakes with the students in terms of improving their English level. The students, however, focus more on how allowing students to make mistakes helps them in a more social way as it increases their confidence to participate and involve themselves in the class. It seems that participation and involvement in class are key indicators of learner confidence in this context which maintain the L2 motivations of students.

With regard to encouragement, both teachers and students seem to believe that it is a motivational strategy in the FL classroom. However, the main area discussed was the use of praise words. It seems, therefore that praise is important for the students though encouragement can take many different forms none of which were mentioned by either group. For students, praising is important as it motivates them to participate and this again highlights the idea that participation is an indication of learner confidence. There appear to be clear differences behind the perceptions of teachers and students about the motivational factors of learner confidence. While teachers talk about building confidence in order to

achieve academic goals, students refer to how feeling confident allows them to participate, be involved and interact in the class.

7.1.3.3. Autonomy

- *Teachers*

Most teachers focussed mainly on one aspect of learner autonomy which is encouraging students to use and put into practice what has been learnt outside the classroom walls. Teacher B said:

Learning a foreign language is not limited to the class. It is better to use what they [the students] learnt outside the classroom! (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

Teacher E appears to agree with teacher B.

He stated:

Learners' autonomy is a crucial motivational practice, equipping students with all what they need then let them put into practice what they have learnt previously. Encouraging them to pay attention to every action they do to avoid mistakes and acquire the language skills. (*Teacher E: r21, T1*)

Teacher F talked about her beliefs that students should learn independently to progress in L2 learning and that the teacher role is mainly a guide to show students the effective ways of FL learning.

She said:

Students should feel independent. They should be autonomous; here the role of the teacher is to be just a guide. I think if the teacher just guides the students

and organises them, and lets them feel free, they become motivated more and more. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

According to teacher C' belief, autonomy is crucial particularly with students who have certain basis, however, most of them depend on the teacher and yet they fail to be autonomous. She believes that students' autonomy can be promoted through linking it to students' ideal L2 self and which expresses scale overlapping.

She said:

It is important when students have some basis. The problem is with those [the students] without such basis, they [the students] have to depend on someone [the teacher] otherwise they fail. So, to develop such kind of independency [the teacher] you have to push them [the students] far by telling them you [the students] will be future teachers and researchers. So, you [the teacher] just interfere with your opinion. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher A appears to agree with all of them highlighting the student-centredness by saying:

In order to learn, they [the students] need a push from the outside. They [the students] do not feel responsible for their learning. Students have to be self motivated and self responsible... students need to be responsible for their learning. They should be treated as grownups. They should not rely too much on the instruction from the teacher. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

Above all, it depends on the students to learn the language by self-study to improve and the English teacher should be a guide who directs students, or to the best ways to follow.

- *Students*

Students believed in learner autonomy as being motivational in terms of responsibility, freedom and self-confidence. Student G appears to believe that teachers should teach students the ways in which they can learn independently, stating:

To make the learner trust in his capacities and believe in his goals in life so from this he can do everything he wants and can face problems of life. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student H is linking autonomy to self-confidence.

She said:

It helps the student to be free and independent and give him self-confidence and he will be responsible. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

Student I said:

Dividing work between teacher and student complementary, make students self confident, be like a guide for them. (*Student I: r15, SI*)

Student k said:

Give them notions and make them searching about them. Make them have self confidence. Students will be creative in their projects. They will be more free, they choose the best ways that make them succeed. Make them having a good feeling, they assure responsibility and they will develop and realise works to achieve success. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

Student L said:

I read books and study by myself but the presence of the teacher is important to put on the right way. We need to add more expressions and writing productions ‘personal (‘In English so we can add the personal work. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Student J said:

Autonomy means student responsibility. And when they become responsible, they become serious and give importance to his gifts. (*Student J: r20, SI*)

Student H said:

To let him free about his opinion his way of studying his way of answering questions. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

7.1.3.3.1. Learner Autonomy Theme Summary

Both teachers and students underline the importance of learner autonomy but they approached it differently. As for teachers, it goes without saying that autonomy is crucial and allows students to practice what they have already learnt even in real life situation but autonomy as well necessitates certain degree of responsibility and self-study on the part of the student. Teachers indicated that students’ over reliance on the teacher or teacher-led learning prevent them from being independent in their learning. In students’ perceptions, it is the teacher’s job to make them autonomous but they did not include any details on how this should be done except for requesting certain freedom in their learning.

7.1.4. Encouraging Positive Self-Evaluation

7.1.4.1. Recognise Students' Effort

- *Teachers*

The teachers spoke about two motivational strategies to recognise students' efforts. These strategies are mainly related to giving feedback and offering rewards. As for giving feedback, the teachers expressed their views about giving feedback verbally to students when participating in the class.

Teacher A said:

When they [the students] pronounce correctly, I say excellent. You [the students] have good accent. In reading a passage I ask them to dig out specific words and when they answer, I thank them saying that's good, go on you did it. Don't be afraid. Make mistakes you learn it's your class. I don't make negative remarks even when they commit mistakes. (*Teacher A: r19, T1*)

From her quote above, teacher A seems to depend on giving positive feedback to encourage students and keep them working. She attempts as well to free them from any stress or pressure even when they commit mistakes.

Teacher E appears to agree with teacher A in tolerating students' mistakes and correcting them in a way that will not cause them to lose face in front of their classmates and feel rather blocked. He focuses as well on encouraging students to speak the language and participate.

He said:

Push your students to take part in your lessons. Encourage them to speak the language. Accept their mistakes and correct in a soft way. Don't block them just elicit information and ideas. (*Teacher E: r21, T1*)

Teacher B talked about the importance of feedback as a support to help students improve regardless the fact that they may lack many things. Teacher B indicates that students require certain esteem to their personalities and value to the work they do in class in order to recover deficits in their learning.

He said:

Tell them [the students] that they are able. Why don't you exhibit your potential? You can do better even if they lack many things. You have to show us the difference. Learners can recover deficiencies in learning a language through giving importance to their works and personalities. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

Teacher F said:

To motivate our students, we should give positive feedback, and we should also use students' names because when I call the anxious students and give examples using their names, I feel that they become more motivated.

(*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

The above quote means that teacher F is no exception, she says that positive feedback motivates her students. Besides, she highlights the salient role of calling and using students' names in motivating even the anxious students.

To our surprise, only one teacher amongst the interviewees tackled the theme of rewards. More interestingly, she cited her students' opinion about studying the English language in addition to her brief comment.

She commented:

They [the students] say 'we just need the mark to succeed', they sometimes got motivated by marks. (*Teacher C: r22, TI*)

- *Students*

Students also talked about strategies related to recognising their efforts, including giving feedback and offering rewards. As for giving feedback, students appeared to like receiving positive feedback. All the students believed that teachers should offer them positive feedback during the class.

Student L said:

A teacher that tells me I'm good in this and when he tells me that I can go far in my studies in English. (*Student L: r12, SI*)

Student M's perception seems to illustrate the great importance of verbal feedback in making the student have a future vision academically such as carrying further studies. In fact, the teacher's feedback is targeting the student's ideal L2 self and once more themes seem to overlap.

Student H said:

Giving students plus marks or by saying a good remark or observation like excellent, very good etc... (*Student H: r16, SI*)

Student K said:

To do enjoying competition by students and gave them felicitation. (*Student K: r18, SI*)

As opposed to teachers, three students expressed their viewpoints about receiving reward from their teachers.

Student G said:

I like the teacher who gives prizes to the students when they participate in the classroom...plus marks. (*Student G: r22, SI*)

Student J said:

Give marks for students who participate. Use projects and mark them. (*Student J: r20, SI*)

Student H said:

The teacher must make a reward for students who do the homework and who participate by adding them a plus mark. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

7.1.4.1.1. Recognise Students' Effort Theme Summary

Both teachers and students believe that using some strategies which contribute to recognising student efforts are motivational teaching practices. A similarity can be noticed in the views of both the students and teachers in relation to giving feedback. The results show that the teachers care about the students efforts and also that the students care about the teacher's feedback. The feedback itself is not an issue for either teachers or students. In terms of negative feedback, the teachers' focus tends to be on highlighting mistakes and how to improve on these in order to progress in their academic performance and grades.

The students also agree with this, but mention a more social side to not receiving negative feedback in the classroom which might cause them anxiety and therefore reduce participation in the class. In terms of their beliefs about giving rewards, the main difference is that the students focussed almost solely on the use of plus marks as an incentive. The teachers did not include any kind of rewards.

7.2. Two Emergent Themes

7.2.1. Need for Using Motivational Strategies

The teachers and students alike evoked the need for motivational strategies that relate to the new technology and more precisely to the information and communication technology. Both of them highlighted its role in enhancing students' learning. Another theme appeared to be central peculiarly in the eyes of teachers is students' emotion or rather affect. According to them, students can be motivated to study and learn the language when they like and appreciate what they are doing, when teachers cater for their emotional aspects. As for the first theme, only one teacher amongst the interviewed highlighted the use of the internet and communication technology in making students progress and improve in their studies.

Teachers

Teacher B said:

We need extra materials, new technology, this new virtual world in terms of what may enhance and encourage them to do better. Our objective is just to make them improve and progress. I personally, use different strategies. I tell them to link the learning with the objectives they need in life. We need

internet, visual aids for example, videos, movies... ...Creating a virtual world.

Encourage the use of social networks. (*Teacher B: r24, T1*)

As expressed in the above quote, teacher B is of the opinion that communication technology and visual aids are of prime importance and can engender positive impact in students' lives. Using the internet to navigate, chat, skype, and many other options can be done at one finger click from where you are. In today's world, the principle goal of the teaching job is no longer to distribute facts but to help students learn by themselves how to get profit from the multimedia to develop their abilities to communicate, think critically, solve problems, make informed judgments, and create knowledge that benefits both the students and society.

- *Students*

Students seem to share the belief of teacher B and valued the role of the new technology which, in their view, brings change in teacher methodology through its integration in the classroom.

Student I said:

We need the new technology in our lessons, a film projection about an important topic in our study career. (*Student I: r15, S1*)

Student K underlines the use of high technology and internet in order to shift from the traditional methodology of teacher centredness.

He said:

The teaching practices must change from the classical methods using technology...and internet to avoid boring activities. (*Student K: r18, S1*)

Student H is no exception, she highlights the role of technology and she introduces the notion of ‘good’ equipment without further specifications. She might be thinking about laboratory equipments such as: Head phones, video projectors, data shows, etc...

She said:

...To use new technology and to have good equipment. (*Student H: r16, SI*)

Another theme that appeared to be fundamental and emerged from teachers interviews is students’ emotion. To the mind of teachers, students can be motivated to study and learn the language when they like and appreciate what they are doing, when teachers cater for their emotional aspects.

- *Teachers*

Teacher B said:

...To be motivated you have to like, appreciate, respect...the most important strategy is to consider students as human beings carrying with them the cultural and emotional aspects of the language. We have to consider learners as social and cognitive beings. Learners are no longer seen as cognitive but rather as emotional ones! That means we look for desire! What do they like. (*Teacher B: r26, T1*)

Teacher B’s perception portrays the idea that students’ emotional state is the impetus that pushes them to be motivated and study regardless of their cognitive abilities. Yet, teachers need to target the souls of students and opt for all what can make them like, desire and appreciate to study the language. As for teacher F, she agrees with teacher B by saying:

The learning atmosphere and the emotional climate are important to motivate students. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

Teacher C is viewing students' motivation in terms of the interaction that takes place between the teachers and the students based on one main principle considering students as 'Humans' who commit mistakes, who come up to the class with hopes, wishes, wants, desires and dreams to be fulfilled with the help of the teacher.

She said:

The way you interact with your students as humans is very important. When you know how to communicate with them, you can motivate them. (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

She later concluded by saying:

Students hate to be taught in a mechanical robot way. They hate to have a static teacher! So, we have to be human in our teaching! (*Teacher C: r22, T1*)

Teacher F is introducing a very important concept that has to do with students' emotional side, empathy. When teachers understand their students' feelings and share them, they become significantly influencing and cause change in the lives of their students.

She said:

Empathy of the teacher becomes a significant factor influencing [the students'] motivation. (*Teacher F: r16, T1*)

7.2.2. Emergent Themes Summary

Teachers and students appear to underscore the impact of using the high technology in motivating students though it bears emphasising that one and only one teacher evoked this point amongst the interviewed ones. Although students' were brief in their expressions but they underlined the importance of the internet and communication technology as a new way to cut off with the old and traditional teaching methodology. As for students' emotional aspects, teachers were the only ones that brought into question this theme and its influence on students' motivation. Teachers placed focus on considering students as human beings first who are subjected to committing mistakes and changing mood. Besides, students are no longer seen as cognitive members but rather as social and more importantly as emotional individuals carrying hopes and lacks, desires and dreams to be accounted for by teachers in order to succeed in motivating them.

Conclusion

The interpretation of the qualitative data of all the participants is presented in this chapter. The main findings unveil that both teachers and students recognise the motivating potential of all the examined scales. Many similarities and some dissimilarities in terms of their perceptions related to specific motivational themes have emerged. In terms of dissimilarity, students accord importance to group work scale, however teachers minimise its role by justifying that it needs certain conditions. Another area of mismatch can be noticed in the way students and teachers regard tasks in motivating students. Teachers stress on providing clear instruction and explanation while students pointed to the content of tasks. They stated tasks should be interesting and varied. Another example of difference in participants' views towards the same scale in terms of the motivational strategies to be used is in teacher behaviour scale. Both participants agree to place value on it, but students

appear to emphasise on the social aspects as feeling relaxed and enjoying the class in order to participate fully, while teachers stress on academic achievement. Similarities in the underlying beliefs behind motivation can be found in most scales, too. It is useful to note here that even with the similarities there are different levels of importance, usually with one party according more importance to the motivational strategies than the other.

Having examined all quantitative and qualitative data in Chapters 5, 6, and 7, the main findings relating to the perceptions of both teachers and students about motivational strategies and how they understand FL motivation have emerged. As has been previously stated, there are some similarities among the views of the participants, but also clear differences are apparent. In the following chapter, the main findings of both qualitative and quantitative data are integrated and discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents as outlined a discussion of the main findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data, which have been uncovered in the three previous Chapters 5, 6, and 7. The first part of the chapter yields an overview of participant views about motivational strategies. Next, it discusses the EFL students' perceptions about motivational strategies. Equally, it is followed by a discussion of EFL teachers' views. Finally, the participant views will be summarised. As has been cited previously, FL teachers and students hold similar and disparate perceptions of the motivational strategies that FL teachers may use in the FL classroom, and the intersection of the two sets of beliefs has impacts on language learning and the effectiveness of instruction.

8.1. Teacher and Student Perceptions of Motivational Strategies

The findings disclose that both teachers and students place more emphasis on the teacher role in motivating students. Teachers appear to value their role in motivating students, and students also perceive this role to be crucial in motivating them in the FL classroom. In fact, the teachers' role in motivating students is largely reported in the literature (e.g., Brophy, 2004; Dörnyei, 2001a). Other researchers have revealed the positive relationship between the teachers' use of motivational strategies and enhancing student motivation (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskowsky et al., 2013).

Though teachers and students alike hold the role of the teacher in motivating students in a high regard, they seem to differ in their perceptions when probing their data very closely. These dissimilarities are interpreted in terms of the salience the participants place on a particular strategy in terms of how important they perceive it when compared with a different strategy on the same scale. Such differences point to teachers and students perceptions of FL/L2 motivation, and the strategies which lead to it.

In the following sections, the findings which unveil the differences between teacher and student perceptions towards motivational strategies will be tackled.

8.1.1. Student Perceptions about Motivational Strategies

One of the findings of this study is that the students' views about motivational strategies reflect their underlying beliefs about motivation and that these beliefs are set within a social perspective on language learning. Their motivation seems to be influenced by social processes of learning. The social outcomes of learning also seem to affect their motivation in a positive way. In the quantitative data, students tend to express more importance towards the motivational strategies which relate to the social aspects of learning, and those which promote participation, interaction, and involvement.

The qualitative data also shows that the students often associate the use of motivational strategies with social outcomes and frequently use words such as 'express', 'interaction' and 'participate' when talking about their experience and perceptions. Students expressed high importance towards the examined scales in terms of being motivational, but their reasons behind these beliefs differ from those of the teachers. For example, students highly regard the motivational strategies which relate to creating a pleasant classroom and promoting their confidence. This appears to be because such strategies allow them to feel more included, and to participate and interact in the class,

which eventually promotes their FL motivation. They also appreciate the impact of teacher behaviour on their motivation in terms of the interaction they have in the class, and on their enjoyment and mood within the class.

Students are also more motivated by receiving recognition for their efforts and being given feedback about how to improve in their studies, and they show and explain how this will encourage them to engage more fully in classroom activities, which motivates them more. These activities should be useful to the students in their daily lives and involve social topics which are relevant to them in order to sustain their engagement in the class, and encourage them to interact and participate.

These findings indicate as well that students recognise the role their learning experience in class plays in motivating them, and the use of motivational strategies which relate to this area. This is consistent with a number of previous studies which found that L2 learning experience is one of the strongest motivators for L2 students (e.g., Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Islam et al., 2013).

In terms of FL classroom learning experience, this study shows that the students want their experience to be social in nature and related to promoting interaction, participation, engagement and using relevant tasks. These findings are supported by previous research which highlights the importance of the social aspects of learning. Social interaction in the classroom plays a role in allowing students to demonstrate their competence in FL and this experience of achievement is one of the foundations of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Students' qualitative data revealed that they appear to view the motivational power of a pleasant classroom atmosphere in fostering the social and interactive nature of the lessons in terms of facilitation, understanding, participation, expression, progression, and learning as well as FL use to communicate with FL speakers.

The results are interesting in terms of how important students place value on the teacher behaviour in the classroom. They focus also on how mistakes help them in a social way as it increases their confidence to participate and involve them in the class. It seems that participation and involvement in class are key indicators of learner confidence in this context which maintain the FL motivations of students. There appear to be clear differences behind the perceptions of teachers and students about the motivational factors of learner confidence. While teachers talk about building confidence in order to achieve academic goals, students refer to how feeling confident allows them to participate, be involved and interact in the class.

Another salient finding shows that although students acknowledge the importance of academic and professional outcomes for their motivation, students' perceptions about motivational strategies are more strongly framed in terms of their future social outcomes. These students seem to have a balanced view of future outcomes, but they lean towards the social outcomes, such as the use of the FL when travelling abroad, the use of the FL to communicate with FL speakers, and to use the internet.

The students' motives for learning English appear to have close links with both 'Ideal L2 self' and 'Instrumental motivations'. This result then indicates that students strongly value the motivational strategies which relate to promoting their visions of their future Ideal L2 self. Students and teachers appear to agree in terms of 'Ideal L2 self' in creating an image of themselves in the future related to academic achievement, further study and professional achievements as well. Interestingly, some students wanted to be among the large population of English speakers to interact with other FL/L2 speakers in the future.

It seems possible that this result is due to a number of factors, including the increased use of English as an international language of communication (Yashima, 2002). It has also been indicated that the advancements in technology, and in particular social technology, could have a key role in shaping the identity and motivation of FL/L2 learners, as they have access to a wide range of authentic resources and they interact using English.

All these factors which relate mainly to globalisation and the advancements of social technology could influence student motivation to learn English since they favour future outcomes which are related to Ideal L2 self.

8.1.2. Teacher Perceptions about Motivational Strategies

As was found with the students, the teacher beliefs towards motivational strategies also represent their underlying beliefs about L2 motivation. Conversely, students' focus was on social aspects, the teachers value academic achievement and future learning outcomes. The teachers tend to favour motivational strategies which focus mainly on the future academic outcome for the students. In the quantitative data, the strategies towards which they expressed more importance are mostly related to how such strategies will meet the academic outcomes for students. They valued strategies which are related to teacher led, task and classroom-based. The teacher commitment in delivering the lesson, giving clear instructions, providing guidance about how to do the task and helping the students succeed are crucial motivational practices that motivate students. It can be said that teachers see in the way they present the task a powerful tool to raise their students' interest in doing the activity and yet expect them to fulfill the task and make them progress in their learning peculiarly for the strategies that focus on varying the activities, selecting interesting tasks, choosing interesting topics, and offering a variety of materials.

The qualitative data also supports this argument as, when talking about motivational strategies, the teachers often associate the strategies with the learning outcomes using words such as ‘progress’, ‘learn’, ‘improve’, and ‘understand’. A significant finding is that, although teachers and students often agree in terms of strategies, their underlying beliefs as to why these strategies are motivating differ between the two groups. The quantitative findings reveal that the teachers value the role of motivational strategies which relate to students autonomy, demonstrating proper teacher behaviour, building their students’ confidence, and using motivating tasks.

These results appear to be similar to the students’ results, but the qualitative data indicate that they seem to aim to motivate the students to learn, work hard, study and improve. This picture once again, supports their underlying perception of motivation in terms of academic progress and achievement for the future. In addition, the teachers talk about reducing anxiety and building confidence. Furthermore, learner autonomy was viewed only in terms of self-study with learning outcomes. In addition to the academic outcomes, teachers also consider the role of the professional outcomes, such as finding a job, motivating for students. This view influences their beliefs about motivational strategies, as they favour the strategies which lead to academic and professional achievement. Previous research , as reported previously in Chapter 3, has revealed that motivational strategies related to ‘increasing learner confidence’ and ‘presenting tasks in a motivational way’ are among the top five most used motivational are perceived as important in Hungary, Taiwan, and South Korea (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013). One possible interpretation may be that these strategies indicate focus on the learning processes in class which lead to academic outcomes.

So far, the differences between teacher and student beliefs have been discussed in terms of all the examined scales. In the following section, the results of scales which show the most significant difference between teacher and student beliefs toward motivational strategies will be discussed in more detail; these are ‘Group work’, ‘Autonomy’, and ‘Task’.

8.1.3. Group Work

The findings of the ‘Group work’ scale reveal a significant difference in teachers’ and students’ viewpoints. Contrary to students who were the only ones who favoured this scale, all the teachers believed that creating a group work is not a motivating teaching practice. In fact, there is a divide in teachers and students perceptions. The students appear to hold group work in high regard, as they believe that it contributes to strengthening social aspects between students in class, however the teachers seem to have the opinion that group work can have the opposite impact causing problems between members who feel they are being taken advantage of or feel that other students are not co-operating or rather dominating the group.

Additionally, in the eyes of teachers, the problem with group work resides in the fact that it is not that easy to set it and succeed in achieving positive academic outcomes. This discloses that teachers ignore to a certain extent the conditions or norms that guide or rather frame the setting of group work to make it successful. To students’ minds, organising group guarantees to some degree certain confidence, solidarity, information sharing, and the establishment of student ties and new relationships. According to students, group work is an area for promoting interaction between group members and appears to be more social.

Students focus on the importance and motivating aspects of using group work, in terms of the social interaction taking place and the process itself. This idea appears to be supported by the students' comments in the qualitative results. Group work has been studied by many researchers and often referred to as a way to promote cooperative learning which has been found to be of great benefit to students.

Some research has indicated that students feel comfortable when participating in group work activities (Young, 1991). This could suggest that teachers are setting up groups and simply expecting the members to work together and to interact without considering the establishment of rules to ensure participation and cooperation from all group members. Such rules are beneficial to include in the early life of the group (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). Another method for improving the use of group work is for teachers to teach students the principles of cooperative skills, such as understanding the value of group work, in order to achieve group goals. The lack of clear norms and structures in group work along with designed tasks which are achievement-oriented, and which therefore might not promote the interaction between the group members, could offer explanations as to why the teachers' and students' beliefs differ in terms of learner group motivation and in particular group work. It is worth mentioning that the quantitative data disclosed teachers and students holding group work in low regard by including it in the bottom rated scales.

8.1.4. Autonomy

The quantitative results reveal that the scale of Learner autonomy was more favoured by teachers than students. As for teachers, the findings of the scale Learner autonomy indicate that autonomy is crucial and allows students to practice what they have already learnt even in real life situation but autonomy as well necessitates certain degree of responsibility and self-study on the part of the student simply because language learning is

too complex and varied. Students cannot learn all what they need inside the classroom walls. Teachers, in terms of the qualitative data, show their understanding of learner autonomy in relation to motivation as a strategy which helps students to study independently outside the classroom to learn and progress in the FL. Teachers indicated that students' over reliance on the teacher or teacher-led learning prevent them from being independent in their learning. Learner autonomy is an area which includes student involvement in the learning process. In students' perceptions, it is the teacher's job to make them autonomous but they did not include any details on how this should be done except for requesting certain freedom in their learning. An explanation to this could be that students are to some extent conditioned by the educational culture in which students have studies. That is autonomy is not considered as a desired characteristic and yet students are not accustomed to self study and self- directed learning. The quantitative data show as well that teachers accord high importance to students' autonomy and as a matter of fact they ranked it at the top.

Though students' autonomy contributes in developing the social aspects of learning as allowing active participation and guarantees certain freedom and has a positive impact on students' motivation, students argued that it is the teacher's duty to make them autonomous learners. This finding seems to run in the opposite direction of what has been found in different research studies (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013) conducted in the Asian context, namely Taiwan and South Korea. These studies reveal that the Learner autonomy scale was perceived as the least important by the EFL teachers. Equally important, Alrabai's (2011) study revealed that encouraging students' autonomy was seen as the least important and underutilised strategy by teachers.

It should be noted, as appeared in the qualitative results, teachers emphasised students' autonomy as a crucial element to make students responsible for their own learning, however, it necessitates from them to have certain basis that allows them to be autonomous. That is some barriers affect the teachers' ability to implement autonomy strategies such as students' level of proficiency, the curriculum, the absence of self-directed learning as cited or may be other reasons.

8.1.5. Task

Though teachers and students alike placed value on task scale and ranked it amongst the five top scales as unveiled in the quantitative results, a close inspection of this scale in terms of the qualitative data revealed that it can be an area of mismatch in the views of teachers and students about the motivating factors of using tasks. Surprisingly, students delved into more detail about how the tasks and their content can be motivating than teachers. In their views, tasks should involve relevant topics to interaction and participation. It can be seen once again that the students give much more importance to the social aspects surrounding language learning. However, teachers accord more importance to presenting tasks properly, providing clear instruction and including more explanation. This means that teachers are more interested in the outcome of the task rather than the task itself. It has been pointed out that tasks are key elements in rising students' motivation particularly when attention is paid to its structure and design. In this vein, Good (1983 cited in Ames, 1992:263) stated that "A central element of classroom learning is the design of tasks and learning activities. Students' perceptions of tasks and activities not only influence how they approach learning; these perceptions also have consequences for how they use available time." In fact, tasks should carry certain characteristics that allow them to be a powerful tool in activating students' motivation. In this respect, Ames said' tasks

that involve variety and diversity are more likely to facilitate an interest in learning and a mastery orientation.”(1992:263).

8.1.6. Summary

To recap the findings discussed in this chapter, it may be useful to imagine a scale indicating teacher and student beliefs towards motivational strategies and their understanding of what contributes to L2 motivation. On one side of the scale are the academic aspects of motivation and on the other are the social aspects of motivation. It can be seen that the teachers’ beliefs lie much more strongly on the side of academic rather than social aspects of motivational strategies. The two areas in terms of academic achievement are outcomes and processes, with the outcomes being the most influential for the teachers. The learning process, in terms of the teachers’ beliefs are linked to the outcomes as they determine the motivational strategies used during the learning process.

On the social side of the scale the outcomes and learning processes are present, but are given much less importance by the teachers. Students’ scale contains the same headings and elements as the teachers, but the weighting is different, with the students clearly favouring the opposite side of the scale from the teachers. The students are more in favour of the social than the academic aspects of motivational strategies. Most important for the students is the process of learning, which promotes social aspects of learning such as participation, interaction and involvement. This process of learning could be motivating on its own and it does not need to be linked to future outcomes. Students appear to be more motivated by the strategies which contribute to make the learning interesting and enjoyable in the classroom, and help them to use English outside classroom.

So far, the main findings of the quantitative and qualitative data have been discussed in this chapter. These are related to the mismatch in the viewpoints of EFL

teachers and students, which appears to be linked to the process and the outcomes of FL/L2 learning. The difference in participant perception is also related to the nature of motivational strategies, whether they are socially or academically oriented. Having discussed and summarised the main findings of the study, the following sections include some theoretical and pedagogical implications, discussion of the study limitations, and suggestions for future research.

8.1.7. Section One: Theoretical Implications

The findings of the study can add substantially to our understanding of L2 motivation from the perspectives of both EFL teachers and students in the Algerian context. With relation to Dörnyei's and Csizér's (1998) conceptualisation of L2 motivation, both teachers' and students' perceptions of motivational strategies clearly relate to the conceptual domains that emphasise on teacher behaviour, students' autonomy, task, self-confidence and students' interest. Teachers seem to value the motivational strategies that lead to academic outcomes while students accord high importance to the motivational strategies that relate to social outcomes and see the process as a means to reach such outcomes. As for displaying appropriate teacher behaviours, this result replicates that found in previous studies in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), and the USA (Ruesch et al., 2012) and in Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013). Two constituent microstrategies in this key area were highly endorsed by the surveyed teachers and students in our research. From the teachers' and students' point of view, some of the most powerful and influential motivational tools may well consist of being committed to helping students succeed, and behaving naturally and genuinely. This macrostrategy seems to transfer across a variety of cultural contexts. As for motivational strategies relating to presenting and selecting tasks properly and rising students' interest, the present study's

results seem to replicate as well that found in previous studies as in Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013).

Some findings are contrary to Dörnyei's (2001) theory, which stipulates that "creating a positive classroom climate" together with its correlates, "promoting learner group cohesiveness" and "establishing constructive group norms" are basic motivational conditions. Conversely, it appears to run in the same vein of that found in Guilloteaux's (2013) study of Korean teachers. As well as similarities between the studies, differences can also be found which indicate that some strategies are more culture or context-specific. For "promoting autonomy," the result is similar to that found in Hungry (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) while it differs from that in Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) and in Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013). Further attention and exploration are needed in this area.

8.1.8. Section Two: Pedagogical Implications

Some implications for English language teachers are suggested in this section. The current study has highlighted a gap between teachers and students in their understanding of what is motivating for students in the FL/ L2 classroom. This gap is expected due to the different roles of teachers and students in the learning process. However, by filling this gap and addressing this lacuna, the teachers could help in achieving the high levels of student FL/L2 motivation.

EFL teachers might unconsciously focus on the motivational strategies which have a direct influence on student FL/L2 achievement. Instead, EFL teachers should have a balanced view about what motivates their students. They could, for example, consider the learning outcomes and adapt the activities to create more interaction and promote participation whilst working towards the learning outcome. Furthermore, the findings of this study suggest that teachers need to be aware of the views of the students in terms of

what actually motivates them instead of what teachers think is motivating. Consideration should be given to the students' needs for more socially interactive aspects, for their motivation both in the 'L2 learning experience' and the 'Ideal L2 Self'. Learning more about student motivation could be achieved in the form of questionnaires and feedback from the students. It could also be accomplished by creating an open dialogue between students and teachers and allowing students to express their genuine beliefs towards their own L2 motivation and what can promote it.

There are implications here for teacher. These include introducing the idea of learning for interaction and social reasons early in teachers' initial training, instead of focussing solely on the tasks and how to deliver the lesson content. Teacher should include a wide range of information on what motivates students to learn, and how students learn languages through interaction. In this global age, students are clearly focussing on social interaction, travel and the use of English in real life situations of communication. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to how this motivates students more than academic achievement. Currently, teachers seem to deliver the course, focussing on their own behaviour and the organisation within the classroom, but giving less thought to the idea of the students as individuals within a social context with needs and preferences relating to learning process, interaction with their teachers and other class members, and social interactions outside the classroom.

Students also seem to need English outside classroom. Recognising students' needs in a globalised world might allow teachers to develop a different perspective and help to broaden their underlying beliefs of L2 motivation to include 'social interaction' as well as 'academic achievement'. Such a perspective will, therefore, affect the use of motivational

strategies to be more in line with those desired by the students, and so will motivate the students to learn.

The findings also suggest that teachers need to be aware that their own views on what is motivating for the students are not necessarily the same as the students'. In terms of 'Group work', teachers should be aware that simply grouping students together to work on a given task does not necessarily promote the kind of interaction the students are motivated by. They should first set up the ground rules for the group, give clear guidelines about the roles of group members and train students in how to work together and collaborate. The task itself should also be addressed so that teachers use group work with the outcomes being that of social interaction through language use, as well as the completion of a learning based task.

Finally, although the teachers might face many barriers to use motivational strategies, such as imposed curricula as reported by some researchers such as Brophy (2004), they should try to work within these restraints to recognise any areas which could provide opportunities for the students to have more autonomy. For example, the students may not be able to choose the objectives of the lesson as these will have been decided by the curriculum. It is challenging for teachers to give students what they do not have. As well as allowing the teachers more autonomy, training and support should be offered to teachers to develop their understanding of fostering different approaches of autonomous learning in the L2 classroom in order to promote L2 motivation.

8.1.9. Section Three: Limitations of the Study

In this section, a number of limitations need to be stressed. The first limitation of the study lies in examining ten scales. Investigating more scales in the study as a whole could have allowed more focussed answers in the participants' beliefs about L2

motivation. Moreover, the list of strategies used in the study is not exhaustive; there were many other strategies that were not considered. Secondly, the current study was carried out in one university and only a small number of teachers and students were interviewed. Having interviewed more teachers and students would have yielded more data and hence more views. Finally, the findings of this study depend on the sociocultural milieu in which teachers and students are located, yet they may not necessarily represent the beliefs of teachers and students in other contexts. Hence, they cannot be generalised. Another limitation can be attributed to the verification of the frequency of using these motivational strategies and determine their utilisation or underutilisation in the FL classroom. Despite the limitations of the study, it can serve as an initial basis for initial research on the use of motivational strategies.

8.1.10. Section Four: Suggestions for Future Study

In a theoretical level, for better understanding of FL/L2 motivation, it would be important for future research to conduct longitudinal research to examine the internalisation of instrumental motivation for FL/L2 learning. The present study as it seems does not cover all possible researchable features regarding the issue of motivational strategies since one of its limitations was its limited context, further research could investigate the use of motivational strategies in a significant number of universities in our country. Future research could expand the research scope of this study by investigating the effectiveness of the motivational strategies doing longitudinal studies. Further investigations are needed to examine the motivational effects of using strategies related to group work, task, and Learner autonomy from the perspectives of both EFL teachers and students. In terms of group work, future study needs to examine whether group work is considered, as was found in this study, less motivational for teachers and why this may be

the case. Future research could examine the discrepancy between teacher and student beliefs towards the motivational power of using strategies related to task and Learner autonomy.

Generally, further research needs to be done to examine the perceptions of EFL teachers and students about FL/L2 motivation and what contribute to it. Such research should be conducted in a wide range of contexts with participants from different educational contexts, for example primary, intermediate and secondary, in order to obtain valid data which could contribute to our understanding of FL/L2 motivation. In terms of methodology, the quantitative instruments in future studies could include a comparison scale between opposing motivational strategies which would require the participants to choose the area they value as most important. In addition, using more in depth qualitative research method could provide more opportunities to further understand the complex nature of FL/L2 motivation. A final suggestion for future research would be to study the role of actual self in motivating students, in terms of what the students need in the everyday language classroom to enhance their motivation. How does the teacher's motivational teaching practice affect the students' classroom motivation in terms of the level of their attention, participation, and volunteering? Future research could include additional institutions and larger numbers of students and teachers. By expanding the number of participants, analyses could also take into consideration variables such as language of instruction, language level. As this study demonstrates, Algerian teachers could benefit from placing more emphasis on strategies related to teacher behaviour, students' autonomy, Task, and self-confidence. Students indicate that they are more motivated when they know why they are engaging in the tasks that the teacher assigns and how the task contributes to their learning. Overall, the results of this study indicate that language teachers should focus on setting a positive example (Teacher), building a solid

rapport with students (Rapport), creating a pleasant relaxed atmosphere in the classroom (Climate), and making sure that students understand the tasks in which they are engaging (Task). As teachers concentrate on teaching practices related to these macrostrategies, students will feel more motivated in the foreign language classroom. Also, if teachers are concerned about fostering student motivation, it appears they do not need to emphasise the importance of student effort as much as developing a relationship with the students and setting an example with their own positive behaviour.

Students need to understand that they are also responsible for their own learning. They should be able to self-regulate their learning in order to be autonomous learners eventually. Teachers have a role in this process of developing autonomy. Teachers may let learners to have choices about many aspects of the learning such as, discussion topics, strategies to accomplish tasks, or finding learning materials from internet or other resources. Teachers can also help students set realistic long and short term goals. They may teach students to self-assess their own progress towards these goals. They can help students to think about not just what they are learning but also the ways they are learning something. They can provide opportunities for students to use learning strategies and reflect on the effectiveness of such strategies. Teachers can hand over various leadership/teaching roles (e.g. let students lead a discussion, teach students learning strategies, teach students various ways/resources for learning English) by adopting a role as a facilitator and letting students find out answers for some questions from their own resources/internet.

Teachers should encourage learners to be more active, self-engaged, self-directed, and giving them opportunity to ask questions, encouraging them to find answers themselves. To implement those strategies teachers need to decrease their traditional

authority. Building and maintaining rapport assists them to understand students. Teachers also need to understand the teaching context (students' academic background, social/cultural values, availability of teaching facilities) in order to implement motivational teaching strategies effectively.

Conclusion

The main findings of the quantitative and qualitative data are discussed in this chapter. These are related to the mismatch in the viewpoints of EFL teachers and students, which appears to be linked to the process and the outcomes of FL/L2 learning. The difference in participant perceptions is also related to the nature of motivational strategies, whether they are socially or academically oriented. In addition to some theoretical and pedagogical implications, the study limitations are discussed. Finally some lines for future research are suggested.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

In the research at hand, several concepts and theories that highlighted motivation and approached it from many and different angles have been reviewed in addition to tracing back the various changes and shifts that motivational research has undergone from the early and pioneering motivation theories till the recent research studies. Interestingly and in line with the recent research shift in focus and scope to include the students and the crucial role of teachers and the motivational strategies they use to motivate students in the foreign language classroom, the present study underscored the importance of including both teachers' and students' perspectives on classroom practices using a mixed methods research with the aim of examining similarities or any potential mismatches between teachers' and students' perceptions towards motivational strategies use in the university context.

It bears emphasising that the teachers' and students' perceptions and beliefs that were extracted from their questionnaires respectively were organised and presented based on Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) framework of motivational L2 teaching practices. The probed motivational strategies were intended to be broad recommendations as argued by Dörnyei and Csizér rather than perspective rules that every teacher must observe in order to motivate their students.

The results indicated that teachers and students seem to share some similarities as well as some differences. As for the areas of similarities in their views, both of them agree to rank the following scales amongst the five top ones. These are: Teacher behaviour, autonomy, task, self-confidence and interest; while the lowest ranked scales are: Classroom climate, goal, culture, group work, and reward. However, dissimilarity can be noticed in the priority accorded to each scale in terms of importance as explained before

and in more details in Chapter six. The interpretation of qualitative data of all the participants was carried within the L2 motivational teaching practice framework (Dörnyei, 2001a) since most of the emergent themes appeared to fall within its frame. The results unearthed that both teachers and students recognised the motivating potential of all the examined scales and corroborated to a great extent with the quantitative findings. However, in terms of dissimilarity with the quantitative results, students accorded importance to group work scale, however teachers and students themselves minimised its role when surveyed. Yet, this area merits more attention in other future studies.

Another area of mismatch can be noticed in the way students and teachers perceived the motivational strategies and the underlying motives. Students appeared to emphasise on the social aspects, while teachers stressed on academic achievements in using motivational strategies. The beliefs of the teachers appear to be directed by their view that students are motivated by academic achievement and outcomes and, therefore, they believe more strongly in the strategies regarding the learning process which contribute to these outcomes. The students, although they agreed to certain extent, are more motivated by the social process of learning including participation, involvement, and interaction and by more social outcomes.

The divide in teacher and student opinions about motivational strategies was revealed in some of the examined scales. The findings also suggested that motivational strategies may be learned and improved. Hence, teachers are also part of the process to provide better classrooms for teaching and learning. This indicated that teachers will benefit from hearing their students' views about what motivates them in learning English. Involving students provides a balanced vision to teachers' own views and yet help them select or develop strategies that will enhance more students' motivation to learn.

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Appendices

Appendix One

Conceptual Domains /Scales and Micro-Strategies/Items after Item Analysis

Conceptual Domains/Scales	N° of Items	Micro-Strategies/ Items
1. Teacher behaviour	2	2. Show a good example by being committed and motivated to helping the student succeed.
		3. Behave naturally and genuinely in class.
2. Classroom climate	5	5. Create a pleasant atmosphere in class.
		6. Bring in humor, laughter and smile.
		7. Have activities and fun in class.
		8. Have game-like competitions in class.
		12. Develop a good relationship with the students.
3. Task	3	9. Give clear instructions.
		10. Provide guidance about how to do the task.
		11. Clearly state the purpose and utility of every task.
4. Self-Confidence	8	13. Give positive feedback and appraisal.
		14. Make sure that students experience success regularly.
		15. Encourage students.
		27. Share as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible.
		28. Fill the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.
41. Help students realise it's mainly effort that is needed for success.		

		42. Emphasise the usefulness of the language.
		44. Allow students to create products that they can display or perform.
5. Interest	7	18. Select interesting tasks.
		19. Choose interesting topics.
		20. Offer a variety of materials.
		21. Vary the activities.
		22. Make tasks challenging to involve the students.
		23. Build on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.
		24. Raise learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.
6. Autonomy	2	25. Encourage creative and imaginative ideas.
		26. Encourage questions and other contributions from students.
7. Goal	5	29. Help the students develop realistic expectations about learning.
		30. Set up several specific learning goals for the learners.
		31. Increase the group's goal-orientedness.
		32. Tailor instructions to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.
		33. Help students design their individual study plans.
		35. Use authentic materials (i.e. printed or recorded materials that were produced for native speakers rather than students).

8. Culture	2	36. Find penpals or “keypals” (e.g., Internet correspondents) for the students.
9. Group work	4	37. Include group work in class.
		38. Help students to get to know one another.
		39. Participate as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.
		40. Organise extracurricular activities outside of class.
10. Reward	1	43. Give the learners other rewards besides grades.

Appendix Two

Student Pre-Questionnaire

Below are two sections (A & B). Each section includes a list of closed questions about student's motivation. Please decide about each statement in showing your motivation to study the English language in the classroom by putting a cross next to: either 'Yes' / 'No'.

Section A			
Do you feel you are motivated to study the English language because...			
N°	Questions	Yes	No
1	You listen to your teacher in class?		
2	You ask questions during lessons?		
3	You keep eye contact with your teacher?		
4	You carry an activity alone?		
5	You do the activity though it is difficult?		
6	You make more efforts when the teacher praises you?		
7	You respond to an instruction from the teacher?		
8	You participate regularly during lessons?		
9	You select the activity you want to do?		
10	You show interest in the activity?		
11	You repeat what you do in class outside?		
12	You bring with you things related to the lesson?		

Section B			
You don't feel motivated to study the English language because...			
N°	Questions	Yes	No
1	You refuse to do the work?		
2	You feel satisfied with low results?		
3	You work slowly in class?		
4	You never finish your work in class?		
5	You always look for help?		
6	You always need encouragement from the teacher		
7	You avoid eye contact with your teacher to remain unseen?		
8	You give excuses to avoid work?		
9	You jump from one activity to another?		
10	You interrupt the activity?		
11	You work quickly but in a wrong way?		
12	You don't give importance to the teacher's advice?		

Name:

Gender:

Appendix Three

Teacher Semi-Structured Interview

Foreign language teachers are more concerned than ever with students' motivation as one of the most important factors affecting their English language learning, however discussing it is not an easy task. Yet, our interview will be about students' motivation at the level of Souk-Ahras University and more precisely about first year students at the Department of Human sciences. Well, my first question is:

1. How do you describe your students' motivation to learn English?

-

2. Do you think your students like to study the English language? Why?

-

3. Do you think that teachers shoulder certain responsibility in motivating their students?

How?

-

4. Do you perceive any motivational change experienced by your students?

-

5. How do you perceive your students' lack of motivation?

6. Do you think other elements have an influence on the student's classroom learning motivation? State them.

-

7. Is there anything you want to add?

-

Thank You!

Appendix Four

An excerpt from an interview transcription of an EFL teacher

1-How do you describe your students' motivation to learn English?

My students' motivation is so limited since they just limit themselves to the information given in the classroom. They are not interested in the cultural background of the language in which you can find the origins of words, the history that came to define the understanding of many concepts, they believe that only grammar can build their understanding of English in which there are many activities to do, but knowing the culture of the studied language, as well, is an effective way in the process of English learning.

2- Do you think your students like to study the English language? Why?

Yes I do, since there is the sense of sharing the information, they compete in pronunciation, which means they are doing their best to deepen their knowledge in phonetics, they do a lot of Oral practice which help them get through oral expression with less difficulty. Also, they are positive towards grammar, they like the varied activities that I give in the classroom which contain pictures, puzzles...

3- Do you think teachers shoulder certain responsibility in motivating their students? How?

Of course, as you know the teacher is responsible for the mood of the classroom where students belong. Here the psychology of the teacher may influence the students' conscious perception and acquisition of the information given in the lesson. The relation between students and teachers must be fairly mutual because if we mark a kind of struggle in their relation, students' reception of the information will move from conscious to unconscious learning in which students feel unable to concentrate, because they were unconscious. Here, as teachers, we must move to psychic motivation aiming to reintegrate the students within the peaceful mood of the classroom.

4-Do you perceive any motivational change experienced by your students?

Motivational change is what evaluates the teachers' capacity within the classroom because we don't expect students to be good all the time or highly motivated; whenever lessons vary, clues of understanding vary and students' need to make more efforts is not always met with acceptance.

5-How do you perceive students' lack of motivation?

Students' lack of motivation is one of the hurdles I'm facing in the classroom. Because, as a teacher, I can't make the lesson all by myself; it would be a failure. Teachers, therefore, must use some integrative motivational strategies that can help students participate, write and practice the language through feedback. Students' low expectancy of success will influence their potential for learning which must be guided by the teacher's enthusiasm toward the language he/she teaching and his/her frequent evaluation of the students' capacity of learning,

6-Do you think other elements have an influence on the student's classroom learning motivation?

-The mood of the classroom

- The effectiveness of the subject given as a lesson and the way the teacher is presenting it.

- Students' negative attitude in the classroom.

7-Is there anything you want to add?

No

Appendix Five

Teacher Questionnaire

Below is a list of motivational strategies for motivating language learners. We would like to ask you to decide about each strategy how important you believe it is in your class. Please note that we are asking your opinion about the potential importance of the techniques even if at present you don't use them.

- Next to each item, please put a cross according to how important you perceive it for your learners' motivation to learn the English language.

		<i>Not important</i>	<i>Somewhat important</i>	<i>Moderately important</i>	<i>Important</i>	<i>Very important</i>
		1	2	3	4	5
1	I properly prepare for the lesson.					
2	I show a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.					
3	I try to behave naturally and am genuine in class.					
4	I am sensitive and accepting as I can be.					
5	I create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.					
6	I bring in humor, laughter and smile.					
7	I have games and fun in class.					
8	I have game-like competition in class.					
9	I give clear instructions.					
10	I provide guidance about how to do the task.					
11	I clearly state the purpose and the utility of every task.					
12	I develop a good relationship with the students.					
13	I give positive feedback and appraisal.					
14	I make sure that students experience success regularly.					
15	I constantly encourage students.					
16	I explain that mistakes are a natural part of learning.					
17	I select tasks that do not exceed the learners' competence.					
18	I select interesting tasks.					
19	I select interesting topics.					
20	I offer a variety of materials.					
21	I vary the activities.					
22	I make tasks challenging to involve the students.					
23	I build on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.					
24	I raise learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.					

25	I encourage creative and imaginative ideas.					
26	I encourage questions and other contributions from the students.					
27	I share as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible.					
28	I fill the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.					

		<i>Not important</i>	<i>Somewhat important</i>	<i>Moderately important</i>	<i>Important</i>	<i>Very important</i>
		1	2	3	4	5
29	I help the students develop realistic expectations about learning.					
30	I set up several specific learning goals for the learners.					
31	I increase the group's goal- orientedness.					
32	I tailor instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.					
33	I help students design their individual study plans.					
34	I familiarise the learners with the culture of the language they are learning.					
35	I use authentic materials.					
36	I find penpals or keypals for the students.					
37	I include group work in class.					
38	I help students to get to know one another.					
39	I participate as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.					
40	I organize extracurricular activities outside class.					
41	I help students realise that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.					
42	I emphasise the usefulness of the language.					
43	I give the learners other rewards besides grades.					
44	I allow students to create products that they can display or perform.					

Name:

Gender:

Teaching experience:

Appendix Six

Student Questionnaire

Below is a list of motivational strategies for motivating language learners. We would like to ask you to decide about each strategy how important you believe it is in your class. Please note that we are asking your opinion about the potential importance of the techniques even if at present you don't use them.

- Next to each item, please put a cross according to how important you perceive it for your learners' motivation to learn the English language.

		<i>Not important</i>	<i>Somewhat important</i>	<i>Moderately important</i>	<i>Important</i>	<i>Very important</i>
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The teacher properly prepares for the lesson.					
2	The teacher shows a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.					
3	The teacher tries to behave naturally and is genuine in class.					
4	The teacher is sensitive and accepting as he/she can be.					
5	The teacher creates a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.					
6	The teacher brings in humor, laughter and smile.					
7	The teacher has games and fun in class.					
8	The teacher has game-like competition in class.					
9	The teacher gives clear instructions.					
10	The teacher provides guidance about how to do the task.					
11	The teacher clearly states the purpose and the utility of every task.					
12	The teacher develops a good relationship with the students.					
13	The teacher gives positive feedback and appraisal.					
14	The teacher makes sure that students experience success regularly.					
15	The teacher constantly encourages students.					
16	The teacher explains that mistakes are a natural part of learning.					
17	The teacher selects tasks that do not exceed the learners' competence.					
18	The teacher selects interesting tasks.					
19	The teacher selects interesting topics.					
20	The teacher offers a variety of materials.					
21	The teacher varies the activities.					
22	The teacher makes tasks challenging to involve the students.					
23	The teacher builds on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.					
24	The teacher raises learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.					

25	The teacher encourages creative and imaginative ideas.					
26	The teacher encourages questions and other contributions from the students.					

		<i>Not important</i>	<i>Somewhat important</i>	<i>Moderately important</i>	<i>Important</i>	<i>Very important</i>
		1	2	3	4	5
27	The teacher shares as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible.					
28	The teacher fills the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.					
29	The teacher helps the students develop realistic expectations about learning.					
30	The teacher set up several specific learning goals for the learners.					
31	The teacher increases the group's goal- orientedness.					
32	The teacher tailors instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.					
33	The teacher helps students design their individual study plans.					
34	The teacher familiarises the learners with the culture of the language they are learning.					
35	The teacher uses authentic materials.					
36	The teacher finds penpals or keypals for the students.					
37	The teacher includes group work in class.					
38	The teacher helps students to get to know one another.					
39	The teacher participates as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.					
40	The teacher organises extracurricular activities outside class.					
41	The teacher helps students realise that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.					
42	The teacher emphasises the usefulness of the language.					
43	The teacher gives the learners other rewards besides grades.					
44	The teacher allows students to create products that they can display or perform.					

Name:

Gender:

Appendix Seven

Internal Reliability of the Scales Investigated in the Study

Scales	Items n°	Whole Sample			Teachers			Students		
		Cases n°	α^1	MI- IC ²	Cases n°	α	MI- IC	Cases n°	α	MI- IC
Teacher behaviour	2	221	0.64	0.2	21	0.67	0.4	200	0.64	0.4
Classroom climate	5	221	0.64	0.2	21	0.75	0.3	200	0.63	0.2
Task	3	221	0.51	0.2	21	0.50	0.2	200	0.50	0.2
Self-Confidence	8	221	0.59	0.2	21	0.65	0.2	200	0.59	0.2
Interest	7	221	0.63	0.2	21	0.78	0.3	200	0.61	0.2
Autonomy	2	221	0.58	0.3	21	0.54	0.3	200	0.58	0.3
Goal	5	221	0.59	0.2	21	0.60	0.2	200	0.59	0.2
Culture	2	221	0.58	0.2	21	0.58	0.2	200	0.58	0.3
Group work	4	221	0.58	0.3	21	0.50	0.1	200	0.58	0.2

Note: 1= Cronbach Alpha, 2= mean inter-item correlation.

Appendix Eight

Teacher semi-structured interview

In fact, when we want to explain any success or failure in 2nd/ FL learning the term motivation emerges and is often used by teachers and students alike. Yet, our interview will be about motivation, motivating students in the foreign language classroom and teachers' impact on students' motivation.

Then, my first question is:

1. How do you usually see/describe your students' motivation to learn English?
-
2. Tell me about the teaching practices you use when you want to motivate your students?
-
3. How do your students react to your motivating teaching practices?
-
4. Do you think these strategies motivate your students to learn English? Why?
-
5. What do you think are the most important and effective motivational strategies? Why?
-
6. Tell me how important are the following motivational teaching practices? Why?
 - a. Creating a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere.
-
 - b. Developing a good relationship with learners.
-
 - c. Teacher behaviour (prominent model in the class)
-
 - d. Setting Goals
-
 - e. Promoting learner autonomy
-
 - f. Presenting tasks in a motivating way
-
 - g. Personalise the learning process. The course should be personally relevant to the learners.
-
 - h. Increasing learner confidence
-
 - i. Including Learner group
-
 - j. Familiarising learners with the target language culture.
-
 - k. Making the language class interesting.
-
 - L. Presenting tasks properly.
-
7. Is there anything you want to add?
-

Appendix Nine

Student Semi-Structured Interview

In fact, when we want to explain any success or failure in 2nd/ FL learning the term motivation emerges and is often used by teachers and students alike. Yet, our interview will be about motivation, motivating students in the foreign language classroom and teachers' impact on students' motivation.

Then, my first question is:

1. How do you usually see/describe your motivation to learn English?
-
2. Tell me about the teaching practices that your teacher uses when he/she wants to motivate you?
-
3. How do you react to his /her motivating teaching practices?
-
4. Do you think these strategies motivate you to learn English? Why?
-
5. What do you think are the most important and effective motivational strategies? Why?
-
6. Tell me how important are the following motivational teaching practices? Why?
 - a. Creating a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere.
-
 - b. Developing a good relationship with learners.
-
 - c. Teacher behaviour (prominent model in the class)
-
 - d. Setting Goals
-
 - e. Promoting learner autonomy
-
 - f. Presenting tasks in a motivating way
-
 - g. Personalise the learning process. The course should be personally relevant to the learners.
-
 - h. Increasing learner confidence
-
 - i. Including Learner group
-
 - j. Familiarising learners with the target language culture.
-
 - k. Making the language class interesting.
-
 - L. Presenting tasks properly.
-
7. Is there anything you want to add?
-

Appendix Ten

An Excerpt from an Interview Transcription of an EFL Teacher

Researcher: How do you usually see/describe your students' motivation to learn English?

Teacher B: We don't have homogeneous students. We have different learners, different kinds of learners who come fed up with different types of motivation: intrinsic, extrinsic...We have those motivated by their parents, those expecting to work later on...those who are intrinsically motivated before starting lectures or before start learning a foreign language. They have already built pre- requisites. So, we have different kinds of motivations as we have got different learners.

Researcher: Depending on what you have already said, tell me about the teaching practices you use when you want to motivate your students?

Teacher B: Of course to motivate them, we have first to set up goals: Improving their pronunciation, learning, language structure, language in general...So, working on these different aspects, we've noticed that we need some extra materials, such as for example new technology, this new virtual world focusing on what may enhance and encourage them to do better. Our objective is just to make them improve and progress in the foreign language. I personally, use different strategies...I tell them it's very important to link the learning with the objectives not with the immediate objectives but the objectives they need in life. We need internet, visual aids for example, videos, movies... Speak the language as it is spoken by native speakers. To their Make their desires grow. Build on emotional aspects. Tell them you can do better. I don't know ...May be one day, one of you will visit a foreign English speaking country or look for a job. It's better to learn the language.

Researcher: How do your students react to your motivating teaching practices?

Teacher B: We have got different reactions as we have different means of motivation and different learners...number one. Learners come in the class with heterogeneous traits...Of

course, how to understand those who want to improve and learn the language. We are just trying to give them opportunity. You just prepare the environment for them to learn. As we have got different learners as we said before...Learners whom you feel want to follow you to improve their language. They got pre-requisites, they are intrinsically motivated, they understand you, they want to progress. But those lacking motivation, they don't understand. You can't play without understanding the rules.

Researcher: What do you think are the most important and effective motivational strategies? Why?

Teacher B: To be motivated you have to like, appreciate, respect. So here making a step forward improving language learning is to put in mind a set of criteria: Motivation is not bound to goals! The gap between motivation and the goal! Materialise your objectives or materialise your motivation to learn a foreign language. It's not only a matter of exams, quizzes and tests. The most important strategy is to consider students as human beings carrying with them the cultural and emotional aspects of the language. We have to consider learners as social and cognitive beings. Learners are no longer seen as cognitive but rather as emotional ones! That means we look for desire! What do they like. We have to analyse their needs and meet them...Do a needs analysis. We set up first the different points that form the structure of the students' personality, then, we have to achieve our goals. Promoting learners personality .Tell them that they are able. Why don't you exhibit your potential. You can do better even if they lack many things. You have to show us the difference. Learners can recover deficiencies in learning a language through giving importance to their personalities.

Researcher: How do you see the impact of classroom climate on your students' motivation?

Teacher B: The top is creating the environment. It's our job to make them learn in the correct way. Make them learn without fear and anxiety. Consider them all the same! We try to give them possibility to learn especially shy learners. Stir up latent knowledge embedded inside them. Make them learn in a better way.

Researcher: What about setting goals? How do you arrange them?

Teacher B: Goals are set up goals beforehand. Learning a foreign language is not limited to the class. It's better to use what they learnt outside...Creating a virtual world. Encourage the use of social networks.

Researcher: Can you say something about the language culture?

Teacher B: Culture is of paramount importance. It helps learners to be autonomous, to discover the others' way of life, customs and traditions.

Researcher: Let us move to group work effect on students' motivation.

Teacher B: is a technique rather than a strategy. Only some aspects can be done! They should be set according to different points and autonomy may be one. It doesn't promote learning. Different members are forming a small learner community. We don't have the conditions or means to make the members profit from one another... always someone is dominating.

Researcher: Self-esteem, how do perceive that?

Teacher B: We have high self-esteem learners and low self-esteem learners. We have to devote sometime for both by giving them extra work opportunity to express themselves.

Researcher: What about tasks, how do you perceive their importance?

Teacher B: Teachers must prepare beforehand. You can't add lip, make instruction clear, and make all students learn. Give them opportunity to develop good relationships and desire to learn, give them books. Ask difficult questions optimise their potential. We have constraints! The syllabus we can't feel free to make them learn what they want.

...Different learners, different needs how to manage and cluster all their needs, converging needs and interests. I am a source of motivation, I provide them with opportunities. I make myself equal to their academic achievements by telling them: you read better than me, Oh! my god you know things, I don't know to commit yourself to implicate yourself. When learners appreciate, you have to promote this like, love, emotion... it all depends on the feedback.

Conclusion:

Researcher: Do you want to conclude with something?

Teacher B: We believe in theory but not in practice. Algeria is not an English speaking country, yet we have to promote the virtual world and offer opportunities for learning.

Researcher: Thank you very much indeed.

Appendix Eleven

An excerpt from an interview transcription of an EFL student

Researcher: How do you usually see/describe your motivation to learn English?

Student I: I love the English language. It's a universal language. I want to improve my level. It's the only passage where I can express myself. It is a rich language.

Researcher: Tell me about the teaching practices that you believe are motivational?

Student I: Group work creates more competition; using a variety of ways to present lessons. Change the method of working in class. Create a happiness atmosphere in class.

Researcher: How do you react to these motivational teaching practices?

Student I: Positive reaction...

Researcher: How do you think these strategies motivate you to learn English? Why?

Student I: Makes me do my best. It gives me a push to research all the time. Enjoy encourage and motivate my curiosity. It would give a good result. Students never get bored from the study. They will enjoy the study if they feel safe with books. It opens discussion between learners. Try to know their think to the courses they have. Discuss the lesson instead of dictating.

Researcher: Tell how important are the following motivational practices? Why?

For example,...creating a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere.

Student I: Gain the learners' confidence. Students will escape from everything to their studies because it's an area where they can speak, dream, learn enjoy and develop the competence of students.

Researcher: What about developing a good relationship with learners.

Student I: teachers should be closer to. Keep in touch with him. Dividing work between teacher and student complementary, make students self confident, be like a guide for them.

Researcher: Let us speak about the teacher behaviour in the class.

Student I: respectful teacher. A self confident teacher dynamic, funny, encouraging students' curiosity, teachers who breaks the ice,... the teacher opens the doors encouraging dreams creating occasions for learners.

Researcher: How about goals?

Student I: learning something new and exploit it in our days a new door to open a new hope born at the end of each day we should know.

Researcher: In your opinion, do you think that tasks are motivating?

Student I: ...change the way giving exams, make exams every month, create competition between students.

Researcher: Can you add some details.

Student I: ...explaining well, Ask the help of others to clarify, Take into consideration students levels.

Researcher: What else?

Student I: ...gives them chance, encourage them, involve the student.

Researcher: What about Group Work?

Student I: A good strategy, Share ideas to avoid the miss lead, a dynamic member will push the other members

Researcher: What about the foreign language culture?

Student I: it's an advantage for learners, Have a look on other cultures, Get a new world through English.

Researcher: How do you see interest during English class?

Student I: dynamic mutual respect make the learner discover and be and curious to learn more leave a question at the end of the session makes students curious...Involve the students, be responsible to look for information respect and value the teacher.

Get out of the classroom routine change roles teacher and student. This gives students courage to prepare them to be future teachers and good citizens.

Researcher: Well, what about the modern Technology? How do you see it?

Student I: The use of the new technology in our lessons, a film projection that treats an important topic in our study career. English helps me to build my world. English makes communication with other countries easier and practice keeping in touch with other cultures.

Appendix Twelve

Student Perceptions

Levels of importance	(1)%	(2)%	(3) %	(4)%	(5)%	Total score	Rank	Mean
Motivational strategies								
1. The teacher properly prepares for the lesson.	0,00	2,50	3,00	36,50	58,00	900	1	4,50
2. The teacher shows a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.	1,50	2,00	3,50	35,50	57,50	891	2	4,46
3. The teacher tries to behave naturally and is genuine in class.	2,00	3,50	12,50	50,00	32,00	813	12	4,07
4. The teacher is sensitive and accepting as he can be.	3,00	4,00	9,50	37,50	46,00	839	6	4,20
5. The teacher creates a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	5,00	7,50	13,50	41,00	33,00	779	21	3,90
6. The teacher brings in humor, laughter and smile.	10,00	14,50	20,50	39,50	15,50	672	34	3,36
7. The teacher has games and fun in class.	43,00	16,50	21,00	15,00	4,50	443	39	2,22
8. The teacher has game-like competition in class.	8,50	18,50	29,50	31,00	12,50	641	36	3,21
9. The teacher gives clear instructions.	1,50	5,00	10,00	49,00	34,50	820	9	4,10
10. The teacher provides guidance about how to do the task.	0,00	4,00	10,50	53,50	32,00	827	8	4,14
11. The teacher clearly states the purpose and the utility of every task.	4,00	5,50	16,50	42,00	32,00	785	19	3,93
12. The teacher develops a good relationship with the students.	5,00	7,50	13,50	32,50	41,50	796	15	3,98
13. The teacher gives positive feedback and appraisal.	5,00	3,00	14,50	45,00	32,50	794	16	3,97
14. The teacher makes sure that students experience success regularly.	2,00	4,50	21,00	45,50	27,00	782	20	3,91
15. The teacher constantly encourages students.	1,00	4,50	8,50	36,00	50,00	859	4	4,30
16. The teacher explains that mistakes are a natural part of learning.	2,00	2,50	8,00	36,00	51,50	865	3	4,33
17. The teacher selects tasks that do not exceed the learners' competence.	6,50	10,50	18,50	39,50	25,00	732	27	3,66
18. The teacher selects interesting tasks.	3,50	4,50	10,50	48,50	33,00	806	13	4,03
19. The teacher selects interesting topics.	1,50	1,00	12,00	45,50	40,00	843	5	4,22
20. The teacher offers a variety of materials.	1,00	7,00	25,00	42,00	25,00	766	22	3,83
21. The teacher varies the activities.	1,00	4,00	14,50	47,50	33,00	815	11	4,08
22. The teacher makes tasks challenging to involve the students.	2,50	4,50	16,00	50,50	26,50	788	18	3,94
23. The teacher builds on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energizer for learning.	4,50	7,00	21,00	38,50	29,00	761	23	3,81
24. The teacher raises learners' curiosity by introducing	5,00	10,50	27,00	41,50	16,00	706	32	3,53

unexpected or exotic elements.

25. The teacher encourages creative and imaginative ideas.	1,50	1,50	18,50	44,50	34,00	816	10	4,08
26. The teacher encourages questions and other contributions from the students.	0,50	3,50	9,00	52,50	34,50	834	7	4,17
27. The teacher shares as much responsibility to organize the learning process with the students as possible.	3,00	6,00	24,00	43,50	23,50	757	24	3,79
28. The teacher fills the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.	3,00	10,50	28,00	40,50	18,00	720	30	3,60
29. The teacher helps the students develop realistic expectations about learning.	2,00	5,00	20,00	42,50	30,50	789	17	3,95
30. The teacher set ups several specific learning goals for the learners.	2,00	10,50	22,00	43,00	22,50	747	25	3,74
31. The teacher increases the group's goal- orientedness.	3,50	8,50	24,50	44,00	19,50	735	26	3,68
32. The teacher tailors instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.	1,50	4,50	17,00	46,00	31,00	801	14	4,01
33. The teacher helps students design their individual study plans.	6,00	7,50	29,50	34,50	22,50	720	29	3,60
34. The teacher familiarises the learners with the culture of the language they are learning.	8,50	6,50	19,00	42,50	23,50	732	27	3,66
35. The teacher uses authentic materials.	8,00	15,50	30,50	32,00	14,00	657	33	3,29
36. The teacher finds penpals or keypals for the students.	21,50	17,50	28,50	27,00	5,50	555	38	2,78
37. The teacher includes group work in class.	3,50	11,00	29,50	31,50	24,50	725	28	3,63
38. The teacher helps students to get to know one another.	15,00	18,00	25,50	27,50	14,00	615	36	3,08
39. The teacher participates as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.	7,00	10,00	22,50	39,00	21,50	716	31	3,58
40. The teacher organises extracurricular activities outside class.	19,50	13,50	24,00	31,50	11,50	604	37	3,02
41. The teacher helps students realise that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.	2,00	5,50	10,00	42,00	40,50	827	8	4,14
42. The teacher emphasises the usefulness of the language.	3,50	7,50	20,50	44,00	24,50	757	24	3,79
43. The teacher gives the learners other rewards besides grades.	15,00	10,00	23,50	37,50	14,00	651	35	3,26
44. The teacher allows students to create products that they can display or perform.	3,00	11,00	27,50	41,50	17,00	717	30	3,59

Appendix Thirteen

Teacher Perceptions

Levels of importance	(1)%	(2)%	(3) %	(4)%	(5)%	Total score	Rank	Mean
Motivational strategies								
1. I properly prepare for the lesson.	0,00	0,00	4,76	28,57	66,67	97,00	1	4,62
2. I show a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.	0,00	4,76	0,00	47,62	47,62	92,00	2	4,38
3. I try to behave naturally and am genuine in class.	0,00	14,29	14,29	47,62	23,81	80,00	12	3,81
4. I am sensitive and accepting as I can be.	9,52	23,81	9,52	33,33	23,81	71,00	19	3,38
5. I create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	9,52	9,52	0,00	42,86	38,10	82,00	11	3,90
6. I bring in humor, laughter and smile.	4,76	19,05	19,05	33,33	23,81	74,00	17	3,52
7. I have games and fun in class.	23,81	28,57	38,10	9,52	0,00	49,00	24	2,33
8. I have game-like competition in class.	4,76	19,05	38,10	33,33	4,76	66,00	20	3,14
9. I give clear instructions.	0,00	0,00	9,52	42,86	47,62	92,00	2	4,38
10. I provide guidance about how to do the task.	0,00	0,00	4,76	61,90	33,33	90,00	4	4,29
11. I clearly state the purpose and the utility of every task.	0,00	0,00	23,81	42,86	33,33	86,00	8	4,10
12. I develop a good relationship with the students.	0,00	9,52	14,29	38,10	38,10	85,00	9	4,05
13. I give positive feedback and appraisal.	0,00	9,52	9,52	33,33	47,62	88,00	6	4,19
14. I make sure that students experience success regularly.	0,00	9,52	38,10	33,33	19,05	76,00	16	3,62
15. I constantly encourage students.	0,00	4,76	4,76	38,10	52,38	92,00	2	4,38
16. I explain that mistakes are a natural part of learning.	0,00	9,52	0,00	42,86	47,62	90,00	4	4,29
17. I select tasks that do not exceed the learners' competence.	4,76	4,76	23,81	42,86	23,81	79,00	13	3,76
18. I select interesting tasks.	0,00	0,00	9,52	57,14	33,33	89,00	5	4,24
19. I select interesting topics.	0,00	4,76	9,52	52,38	33,33	87,00	7	4,14
20. I offer a variety of materials.	0,00	4,76	14,29	57,14	23,81	84,00	10	4,00
21. I vary the activities.	0,00	9,52	0,00	42,86	47,62	90,00	4	4,29
22. I make tasks challenging to involve the students.	0,00	9,52	28,57	33,33	28,57	80,00	12	3,81
23. I build on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energiser for learning.	0,00	9,52	14,29	66,67	9,52	79,00	13	3,76
24. I raise learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.	4,76	9,52	38,10	38,10	9,52	71,00	19	3,38
25. I encourage creative and imaginative ideas.	0,00	0,00	4,76	66,67	28,57	89,00	5	4,24
26. I encourage questions and other contributions from the students.	0,00	0,00	4,76	57,14	38,10	91,00	3	4,33

27. I share as much responsibility to organise the learning process with the students as possible.	4,76	0,00	33,33	42,86	19,05	78,00	14	3,71
28. I fill the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.	4,76	14,29	28,57	42,86	9,52	71,00	19	3,38
29. I help the students develop realistic expectations about learning.	0,00	4,76	28,57	61,90	4,76	77,00	15	3,67
30. I set up several specific learning goals for the learners.	0,00	4,76	28,57	38,10	28,57	82,00	11	3,90
31. I increase the group's goal- orientedness.	0,00	19,05	28,57	47,62	4,76	71,00	19	3,38
32. I tailor instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.	0,00	4,76	19,05	47,62	28,57	84,00	10	4,00
33. I help students design their individual study plans.	9,52	23,81	33,33	19,05	14,29	64,00	21	3,05
34. I familiarise the learners with the culture of the language they are learning.	0,00	4,76	14,29	57,14	23,81	84,00	10	4,00
35. I use authentic materials.	4,76	14,29	14,29	47,62	19,05	76,00	16	3,62
36. I find penpals or keypals for the students.	57,14	23,81	9,52	4,76	4,76	37,00	25	1,76
37. I include group work in class.	4,76	4,76	33,33	52,38	4,76	73,00	18	3,48
38. I help students to get to know one another.	19,05	28,57	38,10	14,29	0,00	52,00	24	2,48
39. I participate as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.	14,29	33,33	9,52	38,10	4,76	60,00	22	2,86
40. I organise extracurricular activities outside class.	19,05	38,10	23,81	9,52	9,52	53,00	23	2,52
41. I help students realise that it is mainly effort that is needed for success.	0,00	9,52	19,05	33,33	38,10	84,00	10	4,00
42. I emphasise the usefulness of the language.	0,00	4,76	4,76	42,86	47,62	91,00	3	4,33
43. I give the learners other rewards besides grades.	9,52	23,81	33,33	33,33	0,00	61,00	21	2,90
44. I allow students to create products that they can display or perform.	0,00	9,52	9,52	71,43	9,52	80,00	12	3,81

Appendix Fourteen

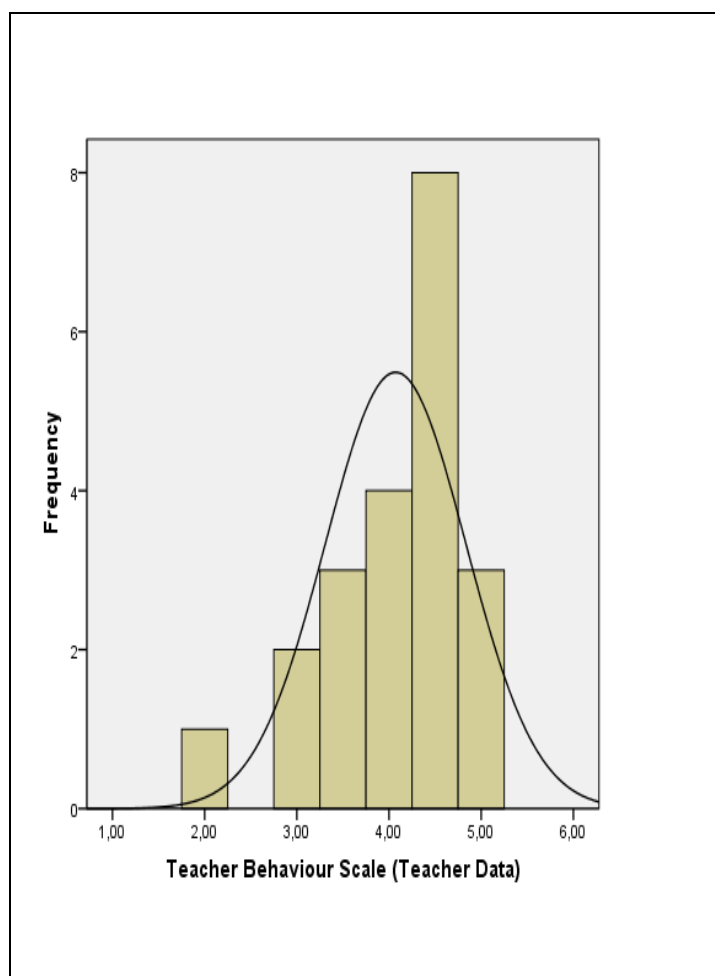
Skewness and Kurtosis Values- Questionnaire Items

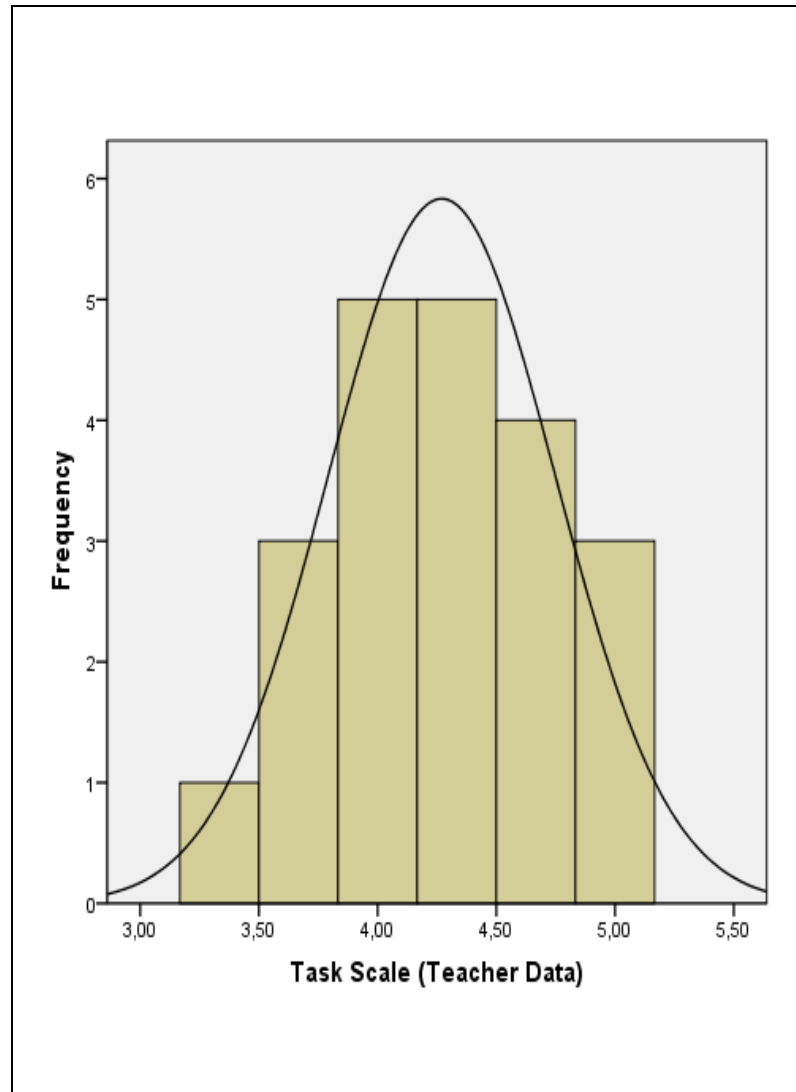
Scales	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Teachers	Students	Teachers	Students
1. Show a good example by being committed to helping the students succeed.	-3.179	-9.273	4.226	9.342
2. Try to behave naturally and be genuine in class.	-.958	-6.593	-.632	5.099
3. Create a pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.	-3.069	-5.866	2.389	1.377
4. Bring in humor, laughter and smile.	-.766	-3.023	-.754	1.938
5. Have games and fun in class.	-.053	3.587	-.986	-2.625
6. Have game-like competition in class.	-.618	-1.441	-.096	-2.102
7. Give clear instructions.	-1.572	-6.098	-.360	.742
8. Provide guidance about how to do the task.	.075	-6.837	-.344	5.000
9. State the purpose and the utility of every task.	-.339	-4.534	-.001	1.923
10. Develop a good relationship with the students.	-1.638	-5.784	.099	2.157
11. Give positive feedback and appraisal.	-2.237	-7.284	-.512	4.388
12. Make sure that students experience success regularly.	.075	-4.662	-.745	1.812
13. Constantly encourage students.	-2.956	-7.662	2.613	5.131
14. Select interesting tasks.	-.141	-7.610	-.102	5.470
15. Choose interesting topics.	-1.870	-6.802	1.364	7.795
16. Offer a variety of materials.	-1.854	-3.302	.956	.105
17. Vary the activities.	-3.253	-5.354	2.549	2.824
18. Emphasise the usefulness of the language.	-2.722	-4.604	2.434	1.046
19. Make tasks challenging to involve the students.	-.568	-5.959	-.900	3.769
20. Build on the learners' interest rather than tests or grades as the main energizer for learning.	-2.013	-4.574	1.378	.505
21. Raise learners' curiosity by introducing unexpected or exotic elements.	-.053	-3.354	.607	.412

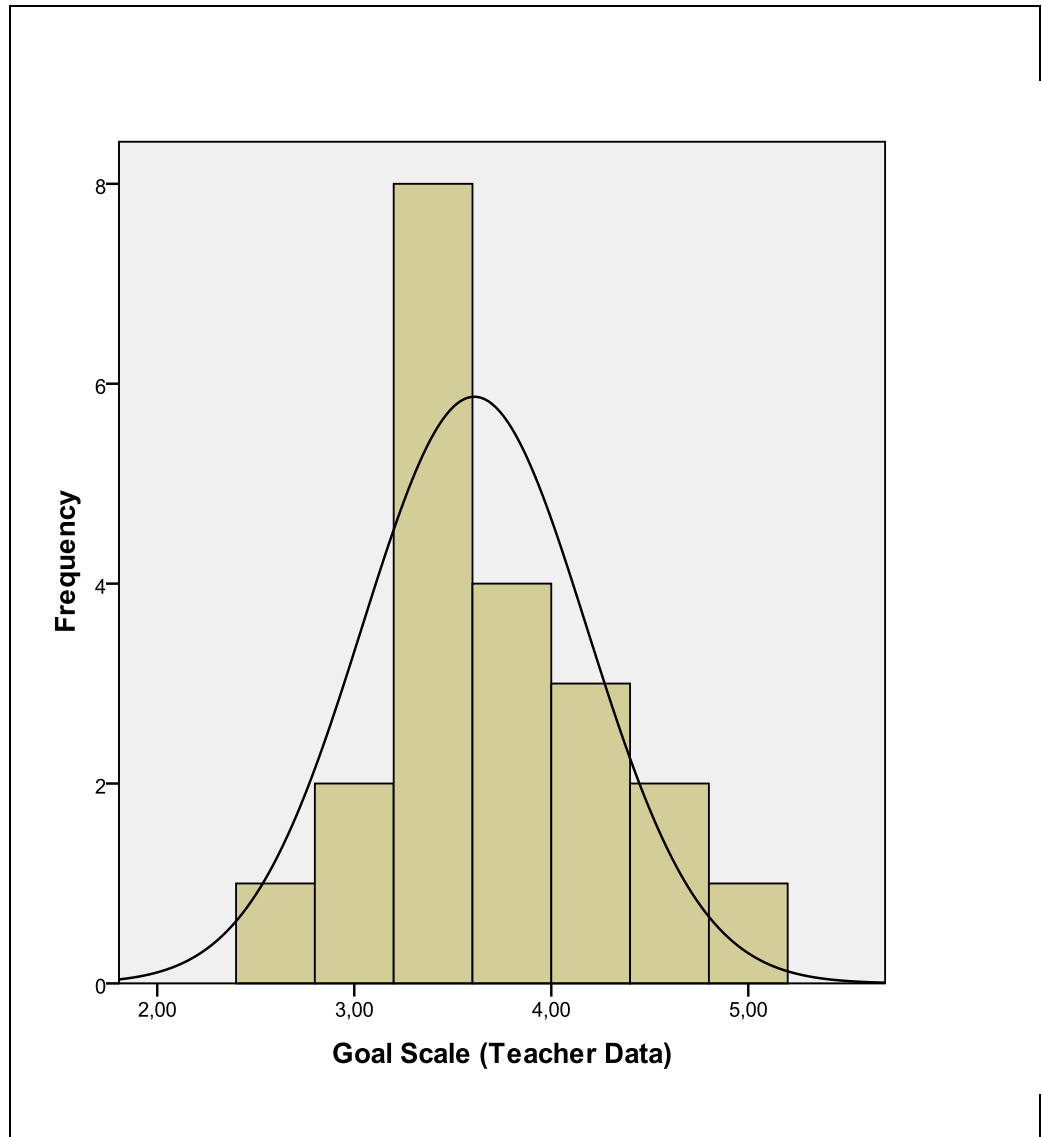
22. Encourage creative and imaginative ideas.	-1.609	-5.395	.089	3.385
23. Encourage questions and other contributions from the students.	3.289	-5.924	2.389	4.584
24. Share as much responsibility to organize the learning process with the students as possible.	-1.746	-4.837	1.967	2.038
25. Fill the task with personal content that is relevant to the students.	-1.141	-2.883	.007	-.596
26. Help the students develop realistic expectations about learning.	-1.375	-5.104	.953	2.064
27. Set up several specific learning goals for the learners.	.542	-3.273	-.738	0.555
28. Help students realize that only effort is needed for success.	-1.323	-7.226	-.552	3.704
29. Increase the group's goal- orientedness.	-.375	-3.877	-.770	.576
30. Tailor instruction to meet the specific language goals and needs of the students.	-1.129	-5.063	.077	2.118
31. Help students design their individual study plans.	.181	-3.476	-.689	-.453
32. Use authentic materials.	-1.608	-1.779	.089	-1.809
33. Find penpals or keypals for the students.	3.289	-.726	2.389	-3.076
34. Include group work in class.	-2.327	-2.720	2.246	-1.377
35. Help students to get to know one another.	-.205	-.860	-.900	-2.821
36. Participate as an ordinary member of the group as much as possible.	-.107	-3.872	-1.403	-.690
37. Organise extracurricular activities outside of the class.	1.375	-1.267	-.126	-3.257
38. Allow students to create products that they can display or perform.	-2.471	-2.982	2.187	.397
39. Give the learners other rewards besides grades.	-.932	67.313	-.794	448.426

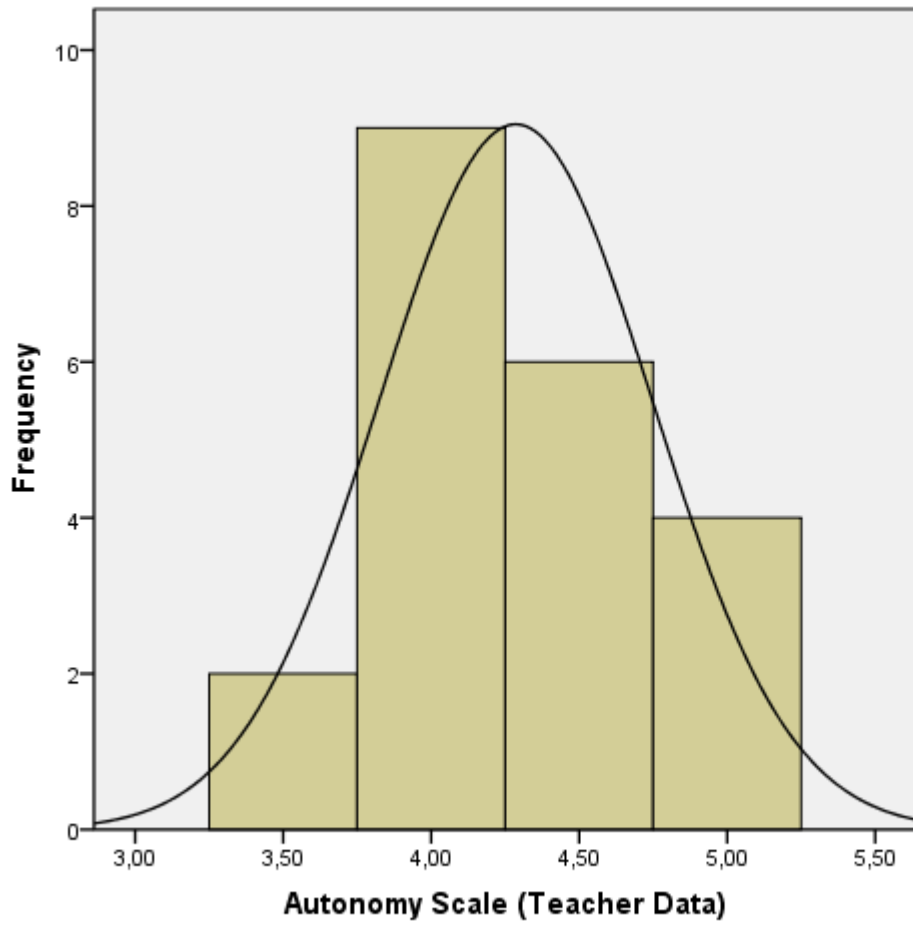
Appendix Fifteen

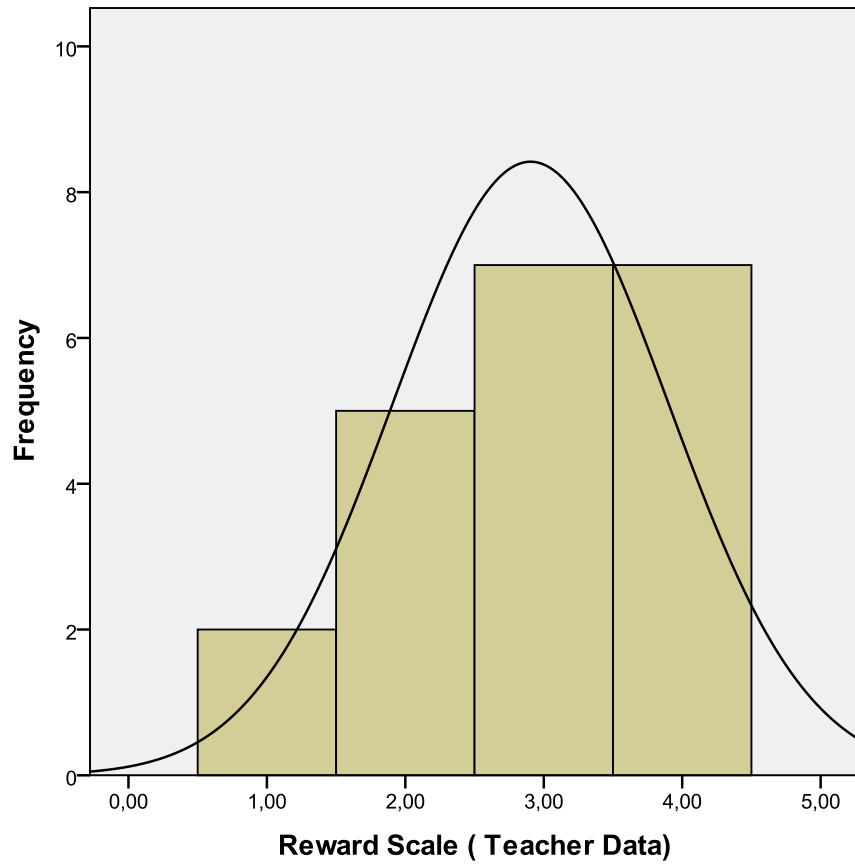
Distribution of Data (10, Scales- Teachers)

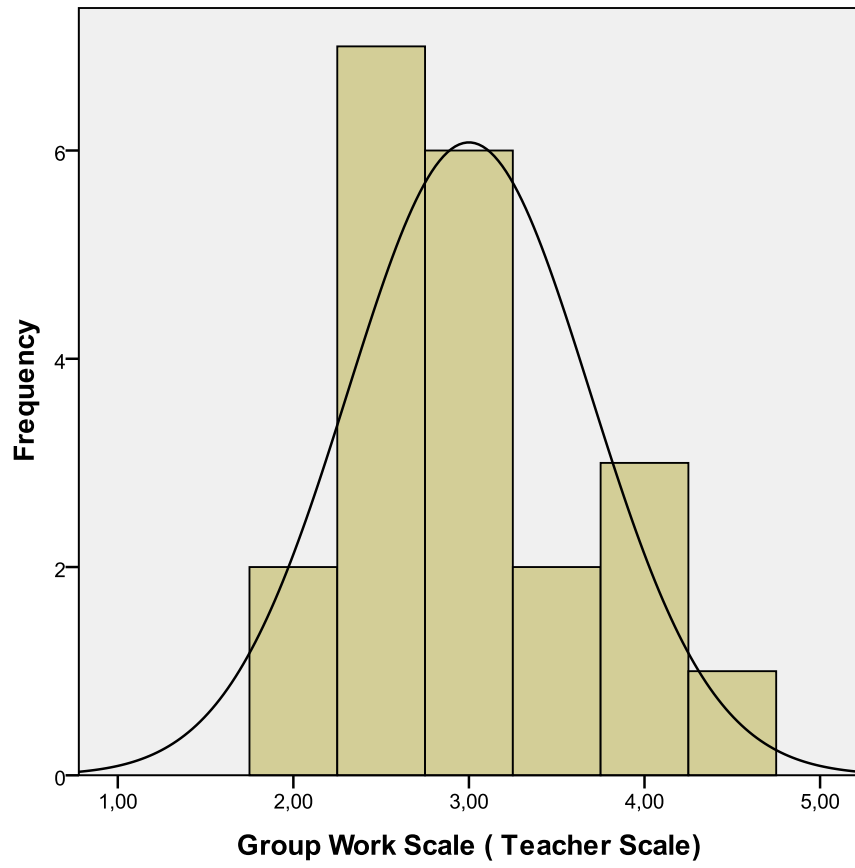


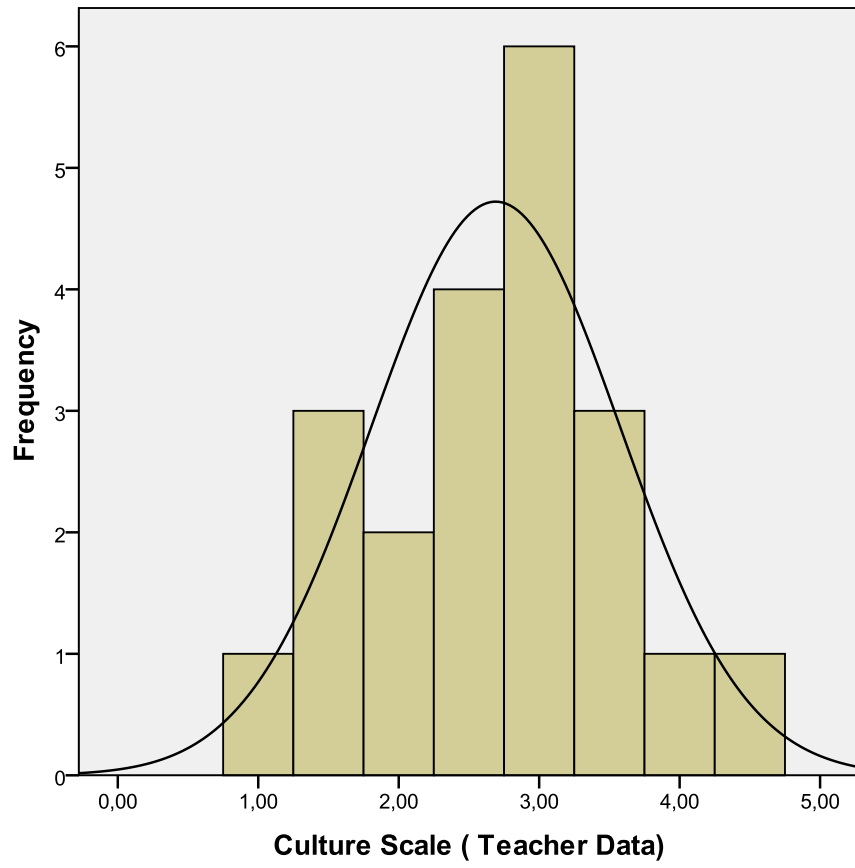


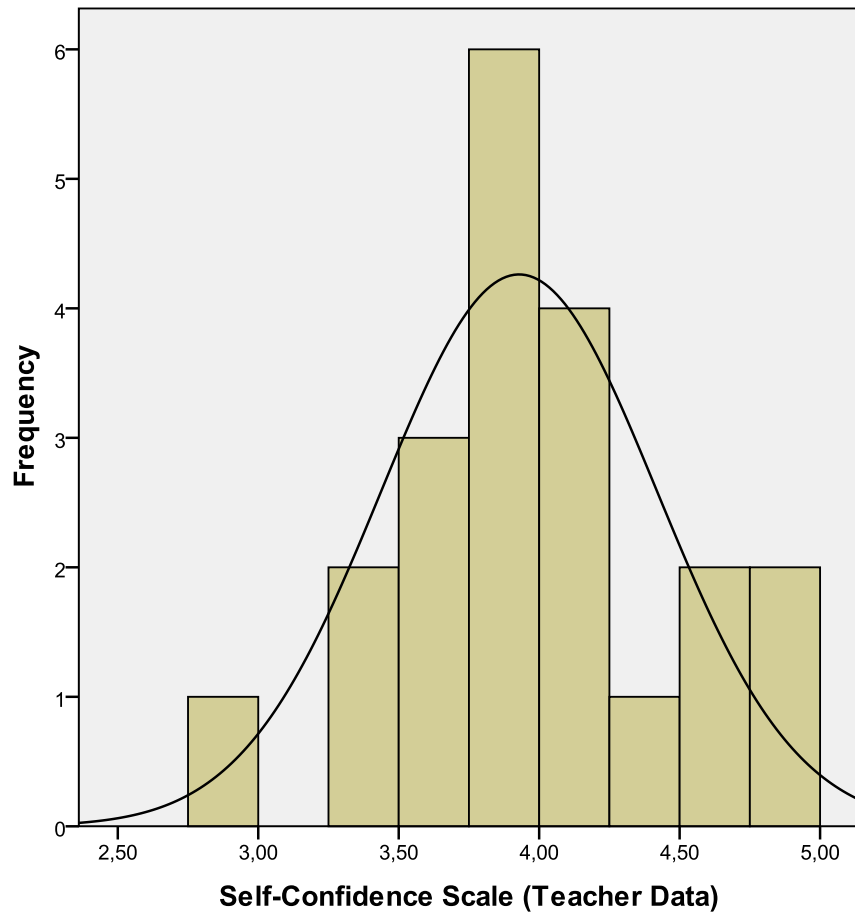


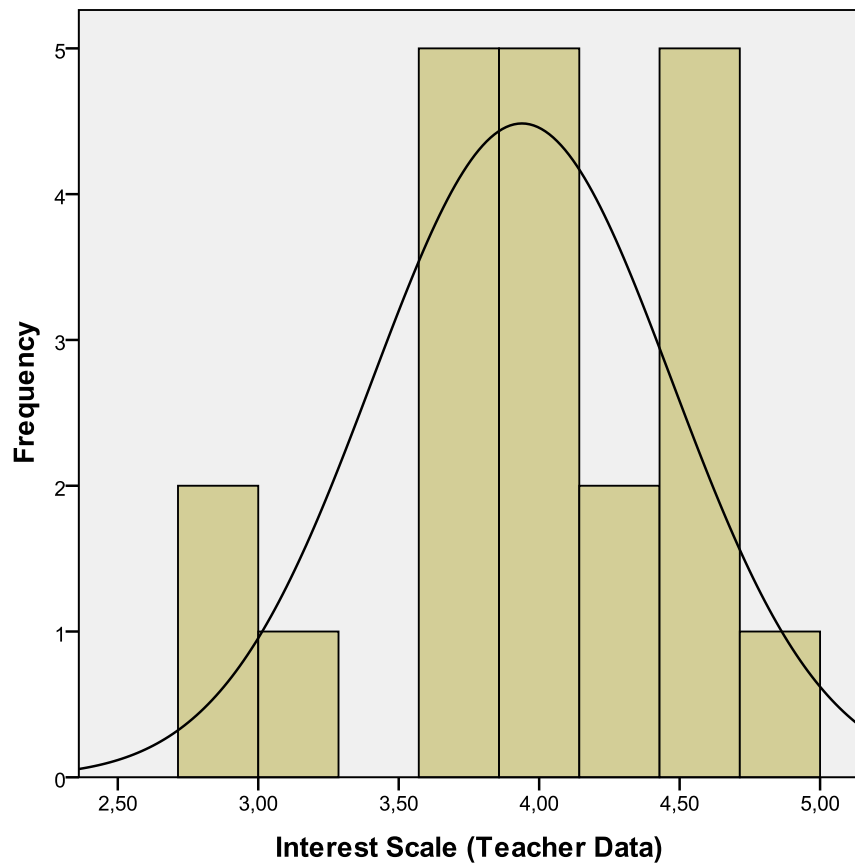


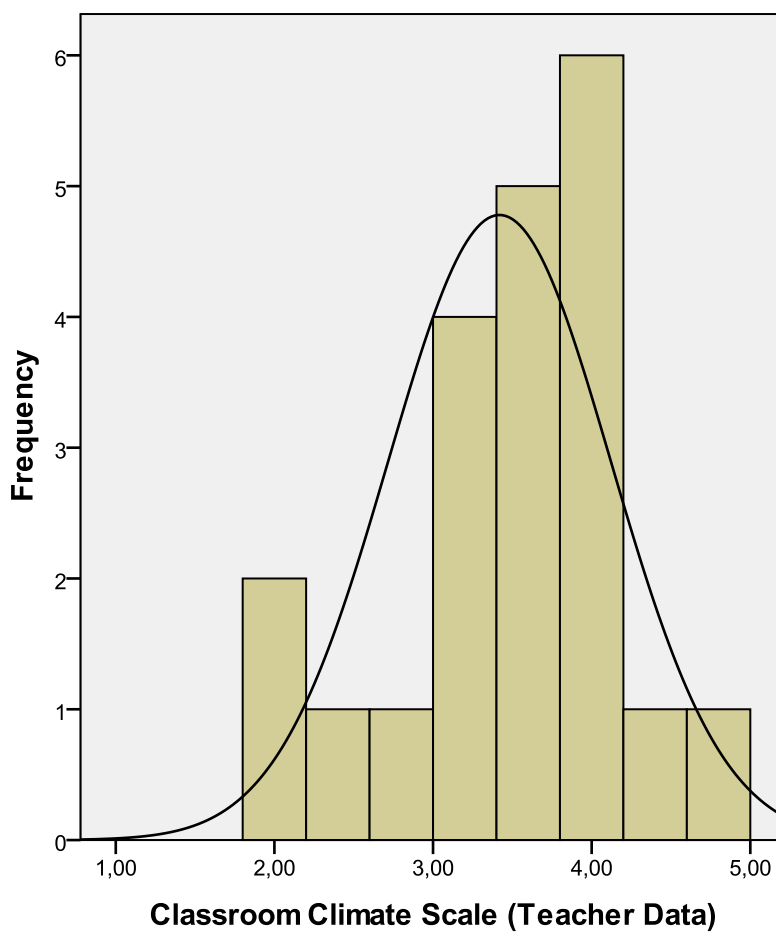












Appendix Sixteen

Distribution of Data (10, Scales- Students)

