

**PERCEPTIONS OF MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING
STRATEGIES IN AN EFL CLASSROOM:
THE CASE OF A CLASS IN A PRIVATE UNIVERSITY
IN INDONESIA**

BY

RACHMANIA BACHTIAR KASSING

A thesis submitted to the Victoria University of Wellington in partial
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education

May 2011

ABSTRACT

Students' motivation in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom is affected by their perceptions of the teaching strategies used. These perceptions are influenced by the context in which they learn. This study aims to explore both tertiary students' and their lecturers' perceptions of teaching strategies that both groups consider impact on students' motivation in learning EFL in an eastern region of Indonesia.

This study used a qualitative research methodology. The case was composed of one cohort of student-teachers and their EFL lecturers in one Teacher Training and Education Faculty of one private university in the area of Sulawesi Island of Indonesia. The data were collected from semi-structured individual interviews with EFL (English as a Foreign Language) lecturers and focus groups with student-teachers.

Both the lecturers and the student-teachers agreed that creating and maintaining relationships was a highly effective strategy to motivate students in an EFL classroom. However, the findings also showed that the two groups of participants put different values on the teaching strategies employed by EFL lecturers in this context. The study also found that some EFL lecturers were not aware of how some of the strategies that they used in teaching English impacted on their learners' motivation. Lecturers' time commitments outside this university proved to be a significant challenge in maximizing the use of some motivational teaching strategies in teaching English. These findings raise implications for lecturers' practice. By being more aware of how students view specific teaching strategies in the EFL classroom, teachers can enhance students' motivation, by generating, maintaining and building on initial motivation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to sincerely thank many people who provided a great amount of assistance for me in completing this thesis. Having completed this thesis, I will take with me valuable lessons and great experiences of conducting a research project that will be useful for my future life.

My greatest gratitude goes to my supervisors, Dr Carolyn Tait and Dr Margaret Gleeson, whose limitless guidance and generous support and assistance throughout my research and study completion were invaluable. Their encouragement throughout the research and attention over its completion are two things that have earned my lasting admiration. Their patience and timely feedback have been inspiring in so many ways.

I also wish to extend my sincere gratitude to my sponsor, the New Zealand Agency for International Development (NZAID) for presenting me with the scholarship and full support that enabled me to study at Victoria University of Wellington for more than two years to undertake the Masters degree in Education.

Many thanks to all participants of my research study for sharing their knowledge, values, opinions and experiences. This study would have not been completed without their generous contributions and assistance.

I would like to convey my sincere gratitude to Travis for his meticulousness in proofreading this thesis within a very limited time frame.

Last but not least, I want to thank my grandmothers, parents, brothers and sisters, my five nieces and all my extended family members for their unconditional support, encouragement, prayer and love.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW	1
1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. Context of the study	3
1.3. Research questions	7
1.4. The significance of the study.....	7
1.5. The outline of the thesis	8
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	10
2.1. Introduction	10
2.2. Definitions of motivation	10
2.3. Understanding the construct of motivation in the second/foreign language learning.....	12
2.4. The relationship of teaching strategies, learners' motivation and learners' academic performances	17
2.5. Motivational strategies in teaching English as a second/foreign language	22
2.5.1. Motivational teaching strategies in teaching ESL/EFL based on language learners' perceptions.	24
2.5.2. Motivational teaching strategies based on second/foreign language teachers' perceptions.	25
2.5.3. The relationship between second/foreign language learners and teachers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies.	29
2.6. Conclusion.....	32
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	34
3.1. Introduction	34
3.2. Qualitative approach.....	34
3.3. Participants	36
3.4. Procedure and method of data collection	38
3.4.1. Individual interviews.....	39
3.4.2. Focus-group discussions.....	40
3.5. Data analysis and Coding	44
3.6. Research ethics	46
3.7. Trustworthiness of the study	48
3.7.1. Transferability	48
3.7.2. Confirmability	48

3.7.3. Credibility.....	49
3.7.4. Dependability	49
3.8. Limitations.....	49
3.9. Conclusion.....	51
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS	52
4.1. Introduction	52
4.2. Teaching Strategies that influence relationships between student-teachers and EFL Lecturers.....	52
4.2.1. Giving advice and encouragement	53
4.2.2. Displaying approachable behaviours.....	54
4.2.3. Showing appreciation and praising student-teachers' work	57
4.2.4 Correcting an error or mistake	59
4.3. Other teaching strategies	61
4.3.1. Teaching methods and strategies that student-teachers and EFL lecturers regarded as motivating	61
4.3.1.1. <i>Active learning (Working in a small-group/in pairs)</i>	61
4.3.1.2. <i>Emphasis on speaking in English</i>	64
4.3.1.3. <i>Lecturers as models</i>	65
4.3.1.4. <i>Practising</i>	66
4.3.1.5. <i>Varying the teaching materials and teaching methods</i>	67
4.3.1.6. <i>Giving timely and informative feedback</i>	68
4.3.2. The student-teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies used by their EFL lecturers	69
4.3.2.1. <i>Giving challenging tasks</i>	70
4.3.2.2. <i>Integrating fun activities</i>	70
4.3.2.3. <i>Giving chances to perform</i>	71
4.3.2.4. <i>Employing a structured and well-planned teaching process</i>	72
4.3.3. The EFL Lecturers perceptions of motivational strategies in teaching English	73
4.3.3.1. <i>Encouraging grammar mastery</i>	74
4.3.3.2. <i>Knowing the student-teachers' prior knowledge</i>	75
4.3.3.3. <i>Memorizing</i>	75
4.3.3.4. <i>Process-oriented teaching</i>	76

4.4. Challenges and problems related to the motivational teaching strategies faced by the EFL lecturers	77
4.4.1. The EFL lecturers' commitment to their permanent workplace	77
4.4.2. Flexibility of each teaching strategy and method.....	78
4.4.3. Student-teachers' differences	79
4.4.4. Supporting media and facilities	79
4.5. Conclusion.....	80
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	82
5.1. Introduction	82
5.2. Creating basic motivational conditions	85
5.2.1. Teaching strategies in maintaining the student-teacher relationship.....	85
5.3. Generating initial motivation.....	92
5.3.1. Well-planned teaching and learning process.....	92
5.3.2. Lecturer as a role model	93
5.4. Maintaining and protecting motivation	96
5.4.1. Variation in teaching methods and materials	97
5.4.2. Integrate technology in the classroom activities	98
5.4.3. Active learning (Group/pair work).....	101
5.4.4. Feedback from peers.....	104
5.5. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.....	105
5.5.1. Feedback from lecturers	106
5.6. Conclusion.....	108
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	110
6.1. Introduction	110
6.2. Implications and recommendations.....	111
6.2.1. Implications and recommendations for EFL lecturers	111
6.3. Suggestions for future research	121
6.4. Reflection from the research fieldwork.....	122
6.5. Conclusion.....	124
REFERENCES	126
APPENDICES	133
APPENDIX A: List of Courses.....	133
APPENDIX B: Letter of Ethics approval.....	134

APPENDIX C: Letter of permission to conduct the study.....	135
APPENDIX E: Letter of information for EFL Lecturers	138
APPENDIX F: Letter of information for student-teachers	139
Appendix G: Interview and focus groups guide.....	141
APPENDIX H: Consent form for EFL Lecturers.....	142
APPENDIX I: Consent form for the student-teachers	143
APPENDIX J: Ground rules for focus groups	144

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1: Dornyei’s framework of motivational teaching strategies.....	23
TABLE 2: Dornyei’s semi-intuitive set of then motivational strategies.....	26
TABLE 3: Ten Commandments of motivation based on Dornyei & Csizer’ study in Hungary (1998).....	27
TABLE 4: Ten motivational strategies based on Dornyei’s and Cheng study.....	28
TABLE 5: The table that shows the number of participants of each interview and focus group discussions.....	43

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1: Dornyei’s framework of motivational teaching practices.....	83
FIGURE 2: The revised framework of motivational strategies based on the findings in this study context.....	84

LIST OF ACRONYMS

L1 - First Language

L2 - Second Language

EFL - English as a Foreign Language

ESL - English as a Second Language

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW

1.1. Introduction

In the field of second and foreign language learning, motivation is one of the most influential factors of all individual differences in language learning (compared to learning style, aptitude and age) when learning outcomes are considered (Dornyei, 2001a). A large number of studies in language learning have shown that motivation is a prominent factor in learning (Den Brok, Levy, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2006; Dornyei, 2001a; Oxford, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Dornyei (2001b) also points out that regardless of learners' ability, aptitude and intelligence, with a strong motivation to learn a language, students will be able to learn effectively.

From the 1990s, research on motivation for second (ESL) and foreign language (EFL) learning has evolved from focusing and describing the composition of students' motivation to a detailed list of practical suggestions in assisting teachers to boost their students' motivation (for instance, Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Dornyei, 2001b; Williams & Burden, 1997). Even so, 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 (Dornyei & Otto, 1998).

ESL/EFL teachers, however, must be aware of the context of any research of motivation since the findings and the proposed motivational teaching strategies may not be suitable for all ESL/EFL teaching and learning situations. A strategy that is highly effective in one context of teaching and learning may not work at all in another context and vice versa. As Nakata (2006) implies, motivating students is not

as easy in practice as in theory. Since human behaviours are complex, these strategies are not applicable to every individual and in every context of learning. Teachers should select the most suitable strategies to be employed in their own classrooms. With this in mind, this study aims to investigate how lecturers in a specific study site, through their teaching strategies, build and maintain their students' motivation. It will be beneficial for lecturers in this particular university to explore the motivational strategies that are most suitable for their own classroom since many researchers' suggestions are only general guidelines generated from literature or different contexts (in terms of geographic location, socio-economic condition and culture) of teaching and learning.

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

For many years, studies of motivation and language learning centred on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and integrative and instrumental motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Bradford, 2007). These studies were mostly based in an ESL setting like Canada (O'Sullivan, 2009) which may not be relevant to an EFL situation such as Indonesia. Few studies of teachers' strategies to motivate language learners and keep them motivated have been conducted in the Indonesian EFL context and there is little empirical data that has been gathered for EFL adult learners or student-teachers in

private university settings in provinces remote from the capital, such as the context of this study.

This study drew on student-teachers and their lecturers at the English department of a teachers training and education faculty as its participants. This is different from studies investigating students from either secondary or high schools (for example Gorham & Christophel, 1992; Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008). As a result, this study will be useful to these lecturers who work as English teachers as well as university students (student-teachers) who can reflect on their own teaching practices. This study builds on and expands EFL lecturers' awareness of the importance of students' motivation and motivational teaching strategies in this foreign language learning context.

1.2. Context of the study

It is widely accepted that English is important for Indonesia as English is a global or international language. The current status of English as an international or global language is underpinned by its wide use in a range of fields such as politics, science and technology, education, information technology, international trade and industry (Lauder, 2008). In addition, the English language has become more important in Indonesian schooling because of globalisation (Yuwono, 2005).

In language teaching and learning in Indonesia, however, as in many Asian countries, English is taught and learned in schools and universities as a foreign language (EFL) rather than as a second language (L2) which means that learners do not have many opportunities to use English in their daily lives outside of the classrooms (Liando, Moni, Baldauf & Richard, 2005). Oxford and Shearin (1994) distinguish between these two terms. They explain that a second language is a language that is learned in

a location where that language is typically used as a lingua franca, for example English learned in Singapore; while a foreign language is a language learned only in formal education institutions, for example English learned in Indonesia. Moreover, in Indonesian schools and universities, teachers usually emphasize the teaching of grammar skills over communication or speaking skills.

Teacher-fronted grammar and pronunciation classes have been the norm in English language education in Indonesia for so many years (Bradford, 2007). Thus, students are much more fluent in written English than spoken English. But even though English is not widely used as a means of communication in Indonesian society, it is still seen as priority and as the most important foreign language to be taught (Simatupang as cited in Lauder, 2008). At all levels of formal education, from secondary schools to universities, English is a compulsory curriculum requirement and an English exam is part of the standardized testing system to enrol students. In addition, courses of English lessons are offered by private or public language institutions for students of almost all ages. However, English teaching and the achievement of students in English language study, especially in isolated areas and schools with poor resources, are still far from ideal (Yuwono, 2005).

Teaching English in Indonesian schools and colleges has been less than satisfactory in the last few decades (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Despite continual efforts by the Indonesian government to improve the situation, such as revising the curriculum and providing teachers with scholarships to upgrade their skills, students are leaving high schools and even universities with English skills below the expectations of the government (Huda as cited in Bradford, 2007). University students graduate without sufficient skills in English to compete internationally. Kirkpatrick (2007) listed several factors as the main reason for this failure; including large class sizes, low

proficiency in English on the part of teachers, the low salary of teachers and cultural barriers. In a similar vein, Bradford (2007) states that “the failure of English teaching in Indonesia lies less with the curriculum, and more in such matters as teacher qualifications and welfare, classroom size and students’ motivation” (2007, p. 304).

Indonesia is a large archipelagic country comprised of thousand of islands, of which mere hundreds are inhabited. The socio-economic situation, educational background and cultural conditions of its people are extremely diverse. Findings from research conducted in one area of the country may not be applicable to another.

Even though issues of motivation have contributed to low standards of achievement in English teaching, little research on motivation has been conducted in Indonesia, particularly in the eastern part of the country. Very few studies drawing on students’ perceptions of the effectiveness of teaching strategies to motivate English language learners have been conducted; and these were mainly conducted in the western part of the country (Bradford, 2007).

The context of this case study, a teacher training and education faculty in a private university is one of many universities that offer a teacher training program in the Sulawesi Island region in the eastern part of Indonesia. In the English department of the Teacher Training and Education Faculty, student-teachers are taught English language skills as well as skills required to be an English teacher. There are two semesters in a year, July-December and January-June. Unlike the state university, this university runs classes in the afternoon and evening. This is intended to increase opportunities for people who have other commitments in the morning to be able to continue their study while continuing in employment. Each year, the Teacher Training Faculty in this university receives a number of students who are mainly teachers or young adults who want to be teachers of English. The three components

of English (vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation) and the four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) as well as general courses (educational psychology related courses) are taught to student-teachers. But the English language learning courses are dominant, making up approximately 80% of the total offered courses to be completed by student-teachers to earn the degree (See Appendix A). This fact implicitly shows the uniqueness of these student-teachers; these student-teachers focus on the learning of the English language more than learning how to be an English teacher. The student-teachers' purpose in enrolling in the teacher training and education faculty is twofold: to be English learners and to be English teachers in the future. The majority of the EFL lecturers are permanent lecturers at the public university in this capital city of the province. They work in this private university as part-time lecturers. Until recently, there were no permanent EFL lecturers (paid by the government) posted in the English Department of the Teacher Training and Education Faculty.

Since English in Indonesia is a foreign language learned mainly in classrooms, the role of a teacher becomes highly significant as the main source/facilitator of knowledge and skills in this foreign language learning. An English teacher is expected not only to teach English itself but also to make the teaching-learning process as interesting as possible to engage the students in the learning process. Engaging with the process influences the students' motivation to learn the language. Teachers' strategies in teaching English are then crucial in engaging students in the classroom. Differences in students' and teachers' perceptions of the motivational effect of teaching strategies in an EFL classroom may significantly contribute to students' lack of satisfaction with the language class. If teachers are more aware of

the impact of their teaching strategies on students' motivation, they may be able to identify what teaching strategies their students find interesting and engaging.

1.3. Research questions

The study attempts to answer a main question along with sub-questions related to motivational strategies used by the university teachers. These are as follows:

Main question

- How do lecturers' teaching strategies impact on the motivation of student-teachers to learn EFL in one Teacher Training and Education Faculty in one province in the area of Sulawesi Island of Indonesia?

Sub-questions

1. How do EFL lecturers report motivating their student-teachers?
2. How do students-teachers report being motivated by their EFL lecturers?

1.4. The significance of the study

This study seeks to investigate the importance of motivation and to give suggestions on how to maintain student-teachers' motivation by asking participants about the motivational teaching strategies preferred in their own classroom context. This study will provide insight for lecturers in this specific private university, in the area of Sulawesi Island, in Indonesia into how to initiate and maintain student-teachers' motivation in learning English as a foreign language by avoiding a possible mismatch between students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational strategies in teaching English. In utilizing the findings of this study, I also hope that tertiary teachers of English in Indonesia will gain a greater understanding of the importance

of teaching strategies to motivate their students and thereby increase students' mastery of English. Moreover, by studying the perceptions of student-teachers and EFL lecturers of strategies used in teaching, lecturers in similar contexts (including myself, as a member of the teaching staff in this university), will be able to build their knowledge of possible ways to implement more effective motivational teaching strategies in tertiary classrooms.

1.5. The outline of the thesis

This thesis is presented in six chapters. This chapter serves as an introduction to the thesis. This chapter has highlighted the research questions, the setting of the study, and the significance of this study.

Chapter two aims to provide a theoretical background for this study through a review of relevant literature. Literature in motivation and teaching strategies to enhance motivation in teaching English in ESL / EFL context is presented in this chapter.

Chapter three outlines the methodological approach of this research. The selection of the case study approach and the choice of the qualitative approach are described. The method and process of collecting the data from individual interviews and focus-group discussions are explained. Finally, a step by step explanation of how the data was analysed is described.

Chapter four describes the findings using the research questions as a framework.

Chapter five presents a discussion of the findings. The findings are analysed by adopting a framework of motivational teaching practices by Dornyei (2001b) as the structure of the chapter.

Chapter six reviews the entire research process and revisits the objectives of the study. This chapter also discusses the implications emerging from the findings and makes recommendations for EFL lecturers. Recommendations for future research are also presented in this concluding chapter.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on motivation and motivational strategies perceived to be successful strategies employed in a second/foreign language classroom. Discussing the perceptions of student and teachers in a language classroom cannot be done without understanding the concepts of motivation in the broader field in general and in the second/foreign language area in particular. Therefore key issues related to motivational strategies such as general concepts of motivation and the construct of motivation in the second/foreign language classroom are included. A comparison of students' and teachers' perceptions of the teaching strategies and techniques that these two parties perceive as motivational is also described.

2.2. Definitions of motivation

Simply expressed, motivation is a factor determining the extent of people's desire to do an activity. The term motivation is used quite broadly in the field of education. Because motivation is considered to be one of the most influential factors in learning and academic achievement, a number of researchers from diverse field of education studies have tried to define, analyse and conceptualise this term (Brophy, 2010; Dornyei, 2001b). Brown defines it as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one toward a particular action" (1987, p.117). Maehr and Meyer as cited in Brophy state that motivation is an abstract and theoretical construct specifically to refer to "the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence and quality of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour" (2010, p.3). Keller as cited in Ziahosseini and Salehi (2008) concludes that motivation consists of the choices that people make as

to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they exert in that respect.

In various fields of study such as social psychology, educational psychology and language learning, motivation has been well-researched and widely discussed. However, since motivation is a complex construct that appears to be simple on the surface, it has been impossible for theorists to reach consensus on a single definition. The term “motivation” is a broad concept that cannot be easily condensed into one single definition. The term becomes even more complex when it comes to language learning (Williams & Burden, 1997). The unique features of language also make language learning distinct from the learning of other school subjects.

In relation to second/foreign language learning, Gardner (2001) claims that motivation drives an individual to put in effort to achieve a goal; it makes the individual persistent and attentive. Gardner also states that a highly motivated individual enjoys striving for a goal and makes use of strategies in reaching that goal. Motivation to learn a foreign language is often triggered when the language is seen as valuable to the learner in view of the amount of effort that will be required to be put into learning it. Dornyei and Otto (1998) define motivation 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, prioritized, operationalized and acted out” (p.64). Williams and Burden (1997) explain that motivation is a cognitive and emotional arousal which results in a conscious decision to act, and gives rise to sustain intellectual and physical effort in order to achieve the set goals.

For many years, various theories and explanations about the importance of motivation in learning have been proposed. In spite of its complexity and the numerous theories put forth in an effort to understand its complex construct, Manolopoulou-Sergi (2004) emphasizes that most researchers in the field of second/foreign language learning agree that motivation is closely related to one's choice of a particular action, one's persistence in pursuing it and the effort one expends.

2.3. Understanding the construct of motivation in the second/foreign language learning

Research studies show that in foreign language learning, a number of factors can contribute to differences in various learners' academic performance and attainment, such as age, gender, attitudes, aptitude, motivation, learning approach, language learning strategies and learning style (Dornyei, 1994; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Ghenghesh, 2010; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Liando, et al., 2005; Oxford, 1994). Among all those contributing factors, motivation has been regarded by researchers working in the field of second/foreign language learning as one of the most vital factors in the process of second/foreign language learning (Dornyei, 2001a; Liando et al., 2005; Oxford, 1994). With the proper level of motivation, language learners may become active investigators of the nature of the language they are studying (Kimura, Nakata & Okumura, 2001).

Along with ability, motivation is seen as the major source of variation in educational success (Keller, as cited in Schmidt, Boraie & Kassagby, 1996). Specifically, these researchers also suggest that motivation of a learner can indicate the rate and success

of second/foreign language attainment. Therefore motivation is one of the main determinants of successful second/foreign language learning (Dornyei, 1994).

Studies concerning individual variables in language learning also reveal the relationship between motivation and achievement. Motivation was found to be significantly related to students' achievement in learning French. In one study, a causal model of the individual variables and language achievement was constructed (Gardner et al., 1997). The model established that language learning causes motivation, and this motivation in turn affects achievement, the use of strategies and the self-confidence of the language learner.

A substantial amount of research has shown that motivation is crucial for second/foreign language learning because it directly influences how much effort students make, their level of general proficiency and how long they persevere and maintain foreign language skills after completing their language study (Cheng & Dornyei, 1998; Trang & Baldauf, 2007). Similarly, it gives language learners the driving force necessary to persist in a long learning process. Cognitive skills in the target language are not a guarantee that a learner can successfully master a foreign language. In fact, in many cases, students with greater second/foreign language learning motivation receive better grades and achieve better proficiency in the target language (Wu & Wu, 2009). No matter how appropriate and effective the curriculum is, and no matter how high aptitude or intelligence an individual has, without sufficient motivation, even individuals with outstanding academic abilities are unlikely to be successful in accomplishing long-term goals (Brown, 2000; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Oxford & Shearin 1994). Furthermore, high levels of motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in learners' language aptitude and learning context (Dornyei, 2001a). Likewise, motivated learners can master their

target language regardless of their aptitude or other cognitive characteristics, whereas without motivation, even the most intelligent learner can fail to learn the language.

In second language study, the very best known construct concerning motivation for second language learning is that of integrative and instrumental motivation, based on the pioneer work of Gardner in 1959 and 1985 (Gardner as cited in Gonzales, 2010). Although this construct has been criticised as an oversimplification of a highly complex issue, and possibly relevant only to Canada or similar socio-linguistic situations, the idea of the two orientations in learning English has inspired a considerable amount of research of language learning. Gardner and Lambert as cited in Jacques (2001) distinguish two classes of goals (orientations) in language learning: (a) the integrative orientation, in which one desires to learn L2 in order to interact with members of the L2 community or integrate themselves within the culture of the second language, and (b) instrumental orientation, which refers to a desire to learn the L2 to achieve some practical goals such as furthering a career, getting a better job (employment opportunities), or gaining a higher salary. Language learners with integrative orientation learn the target language to communicate with other groups of people and know more about the life of the native language speakers whilst learners with instrumental orientation are learning the language for some “pragmatic goals” (Gardner & Lambert as cited in Jacques, 2001). Subsequently, studies to find out what motives students’ possess that enable them to be persistent in learning a second/foreign language have also been conducted by a number of language teachers and researchers in various contexts (for instance Lamb, 2004; Liando et al., 2005; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010).

Martin and Escabias (2007) argue that students learning a second language tend to develop integrative motivation, as opposed to the learners of a foreign language, who

tend to feel more motivated by instrumental reasons, as they do not have opportunities to have contact with the speakers of the target language. However, this argument has been rejected by a number of empirical studies. Two studies conducted in Indonesia by Lamb (2004) and Liando et al., (2005), for instance, revealed that the participants' motivation in studying English as a foreign language in two Indonesian high schools was more integrative than instrumental. This could indicate that the primary reason for studying English in these study contexts was to be able to have opportunities in a conversation with English speaking people, rather than pragmatic goals like in assisting in the pursuit of a career (Liando et al., 2005).

There is a common belief that integrative motivation is stronger than instrumental motivation (Schmidt et al., 1996) as learners who are instrumentally motivated may not actually like the target language being learned; yet the superiority of integrative motivation over the instrumental is debatable, as research results have varied in different study contexts.

In recent years, several second language scholars have identified other reasons or motives for learning a second/foreign language that seemingly do not belong to Gardner and Lambert's two classes of motives, and may be also deserving of attention (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Brown (2000) suggests that both integrative and instrumental motivations are not necessarily mutually exclusive and static. They might exist simultaneously in the second/foreign language context. A language learner can simultaneously maintain integrative, instrumental or other reasons for learning a second/foreign language. For instance, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) list the following motivators that learners often possess in learning a second/foreign language: interest to learn the target language (one's desire to know), relevancy of students' goals (the connection between the individual's personal goals, needs and

values and the course instruction), expectancy and satisfaction. In another example, Oxford and Shearin (1994), in their study of language learning motivation among American high school students, found that one third of responses from participants in their study did not fit into either the integrative or the instrumental category. Among twenty different motive categories that they identified, these four main motivators of language learning were dominant: intellectual stimulation, personal challenge, showing off to friends and fascination with aspects of the language.

In addition, in studying Egyptian hieroglyphs, a dead language with no living culture to integrate into and very few instrumental advantages, instrumental and integrative goals are unlikely to be the only motivating factors (Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000). This observation gives rise to the intrinsic-extrinsic motivation distinction.

Language learning motivation research has also been influenced by developments in the area of educational psychology. In the 1980s, Ryan and Deci introduced two classifications for motivation; they are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The former is generally believed to relate to long-term success and the latter to short-term success in learning (Yuanfang, 2009). Intrinsic motivators tend to affect learners for a longer period than extrinsic motivators. Intrinsic motivation is the desire to engage in activities for internally rewarding consequences (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000). People who are intrinsically motivated feel that they are doing an activity because the activity presents a challenge to their abilities and competencies (Noels, et al., 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2000). People who are extrinsically motivated are doing an activity to obtain an external reward with examples including recognition from teachers, materials rewards (money or other prizes) and good examination scores. According to Schmidt, et al., (1996) however, this distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation does not

mirror that of integrative and instrumental motivation. Rather, the integrative-instrumental distinction is a subtype of extrinsic motivation, as goals and outcomes are the driving focus of both types (Shaaban & Ghaith, 2000).

Unlike a few decades ago, recent literature is replete with theories of motivation in education in general and language learning motivation in particular. However, these different theories enable us to look at different aspects of motivation. The complexity and importance of motivation in learning continue to challenge researchers in the field of second and foreign language learning.

2.4. The relationship of teaching strategies, learners' motivation and learners' academic performances

Since motivation is acknowledged as a key factor in determining success in foreign or second language learning academic attainment, strategies that maintain language learners' motivation are of interest to educators. A number of studies have been conducted by educational researchers in order to gain a better understanding of how language learners' motivation can be positively affected during the language learning process (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998). Nakata (2006) states that unlike aptitude, which cannot be changed since it is innate, motivation can fluctuate factor over time. Nakata (2006), Brophy (2010) and Dornyei (2001a) contend that the fluctuation of motivation, academic achievement and the amount of the effort exerted may be affected by two main factors; internal and external factors (teachers, parents, peers, and community). This means motivation of students is something a teacher can influence.

As described earlier, motivation can be developed by interactions between the learner and external factors, including teachers, parents, and peers (Bernaus &

Gardner, 2008; Brophy, 2010; Dornyei, 1994; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010). Among those external factors that influence students' motivation in learning a foreign language, the teachers' teaching strategies and practices play a more significant role than the rest (Chambers, 1998; Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; Dornyei, 1998; Dornyei, 2001a; Gan, Humphreys & Hamp-Lyon, 2004; Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008; Trang & Baldauf, 2007). These studies highlight the fact that "the teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect the learners' motivation" (Dornyei, 1998, p.130) and teachers' choices of strategies in the classroom affect students' motivation to learn. Student participant in Trang and Baldauf's (2007) study of demotivation in English language learning in a Vietnamese context came to conclusion that the participants were in agreement that teachers' contributed to their motivation to learn English. Amongst the four demotivating categories related to language teachers, teaching methods were considered the primary source of students' demotivation. This explicitly indicated that teachers and their use of teaching methods had a strong impact on students' demotivation or motivation to learn.

A subsequent review of studies examining beginning teachers' perceptions of problems they often face in the classroom found that motivating pupils was the second most serious problem that the teachers encountered (Vennman, as cited in Dornyei, 2001a). Thus, the teachers' role in the language learning process should not be underestimated.

Students' levels of foreign language proficiency are influenced by attitudes, motivation, teachers and classroom experiences. Nikolov (1999) found that students' motivation and proficiency in the development of their foreign language skills were strongly related to experiences they gained in the classroom. Being a significant part

of the classroom environment, teachers obviously affect both students' motivation in learning and their academic attainment. Students may be motivated to learn if the teacher provides the students with the appropriate conditions in the classroom and utilizes motivational teaching strategies (Dornyei, 2001a).

To this end, by adopting a qualitative approach, Dornyei (1998) interviewed 50 secondary school learners, studying either English or German as a foreign language in various schools in Budapest and found that of all the demotivating factors ranked by these students, teacher-related factors were ranked as the most important. Teacher-related factors were: the teachers' personality, the teachers' commitment to teaching, the level attention teachers paid to students, the teachers' competences, the teaching method, teachers' style and their rapport with students.

Additionally, Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) in their recent investigation into the motivational teaching practices used by English language teachers in South Korea point out that there was significant correlation between the language teachers' motivational teaching practices and increased levels of the learners' motivated behaviours in learning English as the foreign language in this study context. In this quantitative study, 27 language teachers and 1,381 students from 40 classes of junior high schools took part. Three different types of data collection instruments were employed in this study; namely a classroom observation scheme, a student questionnaire and a teacher evaluation scale. This study concluded that the teachers' motivational teaching practice was directly related to the students' immediate response in the classroom and their approach to classroom learning. Though the teachers participating in this research implemented a limited range of motivational strategies in their practices due to the lack of knowledge and training, the researchers

found there was a positive connection between the motivational language teaching strategies used by teachers and student' motivation in the context of study.

Similarly, in their large scale quantitative study in investigating factors that students perceived as motivators/demotivators in their learning in college classes in West Virginia University in USA, Gorham and Christopher (1992) came to the conclusion that students frequently perceived teacher-related factors such as teachers' negative behaviours to be the main cause of their decreased motivation in their learning. Learners lacking motivation tend to attribute their failure to their teacher.

Gan et al., (2004) conducted a qualitative study concerning unsuccessful and successful college students' learning experiences in learning English in one Chinese university. Other studies agree that unsuccessful language learners mostly attribute their lack of success to factors outside themselves; in Gan and colleagues' study students blamed their language teachers, saying that the teachers were not supportive of them and their teaching style was boring. In conclusion, students always located inadequacies in their learning environment, particularly their teachers.

Based on the previous illustrated studies it is clear that teachers influence their students' level of motivation to engage in classroom activities. Enhancing students' motivation is an ongoing process as motivation to learn fluctuates. It requires hard work by teachers and persistence in creating suitable and effective strategies in teaching the second/foreign language in their classrooms. Teachers do not have complete control over their students' motivation; nonetheless they can significantly initiate and maintain it by providing a supportive language learning atmosphere in the classroom through their motivational teaching strategies. Teachers have the

primary responsibility to shape better learning environments for their foreign language learners (Hedge, 2000; Nakata, 2006).

By taking the findings of his study as the reference, in which 11 year old students were asked to give reasons for enjoying or not enjoying any previous foreign language learning experiences that they had been through, Chambers (1998), just like Nakata (2006), argues that teachers and their use of teaching strategies affect a student's attitude toward an academic subject, and that teachers carry a large responsibility to motivate their students. What teachers do is therefore the key determinant for motivating language learners. Dornyei maintains that "teachers' skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness" (2001b, p.116). Teachers have the responsibility to provide opportunities for learning and to encourage language learners to realize their potential and maximize their progress. The class environment is an important factor in the development of interest in and enjoyment for studying a second/foreign language (Song, 2005). It is important for language teachers to realize that providing a safe and non-face threatening learning environment is crucial for strengthening and preserving students' motivation. In stressing the role of teachers in a second/foreign language classroom, Lightbown and Spada (2006) assert that:

If teachers can make their classroom places where students enjoy coming because the content is interesting and relevant to their age and level of ability, where the learning goals are challenging yet manageable and clear, and where the atmosphere is supportive and non-threatening, we can make a positive contribution to students' motivation to learn. (p.57)

Teachers have control over the learning environment, which plays a crucial role in students' motivation to learn.

2.5. Motivational strategies in teaching English as a second/foreign language

How to engage and motivate students through motivational teaching strategies has engaged second/foreign language researchers due to its significant contribution to academic performance and achievement in learning a second/foreign language. Dornyei states that “motivational strategies refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effects” (2001a, p. 28). In addition, Guilloteaux and Dornyei define motivational strategies as “instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate students’ motivation” (2008, p.56). Dornyei further contends that “they are techniques that promote the individual’s goal-related behaviour” (2001b, p.28). Motivational teaching strategies are thus steps or techniques employed by teachers in their teaching practices to facilitate students’ motivation in learning a second/foreign language.

The motivational strategies in teaching a second/foreign language are usually “grounded in sound theoretical considerations” (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008, p.56). While effective and motivational teaching strategies have been proposed by scholars in education and educational psychology areas, few were specifically contributed by second/foreign language scholars. The most notable framework in the area of second/foreign language that can accommodate diverse teaching strategies was established by Dornyei (2001b). His model for motivational second/foreign language teaching practice comprising four main dimensions is presented below.

Table 1. Dornyei’s framework of motivational teaching strategies (Dornyei, 2001b, p. 29)

MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING STRATEGIES
<i>Creating basic motivational conditions</i> Laying the foundations of motivation through establishing a good teacher-student rapport, creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and generating a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.
<i>Generating initial motivation</i> , that is, “whetting the students’ appetite”, by enhancing the learners’ language-related values and attitudes, increasing the learners’ goal-orientedness, making the teaching materials relevant for the learners, and creating realistic learners beliefs.
<i>Maintaining and protecting motivation</i> by making learning stimulating, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learners’ goal, protecting the learners’ self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, promoting cooperation among the learners, creating learner autonomy and promoting self-motivating learner strategies.
<i>Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation</i> by promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner.

The framework is based on Dornyei’s systematic overview of the extensive motivational techniques in teaching a second/foreign language (Dornyei, 2001b). The four dimensions include the macro-strategies associated with each dimension. Each dimension is associated with at least thirty macro-strategies, each of which was broken down into about one hundred micro-strategies in teaching a second/foreign language. This extensive list of recommended motivational teaching strategies has been frequently and widely utilised and modified by researchers to discover what specific strategies are perceived by students or language teachers as beneficial for the students’ motivation in their particular context.

In the past, few studies aimed to find out whether the proposed strategies actually work in language classrooms (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998). The fact that there may be a discrepancy between the assumed and the actual motivational power of certain teaching strategies in second/foreign language learning has concerned second/foreign language scholars. Therefore, the existing recommended teaching strategies should be regarded as mere hypotheses to be tested in determining what strategies work in a certain second/foreign language classroom.

2.5.1. Motivational teaching strategies in teaching ESL/EFL based on language learners' perceptions.

Language teachers may be a very relevant and valuable source of insights regarding what teaching strategies/methods work effectively to increase their students' motivation to learn a second/foreign language. However, many studies have not included the voice of one of the biggest stakeholders in second/foreign language learning: that is the learners. Learner' voices should not be neglected, since teachers may not be aware of students' motivation:

When teachers say that a student is motivated, they are not usually concerning themselves with the students' reason for studying, but are observing that the student does study, or at least engage in teacher-desired behaviour in the classroom and possibly outside it. (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991, p.480)

These scholars imply that the effectiveness of strategies in teaching L2/FL should not solely be measured by gaining teachers' opinions and perceptions about their use and effectiveness. It is also important for educators to pay attention to what students believe in this aspect, as students' own perceptions and beliefs may be as relevant as the perceptions of teachers, external observers or general beliefs about it as described in the literature.

In responding to this matter, Deniz (2010) employed a quantitative study to gather students' perceptions of some motivational approaches applied by teachers in second/foreign language learning. This study studies the views of students of the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of the Education Faculty in one university in Turkey. The motivational strategies scale developed by Dornyei (2001b) was employed as the instrument to gather the data from 179 student-teachers, comprising 42 males and 137 females. This study found that student-teachers' motivation was closely aligned with Dornyei's motivational teaching strategies ("ten

commandments”) although those ten motivational strategies were not frequently employed by teachers in the classrooms. Moreover, the student-teachers observed that their teachers showed variation in the use of those motivational teaching strategies.

2.5.2. Motivational teaching strategies based on second/foreign language teachers’ perceptions.

In the past, motivational psychologists have been more concerned about what motivation is than about how we can use this knowledge to motivate learners. Most research has been conducted on identifying various motives or validating theories in motivation rather than establishing substantive techniques to increase it. Recently, however, there has been a marked shift and more researchers have decided to look at the pedagogical implications of research by conceptualising motivational teaching strategies.

A number of scholars have proposed and published slightly different frameworks or lists of recommended teaching strategies likely to motivate students to learn (for example Brophy, 2010; Dornyei, 1994; Kumaradivelu, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). These are intended to be applied by classroom practitioners in improving their teaching practice. However, most of the frameworks were primarily derived from either teaching experiences or the scholars’ own beliefs about the effectiveness of those frameworks within their classrooms. Foreign language teaching and learning has often been undertaken with strategies based more on intuition than scientific inquiry (Park & Lee, 2006). Similarly, most of those diverse techniques recommended lacked supporting empirical evidence. In relation to his own earlier framework of motivational teaching strategies, Dornyei admitted that

“many of its components have been verified by very little or no empirical research in the field of L2” (1994, p.283). Nevertheless, Dornyei addressed this issue in studies of teaching and semi-formal interviews amongst two groups of graduate students and a group of international teachers on a British Council summer course. Dornyei then developed a set of motivational teaching strategies that he refers to as the “Semi-intuitive set of ten motivational macro-strategies” (Dornyei, 1996).

Table 2. Dornyei’s semi-intuitive set of ten motivational teaching strategies (1996)

Semi-Intuitive set of ten motivational macro-strategies
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make the language classes interesting by selecting varied and engaging topics, material, and activities. 2. Have humour, fun, and games in class. 3. Create a pleasant and friendly atmosphere. 4. Promote learner autonomy by allowing freedom in the classroom and sharing as much responsibility with the learners as you can. 5. Make the course relevant by doing a need analysis and adjusting the syllabus accordingly. 6. Set a personal example in being motivated and committed yourself. 7. Develop the learner’s confidence by encouraging them, giving them positive feedback, and making sure that they regularly have a feeling of success. 8. Make the foreign language “real” by introducing its culture, using authentic materials, inviting native speakers, and arranging native-speaking pen friends for your students. 9. Develop a good and trustful relationship with the learners. 10. Emphasize the usefulness of the knowledge of the foreign language.

Further empirical evidence was gathered in a study to identify motivational teaching strategies based on classroom data (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998). This study was an attempt to revise the original list of the strategies by grounding them through systematic and classroom-based research. The strategies were selected on the basis of a questionnaire administered to a total of 200 EFL teachers at various language teaching institutions, ranging from elementary schools to universities, in Hungary. Based on these teachers’ responses, the study revealed ten motivational strategies that the participating teachers considered to be the most significant strategies in

terms of its usefulness in their classrooms. The proposed strategies are widely known as “Ten Commandments” (Nakata, 2006, p.64).

Table 3. Ten commandments of motivation based on Dornyei & Csizer’ study in Hungary (1998)

Ten Commandments of motivation	
1.	Set a personal example.
2.	Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
3.	Present the task properly.
4.	Develop a good relationship with the learners.
5.	Increase the learners’ linguistic self-confidence.
6.	Make the language classes interesting.
7.	Promote learner autonomy.
8.	Personalize the learning process.
9.	Increase the learners’ goal-orientedness.
10.	Familiarize the learners with the target language culture.

(Dornyei & Csizer, 1998, p. 215).

Clearly, this list of teaching strategies was more concrete, condensed and less overwhelming for average classroom teachers to manage than the previous lists (Dornyei, 1996). However, since every single classroom and language learning environment is unique in numerous ways, the use of a list of motivational teaching strategies that came from a single empirical study must be treated with care.

Therefore, with this consideration in mind, Cheng and Dornyei (2007) conducted a large scale survey study in a different context involving teachers as participants, to replicate and improve the previous study by Dornyei and Csizer (1998). Cheng and Dornyei surveyed English teachers in Taiwan to answer (1) how important the teachers perceive certain motivational strategies to be and (2) how frequently they actually employ these strategies in their daily practices. By adopting a snowballing sampling method in recruiting the participants, whereby several key informants were then identified and then were asked to introduce other potential participants, these scholars surveyed the substantial figure of 387 teachers of English in Taiwan. The participants were English language teachers who taught English in a wide range of

institutional contexts and they represented a variety of backgrounds in terms of teaching experience and educational background. Furthermore, the participants were from different parts of Taiwan to ensure the diversity. The data were gathered by using two kinds of questionnaires sent to two groups of participants. The first questionnaire was a ranking questionnaire to rate the strategies that the teachers deemed as important, and the second one was a questionnaire to identify the frequency of each strategies used. The findings ranked the 10 strategies that the Taiwanese English teachers found most important as follows:

Table 4. Ten motivational strategies based on Dornyei and Cheng’s study (2007)

The rank of ten motivational strategies
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour. 2. Recognise students’ effort and celebrate their success. 3. Promote learners’ self confidence. 4. Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. 5. Present tasks properly. 6. Increase the learners’ goal-orientedness. 7. Make the learning tasks stimulating 8. Familiarise learners with L2-related values. 9. Promote group cohesiveness and set group norms. 10. Promote learner autonomy.

Exhibiting exemplary behaviours by teachers was ranked the first in the list. English teachers in Taiwan considered that a good language teacher should present themselves as a personal role model for their students. This is a significant difference from studies conducted in other contexts and is relevant, given that this study, like my study, was conducted in an Asian setting.

The results of Cheng and Dornyei (2007) study were quite similar to Dornyei and Csizer (1998). Both studies, Dornyei and Csizer (1998) and Cheng and Dornyei (2007) revealed that four aspects (displaying motivating teaching behaviours,

promoting learners' self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom climate and presenting a task properly) were believed to be the most motivating teaching practices in those study contexts.

2.5.3. The relationship between second/foreign language learners and teachers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies.

Teachers of foreign/second language and their students may not share the same notions of effective and motivational strategies in teaching a second/foreign language. This possible mismatch of perceptions related to effective teaching strategies/methods should be taken into consideration by teachers (Williams & Burden, 1997). Moreover, Kern (1995) as cited in Brown (2009) and Schulz (1996) argued that "mismatches between foreign language students' and teachers' expectation can negatively affect the students' satisfaction with the language class" (p.46), and this may lead to decreased motivation in learning the target language or even to the discontinuation of second/foreign language learning.

Despite the possible impact of mismatched perceptions, few studies (Brosh, 1996; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Park & Lee, 2006; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010) have specifically compared and contrasted individual teacher's perceptions of motivational teaching strategies with those of their students. Studies that focus on teaching strategies and characteristics in second/foreign language learning that allow comparisons of perceptions or opinions between teachers and their respective students are uncommon.

One study that incorporates the teachers' and students' perspectives is Bernaus and Gardner's (2008), which argues that even though various teaching strategies proposed are generally beneficial to improve teachers' understanding of strategies

that work effectively, there is a possibility that students' and teachers' perceptions about motivational teaching strategies do not match or correspond to each other.

Their quantitative study of 31 EFL teachers and 694 students took place in Catalonia, Spain. By employing the modified Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) developed by Gardner in the 1950s (Gardner, as cited in Gonzales, 2010) as the instrument of this study, Bernaus and Gardner aimed to investigate teachers' and students' perceptions of strategy use and the effect of those teaching strategies on students' motivation to pursue foreign language learning. The result showed that students and teachers agreed on the use of some strategies but not on the use of others. Most students perceived the strategies used related to their own attitudes and motivation, while teachers did not think the teaching strategies they employed affected students' attitudes and motivation (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). The study concluded that motivation was a positive predictor of English achievement of students in this study context. Likewise, motivation was claimed by the participants as one variable affecting towards the learners' achievement in language learning.

In another study, Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) aimed to give a clearer description of the teachers' actual use of 15 motivational teaching strategies and to examine the relationship between the frequency of those 15 motivational strategies, the strength of students' motivation induced by these strategies and differences in the strategy-motivation relationship depending on students' English proficiency levels. The 15 strategies used in this study were selected from Dornyei's 102 motivational teaching micro-strategies. Two different questionnaires were administered several times within two months to five Japanese English teachers in a public secondary school and 190 of these teachers' students in the nine classes in Kyoto (Japan) in which they taught English as a foreign language. They found that the teachers used motivational

strategies in a variety of ways and out of the 15 strategies only four showed significant correlation with students' motivation.

These results contrast with those of Brosh (1996), who conducted a study in an Israeli context using a questionnaire and interviews as the instruments to gather the language teachers and students' opinion of effective language teachers. He found that students' and teachers' perceptions were largely homogenous. The findings demonstrated that there were four desirable characteristics of the effective language teacher in this context: a proper level of knowledge and command in the target language, ability to organize, explain, and clarify as well as to arouse and sustain interest and motivation among students, fairness to all students and teachers' availability to their students.

Investigating the characteristics of motivational teaching practices as perceived by students and teachers in a second/foreign language learning context is beneficial, especially on the part of teachers, for two explicit reasons. Firstly, teachers can check the appropriateness of their beliefs and perceptions of motivational strategies in the area of second/foreign language learning and teaching against current research results. Secondly, teachers can obtain insights into what their students expect from them and develop their pedagogical techniques through their reflection, which will in turn enhance the quality of their teaching and learning practices (Gorham & Milette, 1997).

Further empirical studies in a variety of contexts that compare and contrast teacher and student's perceptions would be useful in explaining the selection of effective second/foreign language teaching strategies (Brown, 2009). Schulz (1996) foreshadows the need and urgency to conduct such studies in the future in different contexts by stating:

It might well be wise to explore the fit of learner and teacher beliefs. While opinions alone do not necessarily reflect the actual cognitive processes that go on in language acquisition, perceptions do influence reality. Indeed, some would argue that perception is reality for the individual learner. Students whose instructional expectations are not met may consciously or subconsciously question the credibility of the teacher and / or the instructional approach. Such lack of pedagogical face validity could affect learners' motivation. (p.349)

2.6. Conclusion

To sum up, although there are only a few classroom-based research studies in the area of motivational teaching strategies, this review of literature suggests that motivation has a significant impact on language learning achievement, and motivational teaching strategies closely link to students' levels of motivation. The literature also claims that teaching English as a second/foreign language requires creative, innovative and motivating teaching strategies. Furthermore, there is evidence that effective language learning is facilitated by teachers through providing a non-threatening environment in which learners feel comfortable and self-confident and are encouraged to take risks to use the target language. Similarly, teachers can significantly affect their students' motivation through their ability to provide a supportive classroom atmosphere for second/foreign language learning learners.

In addition, scholars maintain that teachers play a crucial role in initiating and maintaining students' motivation in classrooms by selectively adopting effective strategies in facilitating and enhancing learning in accordance with students' motivation. Moreover, due to culture-specific and complex variables such as learners' approaches to learning and teacher's teaching method, any proposed strategies need to arise from classroom-based studies in particular ESL/EFL teaching contexts. These should not be treated as the "ready to use" solutions but rather as a framework that should be continually modified and enriched based on feedback from

individual learning environments. Classroom-based research should ground frameworks that are proposed for classrooms.

Dornyei's framework of motivational teaching strategies has made a significant contribution to language teachers' knowledge of motivational teaching strategies to be used in their language classrooms and it is utilized and adapted as a framework for the discussion chapter of this thesis. However, motivation may be affected by specific cultural contexts, which suggests that Dornyei's motivational strategies may need modification to reflect teachers' and learners' perceptions in the context of this study, a small Indonesian university.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology of my research. I begin by outlining the approach that I used for this study, including an explanation of the paradigm of the study, the selection of the participants followed by a description of the fieldwork procedure and data collection. I then explain my method of analysing the data. Further sections address the research ethics and the trustworthiness of this qualitative research.

3.2. Qualitative approach

To allow the investigation of student-teachers' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom, a qualitative research method was employed. In order to answer the research questions, it was necessary to gain a wide range of information and seek the views, beliefs and perceptions of the study participants. As a result, it is clear that this study is positioned within qualitative research traditions.

Qualitative approaches use the natural setting of an event, behaviour or process as a direct source of data. Qualitative researchers usually try to understand how things occur by going to the natural setting without implementing any intervention (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). This allows direct interaction between researchers and participants at the time of the research (Creswell, 2003). The cornerstone of qualitative methodology is the descriptions of people, places and events. In this study, the participants were the student-teachers and EFL lecturers in one private university in one province in Indonesia. In addition, Merriam (2009) states that the purpose of

qualitative research is “to achieve an understanding of how people make sense out of their lives, delineate the process of meaning-making and describe how people interpret what they experience” (p.14). The researcher is invited into the respondent’s world to see or understand the world through the respondent’s eyes, that is, to explore their “lived reality” (Patton, 2002, p.19). I chose to use this approach, as it is most likely to encourage participants to share their beliefs and perceptions about their English language teaching and learning experiences. This approach enables an in-depth study of motivational teaching strategies within a specific context.

Case study methods were used in this research. A case study method is a suitable strategy to answer the research questions, which aim for “a better and deep understanding of the real-life events” (Yin, 2009, p.5). Case study is a strategy used to answer “how” and “why” questions (Yin, 2009) or “research that provides a detailed account and analysis of one or more cases” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p.406). Case study research is primarily a process of meaning-making. It allows a researcher to investigate not just the “*what*- the content of respondent’s answer but the *how*” (Holsten & Gubrium, 1997, p.114).

Case study approach recognises the socially constructed nature of knowledge (Lichtman, 2010). Data produced through this method is authentic and reflects the subject’s “social world” (Yin, 2009). For example, in this case, a student or lecturer’s experience, value and knowledge of the learning process and the class, were dependent upon and contained within a specific context. This context includes the obvious limits of time and space, as well as an individual’s own social and cultural background (Creswell, 2005).

The most defining characteristic of case study research is the delimitation of the object of study, the case (Merriam, 2009). As Yin states (2009) a case may be an issue, process or concern but it is a bounded system such as a class comprising the student-teachers and their lecturers. In this project, the case is one cohort of student-teachers and EFL lecturers who taught this specific cohort of student-teachers in one private university in the area of Sulawesi Island of Indonesia, meeting Yin's criterion that a case is bounded by time and activity. In addition, in conducting such studies, it is important to choose cases with potential for fruitful results and accessible to researcher (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Lichtman, 2010).

3.3. Participants

In a qualitative study, the participant selection aims to locate information-rich individuals or cases (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). In line with this, an appropriate sampling strategy should be purposeful and be “ based on the assumption that the researcher wants to discover, understand and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned” (Merriam, 1998, p.61). Therefore, I purposefully chose to invite participation from one cohort of student-teachers and the EFL lecturers who taught a particular class in an English Education Department, Teachers Training and Education Faculty, at a private university in one province of Sulawesi Island, Indonesia. I asked the second year student-teachers in this university to participate for several reasons.

Firstly, it seemed likely that by the second year of their study in the faculty and after long-term exposure to mandatory foreign language instructions in secondary and high schools prior to their study in the university, the student-teachers would have had enough experience to reflect upon the process of learning English. In addition,

since the majority of the participants were student-teachers who will work or recently worked as teachers of English in several elementary and secondary schools, they were likely to be resourceful participants in this study. As they are teachers themselves, they have greater awareness of teaching strategies than students who have no interest in teaching as a vocation.

Secondly, most second year student-teachers have adjusted to their study workload better than first year student-teachers. Hence, the second year student-teachers would likely be more willing to participate in the study rather than the first year student-teachers, reducing the chance of student-teachers declining to participate. In total five EFL lecturers and 23 student-teachers participated in this study.

Manageability and feasibility factors were also considered in determining the context and participants of this study. Minimizing constraints such as time, budget and access (Johnson & Christensen, 2008) was another reason to choose the student-teachers and lecturers in this particular context as the participants. My position as a part-time teaching staff member at the study site for almost two years helped me to gain access necessary for conducting the research. I approached the Head of the Teacher Training and Education Faculty and then subsequently met the intended participants to invite them to participate in my study by distributing the letter of information. I sought detailed information about the student-teachers from one of the administrative staff. So, choosing this particular context of study helped me to minimize time and access constraints. However, I was also aware that being a staff member of this university may have placed me in a position that made it difficult for the student-teachers participants to decline to participants in my study. I have discussed this further in 3.6.

3.4. Procedure and method of data collection

This data gathering took place in Indonesia, particularly in one private university, in one province in the Sulawesi Island area of Indonesia over two weeks in 2010.

The fieldwork commenced by obtaining ethics approval from Faculty of Education (Appendix B) and permission to conduct the study from the head of the chosen faculty. I consulted with the Head of the Faculty and gave him the letter of information (Appendix C) two weeks prior to the commencement of the data collection. After a brief explanation of the study, the Head of the Faculty then signed the consent form (Appendix D). Furthermore, prior to the period of data collection, I explained the aim and the procedure of the study to the participants by sending (to EFL lecturers) and giving in-person (to student-teachers) the letter of invitation (Appendix E & F) and the permission form approved by Victoria University Faculty of Education Ethics Committee.

Data were collected from focus group discussions of student-teachers and individual interviews of EFL lecturers. Using a semi-structured interview allowed me to focus the discussion on the topic of interest (Gillham, 2000). Interviews are an appropriate method when a researcher wants to access in-depth information around the topic of investigation (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Hence, I employed semi-structured interviews to gather the beliefs, experiences and perspectives of the participants related to their own learning and teaching experiences in this study site. I asked the six questions (Appendix G) regarding their perceptions of motivational strategies used by the EFL lecturers in teaching at this particular teaching faculty to both the EFL lecturers and the students-teachers. In the semi structured interviews, I used an interview guide to open up and guide the discussion with the interviewees and this

enabled me to “follow all leads that emerge during the discussion” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 208). Moreover, since a good case study will use as many sources as possible, both individual interviews and focus group discussions were used (Yin, 2009). The following sections address each of these.

3.4.1. Individual interviews

I intended to interview EFL lecturers from the class chosen first and then continue with the focus groups of student-teachers after I finalized interviewing the lecturers. I planned this sequence because gaining the lecturers’ opinions might have given me interesting insights to be confirmed later with the student-teachers in the focus group discussions. However, due to the limited timeline of the data collection and the availability of each interviewee, I was forced to overlap interviews of the EFL lecturers and focus group discussions with the student-teachers. After gaining their permission, interviews and focus group discussions then were conducted in no strict order. Unfortunately, after I made three appointments, one of the six lecturers withdrew from the study for private reasons.

Following the semi-structured format, the interviews with five lecturers were conducted individually in an informal manner. I began the interviews by explaining the confidentiality of the data collection process. The nature of the interviews varied. One took more than one hour while the rest were less than thirty five minutes. Three of the interviews took place in the university shortly after each of the lecturers’ class was over, while two were conducted in the interviewees’ houses at their request. All the points emerging from the interviews were confirmed with the interviewee by reading the important points that I wrote in my notes before the interviews ended. At the end of each interview, the interviewee was asked if there were any important

issues related to the topic of the interview that the interviewee wanted to add or discuss. In addition, the participants were invited to read the interview transcripts. However, none of them wished to do so. All interviews were audio-taped for transcription and analysis.

3.4.2. Focus-group discussions

For the second part of the data collection process, I conducted the focus group-interviews with the student-teachers. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008), “a focus group is composed of six to twelve participants who are purposively selected because they can provide the kind of information of interest to the researcher.” (p.210). After considering the manageability and the efficiency factors in employing focus group as a method of data collection, I decided that one focus group in this study would comprise seven student-teachers or fewer.

One additional consideration in using the focus groups is that focus groups interviews are often very useful because one participant’s comment can easily trigger a chain of responses from other participants (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). In addition, this method is particularly useful to get rich data from people who might be reluctant to share specific ideas in an individual interview. A focus group interview can offer the feeling of security in sharing ideas. People who speak in a focus group may feel that they speak on behalf of the group and thus the ideas or opinion from one individual will be considered as a part of the group instead of the individual (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990). Hence, the participants could speak freely. Denscombe (2007) also states that one of the advantages of using a focus group is to create a group discussion and generate a range of ideas and opinions. The interactions of the focus-group participants and the way they added to each other’s

comments extensively enriched the focus-group discussions. Conducting focus group discussions were also the most efficient way of using time for both the student-teachers and myself, as each participant was invited to attend only one focus-group meeting at a specific time and venue.

The Teacher Training Faculty of the university provided me with a list of student-teachers' names. When I came to meet this cohort of student-teachers at the end of a class, I asked the student-teachers to remain for about 20 minutes while I introduced myself and spoke to them about my research. After the verbal explanation and distribution of the information sheet, I gave them an opportunity to ask questions about the study. I allowed two days for them to think further about their decision. On the agreed date, I came back to the university and met the student-teachers again after class to ask about their decisions. I then distributed the consent form (Appendix I) to student-teachers who wanted to participate.

Among the enrolled student-teachers of this particular cohort only three did not wish to participate. Based on the consideration of the ideal number of each focus group by Johnson and Christensen (2008), I then decided to group the student-teachers into four, to accommodate all the student-teachers who agree to participate. I then appointed four student-teachers to organise the focus groups. These four student-teachers were recommended by several lecturers to me as leaders who had the ability to organise a group.

There is a potential weakness in employing focus groups as a method of data collection. Members of the focus groups may not express their personal opinions in front of a group. Instead they may acquiesce to group opinions expressed. Therefore, self-selecting a group minimized the impact of weakness and improved the feeling of

security for members to disclose personal or disparate opinions in front of other group members. The student-teachers were allowed to self-select into the groups with the condition that one focus group could only consist of six to seven student-teachers and no student wishing to take part was omitted from the study. By choosing their own groups, participants may be more open to talk the same matters in front of other group members. This is particularly relevant for the majority of Asian students who are largely known to apply the rule of “silence is golden”. Therefore, by using self-selection I expected that student-teachers would be more open in talking about their values and perceptions. I asked each focus group organizer to help me to arrange the time, date and place of the focus groups based on a common agreement.

When the self-selection process was completed, three focus groups of six student-teachers and one group of seven student-teachers were formed. The organizer of each group then informed me about their preferred dates and venue for the discussions.

I began each discussion by explaining the focus group protocol (Appendix J). Two student-teachers from two different groups (group B and D) did not show up to their groups. Below is a table showing the total number of participants of each interview and focus-groups discussion.

Table 4. The table that shows the number or participants of interview and focus group discussions.

Participants of the study	
EFL lecturers	5 lecturers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lecturer A • Lecturer B • Lecturer C • Lecturer D • Lecturer E
Student-teachers	Group A (6 student-teachers) Group B (5 student-teachers) Group C (7 student-teachers) Group D (5 student-teachers)

All focus group discussions were conducted outside the student-teachers' learning time at the university to avoid any perception that might be developed by any party especially the student-teachers that the research had any relation to any of their coursework at the university. For reasons of convenience, all focus group discussions took place in a classroom in the university. The length of the focus group discussions varied, from 30 minutes to 70 minutes. I intended to ask the help of one person (from outside of the study context) to be the moderator for each focus group interview. The moderator would facilitate the group discussions, while I took notes during the interviews. After each interview, I would then confirm the main points with the interviewees to determine the accuracy of my notes from the interviews. Unfortunately, I could not recruit a moderator for the focus group discussions, because all possible candidates were out of town, mostly for fasting month-related activities. In order to maintain group confidentiality, I needed to find a skilful yet highly trustworthy person to be a moderator and this would have taken longer than I could afford. Therefore, to stick to the timeline, I moderated the focus groups by

myself while audio-recording the focus group sessions and writing the important points in the form of notes. A few minutes before each of the discussions ended, I confirmed all the main points emerging from the discussions with the student-teachers (member-checking). While this variation from my plan may have limited my interaction with the participants in the focus groups, as I was both moderating and taking notes, it also seemed to create a sense of intimacy that may not have been present if a stranger had been introduced as a moderator. Finally, the focus group participants were asked if they had issues related to the topic of the discussion that they wanted to discuss or add.

The recordings of all focus group discussion were then transcribed using pseudonyms for all participants. All important points were reconfirmed with the student-teacher participants by emailing and phoning one student from each group. In addition, I wrote notes to record my reflection and understanding of the interviews and discussions.

3.5. Data analysis and Coding

For this study, Nvivo8 was used to code and store all information gathered from focus group discussions and lecturers' interviews. Nvivo8 software allows researchers to restructure and utilize the data collected as well as systemize the research analysis procedure (Bazeley, 2007). One of the advantages of using Nvivo8 software is that it also allows the researcher to easily retrieve the data whenever it is needed.

Data analysis in a qualitative study is a dynamic, intuitive and creative process of thinking and theorizing (Basil, 2003). Following Merriam's advice (2009), I used line by line coding, open coding and selective coding to classify and categorize the

themes and sub-themes of the fieldwork interviews. Open coding involves the coding of data for all possible fits. Themes and categories were derived from the broad concepts of motivational teaching strategies in teaching English as a second/foreign language identified in the literature review and from reading the interview transcriptions. At this point, I was open to any possibility that was potentially relevant to answer the question of the study. Recurrent patterns of particular instances, whether of a word or phrase were examined. In facilitating the analysis, I coded the themes in Nvivo8 by creating tree nodes with hierarchical structures from the interview transcripts. All of these themes from the interviews transcripts were classified as tree nodes; that is they tended to include sub-themes. I worked through a process of reduction to come up with three main codes both from my reading and interviews.

The use of NVivo8 software helped me to work with the transcripts in a systematic way through the hierarchical node system. The transcripts were coded in Indonesian for the sake of time efficiency. When the data analysis was completed, the coded transcripts to be included in the findings chapter were then translated into English.

Once the data was coded, it was further analysed by looking for the themes. Analysis at this stage of the study drew on the theoretical framework for motivational teaching strategies for language learning devised by Dornyei (2001b). Dornyei's framework defines four macro strategies for motivational language teaching: creating the basic motivational condition, encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, generating initial motivation and, finally, maintaining and protecting motivation. These macro strategies are then broken down by Dornyei (2001b) into more than 100 micro motivational teaching strategies.

Qualitative content presents itself in the form of utterances or sentences as part of the interview transcripts. Unlike quantitative research, where the findings are summarised in terms of representative numbers, qualitative research in the form of interviews reports the findings by way of quotations from those participants in individual interviews and focus groups. For this study, then, the findings are reported by using illustrative quotes from both individual interviews and focus-group discussions.

3.6. Research ethics

It is a researcher's responsibility to protect the interests of its participants and to avoid unintended negative effects toward the participants both during and following the actual study. I adhered to ethical guidelines and ensured that the interests of student-teachers and EFL lecturers, the participants of this study, were not harmed as a result of participating in this study. These guidelines included: gaining informed consent, maintaining confidentiality of the participants, and sharing results with the interested participants.

All participants (five EFL lecturers & 23 student-teachers) gave their written consent by signing consent forms. These forms acknowledged that participants' identity would be protected. Moreover, this enabled the participants to understand the purposes of the study and what would be required of them as participants. In the information sheet and written consent form I provided details about myself as the researcher. The confidentiality of the participants was maintained by giving them pseudonyms such as "student 1 from focus group 2" or "S1FG2" in short, or "lecturer B" to protect their identities. The interviews were conducted in Indonesian language so the participants could speak freely and clearly without being obstructed

by English language limitations. The participants were advised that they could withdraw from the research up to 24 hours after the interviews or focus groups discussion. All lecturers' interviews and focus groups were transcribed by the researcher, and the transcripts were checked with the participants.

I made it clear to the participants through the meetings prior to the interviews and focus group discussions that I had with them, that my position as one of the teaching staff at the study site would not affect the student-teachers in any way (e.g. students' grades), whether they decided to participate or not, as I did not teach at this university at the time of the study and thus did not have control over their grades. Moreover, I had started my study leave to prepare for my departure for New Zealand when the enrolment of this cohort of student-teachers began. Since I had not taught these second year student-teachers nor met them previously, it was unlikely that these student-teachers would have felt any pressure to participate in the research.

Soon after the interviews and focus group discussions, I gave small tokens (New Zealand key rings and top-up vouchers) to each participant to show my gratitude and appreciation for their willingness to participate in this study. The summary of this study will be made available for the interested participants, the head of the chosen university and the head of Teacher Training Faculty in which this study was conducted.

As I was a lecturer in this faculty, one of the considerations in my data gathering and writing was a need to be sensitive to the student-teachers and the lecturers in terms of confidentiality. I reflected on ethical issues in interviewing my EFL lecturers colleagues, and I provided them with a very explicit explanation of how the data would be used and provisions I would use to safeguard their confidentiality.

3.7. Trustworthiness of the study

Trustworthiness or validity of research is an important consideration for a qualitative study. Guba as cited in Shenton (2004) proposes four criteria that should be considered by qualitative researchers in ensuring the trustworthiness of a qualitative study. Each of the criteria, transferability, confirmability, credibility and dependability is described in the following sections.

3.7.1. Transferability

Transferability of a study can be assured by describing the data extensively and compiling them in an orderly way so as to give other researchers the ability to transfer the findings of the study to other settings or cases (Bradley, 1993). A researcher should provide a sufficiently thick description of the study to allow readers “to compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the research report with those that they have seen emerge in their situation” (Shenton, 2004, p.70). The interview transcriptions from this study are described in the most detailed and thorough way to ensure transferability by any other interested researcher as well as to allow an assessment of the extent to which conclusions drawn in this study setting can be transferred to another.

3.7.2. Confirmability

Confirmability can be maintained by keeping records of all information and data from the study, so that reviewers can confirm that the results arise from the data (Bowen, 2005). In responding to this matter, all data such as consent forms and interviews as well as focus-group discussions transcriptions of the participants of this study will be kept securely stored until five years after the thesis is submitted.

3.7.3. Credibility

One of the ways to assure the credibility of a study is by employing member-checking, where the researcher checks the results with the participants of a study (Bradley, 1993). In assuring the credibility of this study, member-checking was conducted continuously. Member-checking was conducted when I read the notes from the interviews and focus-group discussions to the participants at the end of each interview or focus-group discussions. The participants pointed out instances where I had missed some points, so I then repeated the member-checking by phoning or emailing one student from each focus group and each lecturer until there was no further correction needed, as each point had been confirmed to be true by all of the participants.

3.7.4. Dependability

Lincoln and Guba, (as cited in Bowen, 2005) state that an audit trail, where others can examine the researcher's documentation of data and methods, can be used to demonstrate the dependability of a qualitative study. For this study, an audit trail was achieved through seeking the help of my supervisors. I sent the supervisors some parts of English translated transcriptions to show how I conducted the categorizing and analysing the transcriptions of individual interviews and interviews with the focus groups.

3.8. Limitations

There are limitations and challenges inherent in any research method. Realizing and elucidating limitations of a study is one way of showing the trustworthiness of the study to its readers (Glesne, & Peshkin, 1992). Specifically there were a number of limitations in this study and these must be recognised.

Careful consideration was given to the languages used in the data gathering process. However, a limitation in interpreting the data may have arisen because translating the interviews from Indonesian to English was a great challenge for me as a non-native speaker of English. The choice to use participants' L1 (Indonesian language) during the data collection was appropriate because the participants would not be obstructed by any language barrier. However, translating the meaning of certain words and phrases was time-consuming and difficult as it was challenging to find some words in Indonesian that meant exactly the same in English. In order to minimize this limitation, I rechecked the translation of some parts of transcripts from interviews and focus group discussions included in the findings chapter with the assistance of an Indonesian colleague, who at this time is undertaking a doctoral degree in Victoria University of Wellington. This process aimed to guard against misinterpreting the participants' meanings.

All data gathered in this study was in the form of self reports rather than actual classroom observations. Since the topic of this study is sensitive, the participants might have self-censored their views and opinions to meet social and academic expectations. Even though the participants were aware of the confidentiality of their identity, it was possible that the participants might not present views and opinions that show negative sides of the participants themselves or other people. This factor was particularly relevant to student-teachers who were being interviewed in group settings.

There was limited time period to gather the data (one and a half months). There was additional pressure because this was the fasting period in Indonesia and participants were busy with cultural and religious obligations at this time. I needed to fit the data collection process around the participants' busy schedules. This put pressures on me

as the researcher and it limited the time I had to reflect on the data as I gathered it. However, upon returning to New Zealand I was able to immerse myself in the data for a sustained period during the analysis and use regular discussions with my supervisors to help me become aware of any implicit assumptions that I may have brought to the data gathering process as a lecturer in the university setting of my study.

3.9. Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the reasons for the choice of the case, choice of participants, data collection method and analysis used in this study. A qualitative approach allowed me to seek rich answers to the research question and sub-questions. Given the need to gather in-depth reports, the semi-structured interview was the most appropriate method of the data collection. Interviews and focus group discussions were conducted with participants who were considered to be rich resources capable of answering the research questions. Data were analysed using a coding system and facilitated by the use of NVivo8 software. An analytical framework derived from the literature allowed for further considerations of these data. This study has used an appropriate methodology to explore and understand how the participants perceived the strategies used to teach English as a foreign language in this particular tertiary classroom.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter explains the findings of the research. In order to find out the perceptions of both student-teachers and the lecturers of the motivational strategies used in teaching English in the foreign language classroom, data from individual interviews and focus-group discussions was collected. Data sources were semi-structured interviews with individual interviewees (EFL lecturers) and focus group discussions (student-teachers) as described in the Chapter 3. The participants are quoted in the following form: lecturer A for an EFL lecturer and S1FG2 for student one in focus group 2. Three main themes emerged from the data: strategies that influence relationship between the student-teachers and EFL lecturers, general teaching methods and strategies, and challenges and problems related to the implementation of the motivational teaching strategies faced by the EFL lecturers.

4.2. Teaching Strategies that influence relationships between student-teachers and EFL Lecturers

The relationship of the student-teachers and lecturers is seen as one of the most significant factors influencing the success of the English teaching process as well as maintaining student-teachers' motivation in learning by the student-teachers and EFL lecturers. Both student-teachers and lecturers in my study mentioned several strategies which they found motivating and likely to enhance student-teachers' involvement in the teaching-learning process. Student-teachers particularly stated that they were more engaged in learning English in the classroom when there was a positive relationship between them and the lecturers.

Essentially, there was one broad theme that can be used as the umbrella of all motivational strategies relevant to the student-teachers and lecturers' relationship that the participants discussed, agreed, and regularly stated throughout the interviews and focus groups discussions; developing good rapport. According to the participants in this study, to develop a good rapport there was a great deal of seemingly simple practices that lecturers could apply. These aspects were giving advice and encouragement, displaying approachable behaviours, showing appreciation towards student-teachers' effort and particular ways of giving feedback.

4.2.1. Giving advice and encouragement

Giving advice was collectively accepted by the student-teachers and lecturers as a powerful tool to promote good relationships in this study site. When they were given advice by lecturers, most of the student-teachers formed the impression that the lecturers cared about them and their learning and it tended to create more informal relationship between student-teachers and lecturers.

There is one lecturer that I like, at the end of the teaching learning process, the lecturers gave us encouragement. It was in the form of wise words. The one that I remember is when the lecturer said "do not be afraid to do something, when you are afraid you will never achieve something". That is what the lecturer said, more or less. If I were a lecturer, perhaps I will be like this lecturer; motivate students. (S2FG4)

Student-teachers stated that they were pleased when the lecturers gave them advice, especially on how to master English grammar, or vocabulary based on the lecturers' own experiences. Sharing ideas and tips about being a successful English learner was also mentioned by the lecturers.

I always encourage them to learn English not just in Indonesia. I said to them that "you have to go abroad but you have to work hard", just like me. I went for study to overseas when I was already more than 50 years old. (Lecturer A)

According to the student-teachers and the EFL lecturers, the student-teachers were also excited and inspired when they were given encouragement by their lecturers. One lecturer added that in order for Indonesian people to learn English successfully, especially for adult learners, they need to be intrinsically motivated, just like the university student-teachers. This particular lecturer said that Indonesians who learn English at tertiary level are often driven by merely external motives (getting a better job) which may not be as powerful as intrinsic motivation. Since the lecturer quoted above believed that foreign language learners who are intrinsically motivated could be highly persistent in achieving a goal, he often gave encouragement based on the religious beliefs of the student-teachers. Religious encouragement was also given by one lecturer to build the student-teachers' self confidence of their own ability.

When I knew that there are many villagers who came to this city and settled for their study, I would tell them that whoever leaves their villages to truly pursue their study, their blood will be holier than the Shahid (Islam martyr)¹. It would provoke their intrinsic motivation. (Lecturer D)

The lecturer noticed that the EFL student-teachers in this university are people who hold strong onto their religious beliefs, so showing the student-teachers the relevance of their beliefs to study was an effective way to motivate their student-teachers in their learning.

4.2.2. Displaying approachable behaviours

All focus group participants agreed that one of the key factors in gaining their attention and encouraging involvement in the classroom activities was through the

¹ Shahid is the term used as an honorific for Muslims who have laid down their life fulfilling a religious commandment, or have died fighting defending their country or protecting their family. The shahid is considered one whose place in paradise is promised according to some verses in the Qur'an. Muslims also believe that God grants the reward of martyrdom to those who die in a variety of ways including death during childbirth and accidents such as fires and drowning. Regardless of how death occurred, Muslims believe that the reward of martyrdom is contingent upon proper belief, sincerity, perseverance, and thankfulness to God (source: <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shahid>).

lecturers' friendly and approachable behaviour. When a lecturer came into the classroom with a friendly facial expression, such as smiling and greeting the student-teachers, the student-teachers said that they were more relaxed. Student-teachers were also more enthusiastic when the lecturers started or elaborated on the lesson by telling funny stories of their experiences. Lecturers' inclusion of humour, smiles and fun in the class was considered by student-teachers to be a favourite motivational behaviour displayed by the lecturers.

That is one of the reasons. We were motivated because this lecturer never forced us to do something that we did not want to do. He also gets along well with students. There were always funny stories from him. (S2FG1).

The lecturers had similar opinions to those of the student-teachers. They often asked about their student-teachers' days before starting the real teaching learning process. This was probably intended to be a practical yet positive way to develop a good relationship with their student-teachers. One of the lecturers stated that it was also crucial to hold student-teachers attention throughout the teaching learning process. When he noticed any student-teachers not focused on his course, instead of explicitly asking the student-teachers to pay attention, he often made a joke to attract their attention back to the subject.

When the lecturer discovered a student was sleepy or probably chatting with other students, the lecturer did not, he was not furious. He did not reprimand or made the student feel down but in his humorous way, he attracted our attention back to the course content. That is what we like from this lecturer. (S4FG1)

One of the lecturers asserted that a lecturer should never display any intimidating facial expression or gestures in the classroom. He believed that avoiding unfriendly gestures in front of the class could help student-teachers to learn effectively.

As lecturers, we should never intimidate the students. If this happens, students could not absorb easily what we are trying to teach them. (Lecturer D)

Student-teachers told me that they felt motivated to clarify points about a task or assignment by asking for help from lecturers if the lecturers had a friendly facial expression. They disliked lecturers who seemed arrogant to them.

The student-teachers maintained that they understood the reason why some lecturers appeared unapproachable. According to the student-teachers, the most probable reason that these lecturers kept a distance between their student-teachers and themselves was because they wanted to remain objective about student-teachers' abilities and grades. But the student-teachers also insisted that as young adults, they knew how to maintain the boundaries of the relationship between student-teachers and lecturers. From the student-teachers' point of view, building a wall between the student-teachers and the lecturers was unacceptable to them. One of the focus-group discussions stated that:

I think a lecturer should regard university students as friends as well. Because as university students, we do know that there are boundaries, where the limits are, right? (S4FG1)

Based on a few of the student-teachers' statements during the discussions, there were two EFL lecturers who solicited questions from the student-teachers and checked for student-teachers' understanding on a regular basis. The lecturers usually did this at the end of each teaching session. The student-teachers regarded this kind of behaviour as a sign that their learning mattered to the lecturers.

This female lecturer, she said if you find it really difficult to understand, please give me a call or flick me a text, there is no problem. She did respond to it really well. She instantly replied, yes, she instantly replied. (S3FG4)

This kind of offer of help was received positively by the student-teachers. They felt encouraged to approach the lecturer for help. Taking the initiative to ask for help or

seek assistance from their lecturers or suggesting an idea for an activity in the classroom was never an easy decision for the student-teachers at this study site.

Every lecturer has their own method of teaching. There were some who just lecturing. Others asked us to do a task in a group. They implemented many kinds of strategies. We could not just straightforwardly state what we want to the lecturers. Sir, do not use the same method all the time when you teach, if you can, please change the methods. We could not say such things, right? It is impossible to say that. (S6FG1)

From this quotation of student-teachers, the student-teachers seemed reluctant to state their disagreement or opposing ideas to their lecturers as this might affect their relationship with lecturers. They also did not bother to ask for help from the lecturers who implicitly showed their reluctance to help by their behaviours or gestures.

There is one lecturer, while I was talking to him last time; he said “could you be fast a little bit, I am in a rush”. I did not know what else to say. (S2FG2)

Thus, approachable behaviours by the lecturers were crucial in assisting the student-teachers to overcome their hesitation to ask for help.

4.2.3. Showing appreciation and praising student-teachers' work

Many times, student-teachers found it difficult to convey their own ideas when they believed that the lecturer would not respond properly to their ideas, answers or opinions. But this cohort of student-teachers explained that some lecturers regularly showed appreciation of student-teachers' ideas or work. As a result, student-teachers felt positive about themselves. Indeed, such appreciation from lecturers helped them to reduce their reluctance to share ideas and opinions publicly in the classroom.

There was this lecturer who appreciated what we were saying. Even though it was probably not the right answer but he still appreciated it. So the students were motivated to speak out even though we were not sure with the answer. Even though the subject is a difficult one for us, our intention to learn stays. (S1FG3)

Similarly, some of the lecturers appreciated that some student-teachers found it difficult to share ideas or speak out in front of the class. The Indonesian formal educational system has maintained the ‘teacher-fronted’ classroom system for a considerably long time and students are expected to receive knowledge and learn skills solely from teachers. Students are not encouraged to participate actively in a classroom. Teachers have the power of control. In this teacher-dominated environment, the importance of talk as a tool for thinking and learning is rarely encouraged and students spend a lot more time listening in class than talking. As a consequence, most students are not used to methods of teaching and learning other than this teacher-fronted system and may be reluctant to express their ideas.

Considering this matter, some of the lecturers pointed out that the student-teachers’ efforts to participate should be acknowledged even by briefly showing verbal appreciation (such as simply saying ‘good’, ‘nice try’ or ‘great’) and not by instantly responding that a student’s answer was wrong. By responding in this way, the lecturers also expected that the student-teachers’ anxiety over making mistakes would be reduced.

They would not feel uncomfortable to make mistakes, because we allowed them to do that. We told them that it is okay. (Lecturer B)

According to lecturers, such responses were given more for the purpose of acknowledging the student-teachers’ brave decision to voice their ideas in front of the class rather than to act as feedback on the content of what the student-teachers said. The lecturers hoped that their appreciation for student-teachers’ effort could promote the feeling that student-teachers are expected to actively participate in the class.

Another aspect of building a positive relationship between the lecturers and the student-teachers relates to acknowledging and praising student-teachers' work. In two focus group discussions, a number of student-teachers implied that praise from lecturers boosted their self-esteem as well as their interest in the course.

4.2.4 Correcting an error or mistake

Getting feedback from their lecturers was highly appreciated by the student-teachers. It should be noted however that it was not only the content of the feedback that mattered for the student-teachers but also the means by which the lecturers delivered the feedback. In all four focus group discussions that I conducted with the student-teachers, complaints arose about the way some of the lecturers delivered feedback.

Focus group participants criticised how feedback was given. On one occasion, one lecturer corrected a student's error by reprimanding the student harshly in front of the class. This public humiliation reduced some of the student-teachers' motivation significantly.

There was a lecturer that made us feel down. That was when we were in the first semester. The lecturer said to one of our classmates "if you cannot speak English, you may go, you may move to the other programmes", something like that. (S2FG4)

For the next few class, most of the student-teachers chose to stay on the 'safe side' by keeping silent even they knew the answer to the lecturer's question. They did not want to run the risk of being humiliated. Humiliation of a student in front of the class can undermine the positive atmosphere of the class and inject distance into the student and lecturer relationship.

Some of the lecturers shared the same opinions about the significance of feedback for improving student-teachers' academic performance. Whenever possible, the lecturers

returned the student-teachers' work with general comments on how to improve their next work or assignment. Two lecturers in their interviews stated that they did criticize student-teachers' incorrect answers or assignments in class but did so privately. The lecturers added that they realized that making errors is the nature of learning. They often tried to make student-teachers understand this and also reduce student-teachers' anxiety by not correcting every single error. When it was not possible to give feedback to each student on their assignment paper, the lecturers would write down some points about the general mistakes of the student-teachers and discuss these in the next class without referring to a single student's assignment.

I discussed it in the class but I did not address it to a certain person and I did not tell specifically whose mistake it was. That is what I have done for all this time. (Lecturer C)

The majority of student-teachers were comfortable with this means of delivering feedback. Instead of spending a lot of time and energy in giving correction to each student and delivering feedback in a way that may be offensive to them and may lead to a less conducive atmosphere in the classroom, the student-teachers implied that this sort of communal feedback was the best way to deliver feedback to them, as they did not see any risk of embarrassment (being ridiculed or humiliated) by singling out a student.

There is this one lecture who corrected our work together in the class, without correcting all students' work. The lecturer did not correct all students. We could compare our work with other students. We knew our mistakes by discussing it. This motivates us, knowing that our work was not so good and then knowing where the error was. There was no negative effect for us. (S2FG4)

One lecturer also often employed peer correcting as the means of giving feedback to the student-teachers. He argued that by doing this method of correction, the student-teachers would not feel embarrassed.

The students were highly motivated. Why, because they corrected each other. They did peer correcting and were not embarrassed to correct each other. They asked each other (Lecturer B).

The embarrassment of making mistakes could be reduced, because the student-teachers only needed their work to be corrected by a few peers. The lecturer added that in a classroom of more than twenty student-teachers with a prescribed time allocation for each class, individual correction by the lecturer was often not a feasible practice.

4.3. Other teaching strategies

The majority of participants mentioned further strategies that motivate the student-teachers that are closely related to teaching methods. They often used the two terms (teaching methods and teaching strategies) interchangeably in the interviews and focus group discussions. Teaching methods were also seen as important in increasing the student-teachers' motivation to learn English in this particular class. There were a number of teaching methods and strategies that both EFL lecturers and student-teachers agreed were effective but there were also some which were mentioned only by the lecturers or the student-teachers. In section 1, all the teaching methods and strategies that the student-teachers and the lecturers collectively agreed to help the student-teachers' motivation are described. In section 2 and 3, the strategies which were mentioned either by only one of the two groups is elaborated.

4.3.1. Teaching methods and strategies that student-teachers and EFL lecturers regarded as motivating

4.3.1.1. Active learning (Working in a small-group/in pairs)

The student-teachers and the lecturers agreed that the student-teachers should be more active than the lecturers. The lecturers argued that at the university level, where

the student-teachers are young adults, active learning should be encouraged. In this study site, the lecturers used group-work or pair-work to encourage their student-teachers to be more active. There were two reasons proposed by the lecturers for choosing this method of teaching. Firstly, they observed that the student-teachers attempted and seemed to be more willing to contribute equally in group or pair work. Secondly, working together enhanced the student-teachers' confidence to attempt to do their best. In pairs or group work, attempts were made with less hesitation and anxiety because the student-teachers thought that they were at the same level.

They learned enthusiastically. I mean they posed questions to each other. They asked each other questions within the group, so when there was unmotivated student in the group, she / he could be motivated. (Lecturer B)

The student-teachers helped each other to learn. The higher-achieving student-teachers helped the lower-achieving student-teachers by giving broader explanations or clarification of topics in group discussions. The lecturers acted as a facilitator, circulating from group to group or pair to pair to observe and provide help whenever the student-teachers were stuck.

From my personal observation, they learned enthusiastically when they were divided into small groups and then they discussed certain topics. They seemed to talk and shared ideas more confidently with their peers rather with me. They were more enthusiastic because there was more chance to share ideas. They became more confident. It was more effective when they discussed some topics amongst themselves, with their own groups, and then discussed with the whole class. It was a more dynamic class. (Lecturer E)

The student-teachers seemed to agree with the use of this strategy in their classroom stating that it was one way of getting all student-teachers to be active in the process of teaching and learning English. Moreover, the difficulty level of a task could be a reason for student-teachers preferring to work in a small group or in pairs.

I actually preferred a group discussion or working as a group. I am not too fond of working individually. I think I am not very capable of doing certain tasks by myself. (S6FG1)

A lot of student-teachers stated that completing a task in a small group setting or in pairs brought numerous advantages for them.

In my opinion, actually there are more positive impacts of working in a group rather than the negative ones. In a group, each student can share their ideas. It is one way to make all of us talk. When we learned as usual, sometimes there would be student-teachers who did not focus on the material presented by the lecturers since the nuance of the class was just monotonous. In contrast, when we worked as a group, everybody could actively take part. (S1FG4)

Working in a small group allows us to share. Students, who are more knowledgeable than the rest, could share ideas or teach others, for example, share ideas on how to speak in front of the class. They can show how to be not shy and nervous to speak in front of others. (S5FG1)

Moreover, one lecturer stated that with this method of learning, he gave the student-teachers authority over their own learning.

Despite their agreement about the positive impact of working in small-group or in pair with the lecturers, some concerns were described by student-teachers about this strategy.

I think group work or discussion is good, because all of us can take part. Everybody can be active. In a group, there is a group leader. We could do tasks together and we did not do it individually. However, the drawback was that some friends did not contribute to the group work. Actually working as a group is good. It builds up our feeling of togetherness. Besides, it is a good opportunities to train our ability in speaking in English. But it would be better if we present the assigned task as an individual; each member of a group presents it. (S4FG1)

The student-teachers main concern about completing a task as a group was that there were times when each student contribution to the group project was not equal as some student-teachers tended to rely on their peers' contribution.

What I do not like from group work, such as discussion of a topic which is then presented in front of the class, is that not all group members equally contributed to the discussion. Only one or two participated. No matter how

hard we asked for all members to contribute equally, there is always one or two who did not contribute to the group. Unless the task must be presented individually in front of the class, there will be no equal contribution to the group. (S3FG1)

Some student-teachers then suggested a solution to overcome this concern by suggesting that there might be a rule that required all student-teachers to participate and contribute to their group. When a group task was assessed and counted toward a final grade of the student-teachers, the group work should be presented individually.

It will be better if we present the assigned task individually; it would be more effective. Just like what we did when we had a test for the Microteaching course. It was effective since we performed and were graded individually. (S1FG1)

Overall, there was support for working in small groups from student-teachers as well as the lecturers. They agreed that it brought numerous benefits to student-teachers' learning experiences.

4.3.1.2. Emphasis on speaking in English

English speaking is deemed central to EFL learning according to the lecturers and student-teachers in this Teacher Training Faculty. The student-teachers in this faculty believed that a student must have fluent oral skills in order to be considered good at English by peers or lecturers. Chances to speak in English were welcomed by many of the student-teachers.

What I like the most is the opportunity to speak in front of the class. This is really good for me because first, it can increase my ability to speak in public and to show that I can do it, to show that I can do more than my peers. (S3FG1)

Since opportunities to use and practise their English outside of the classroom were rare, the student-teachers in this faculty were excited when their lecturers encouraged them to use English to communicate verbally. The lecturers often gave them group or

individual tasks, such as oral presentations or debates (especially in speaking class), which required them to speak.

There was one lecturer; I think he taught a Speaking course. I am not sure which level of speaking course. I am happy with the course because the material was about monologues in speaking. (S2FG3).

The lecturers said that it was important that they encourage their student-teachers to practise their speaking skills because in an EFL context, the classroom context played a major role as the single source of knowledge and skill.

4.3.1.3. Lecturers as models

The student-teachers and their lecturers agreed that lecturers should be a good model for their student-teachers.

I always hold on to a principle that a teacher or a lecturer should be the one who is productive in the beginning and the students are the receiver. I showed the student-teachers how to do a particular task then I let them to do it independently. (Lecturer D)

The most obvious example of being a good model as an English teacher, as described by the participants, was speaking English in the classroom. The lecturers stated that since they expected the student-teachers to be able to speak and practise their speaking skills, the lecturers regularly showed them how by demonstrating it themselves. The lecturers were the role model for these student-teachers.

As teachers, we should be able to be a linguistic model. They pick up many good things from us, their lecturers. Then we should also give them opportunities to express their ideas by using English as the means of communication. (Lecturer E)

The lecturers claimed that by providing a good model by communicating and transferring knowledge to the student-teachers in fluent English, the student-teachers' confidence in practising their English speaking skill was likely to be enhanced.

However, realizing that not all student-teachers would have the same ability in speaking English, the lecturers asked their student-teachers' opinion about how frequently English should be used during the class. The lecturers invited student-teachers to decide whether to use English all the time or combine it with their first language with the condition that since the class is an English language class, the use of English should be more frequent than the student-teachers' first language (L1).

I gave students alternatives in my class so that they could understand. Fortunately, many times most of the students chose combinations of both languages. Since it was agreed by all students, then I said okay, I agreed with the combination too. But English should be used more than Indonesian. Then, that was what we did; we used a combination of both languages throughout the teaching-learning process. (Lecturer D)

The use of a combination of both languages (Indonesian and English) was more frequent in theoretical English courses. These concern that the lecturers had that the student-teachers would not fully understand the content of the course if English was used as the main means of communication in the classroom was even more frequent if a course was highly theoretical (such as Sociolinguistic or English Morphology).

Most of the time, I speak in English. But I still use Indonesian. I think there are concepts that the students would find it difficult to understand especially if it is explained in English; so I explain it in Indonesian. Even though we are in an English department but what we are dealing with is more theoretical. So I need to explain it in our language. (Lecturer E)

4.3.1.4. Practising

Practising was often employed in Grammar or Structure class and in Speaking class. The student-teachers were taught first how to do tasks and this was followed by a lengthy amount of practice. The lecturers suggested that this was possibly the most efficient technique in teaching English grammar in this class. Based on the lecturers' personal observation of student-teachers' behaviours in the class, this practising technique was also received quite well by the student-teachers.

I would show them how to do it once, a little bit of theory, and after the second meeting, it would be the time to practise. That is what I do in certain courses. That is what I have done in my class so far. (Lecturer B)

4.3.1.5. Varying the teaching materials and teaching methods

The lecturers who employed a variety of teaching materials and methods were also viewed favourably by the student-teachers. There was only one lecturer that the student-teachers reported being creative in teaching them and who did not rely heavily on the textbooks recommended by the curriculum. This lecturer often used different methods in teaching his course.

In certain times, I used electronic media such as using in focus and the laptop to present the materials. Sometimes I bring them out of the class for outdoor learning. (Lecturer C)

The student-teachers reported that unlike others, this particular lecturer did not spend so much time lecturing. Instead he often employed different kinds of teaching methods for each session that he taught. The student-teachers said that “*the techniques used by the lecturer were varied*”. (S2FG2)

The lecturers generally found it quite difficult to vary their teaching methods and strategies as they said they could not afford to set aside time due to their commitment to other workplaces. Another barrier was their inability to contact the university’s security staff in time to have access to resources (Language laboratory unlocked) to adapt their classes to meet the need of the student-teachers.

Sometimes, I wanted to use the language laboratory but the security person was not available. Our time schedules were not matching. I wanted to use the language laboratory but it was locked. (Lecturer B)

As a result, the lecturers tended to find and stay within their comfort zone when it came to how they taught and what they did.

4.3.1.6. Giving timely and informative feedback

The biggest complaint from the student-teachers related to feedback. The student-teachers complained that very few of the lecturers gave them their work or test results back. Some work was returned whereas some was not.

It would be better if our work were returned to us, do not leave us hanging and wondering about it. When it was only a grade, we wondered why we only got this, let say D for example, while I am sure my answers were good enough to get higher than that grade. (S6FG1).

Moreover, mostly when the student-teachers got the work or test result back, there was usually nothing written by lecturers except the grade and ‘cross’ or ‘tick’ marks.

You can imagine how we felt when we got our work back with so many cross marks all over the work, only those marks. We definitely felt no necessity to ask for confirmation. (S4FG2).

Conversely, student-teachers were pleased when other lecturers gave their work back with informative feedback.

This is a good thing, because we could, after the lecturer checked our work, he explained what the right answers were, so when we had the final test in the next three months, we knew how we could answer it correctly. (S3FG4)

Sometimes the feedback was given a long time after the submission of a task or assignment, when the student-teachers were already getting new assignments from the lecturers. So the student-teachers found it difficult to reflect on what was needed to improve earlier work.

Even student-teachers who earned high grades wanted to know how their work rated; what made them deserve the high grades. When they were not getting any feedback, the student-teachers, especially the ones who got a low grade, seemed to be less engaged with the following tasks or assignments given by the lecturers.

I do not mind if there is assignment for us every day, as long as the lecturers check it or discuss it. If not, what is the point? (S2FG2)

A lot of focus group participants admitted that they tended to withdraw from classroom activities organised by the lecturers who rarely gave them feedback as they assumed there would not be any point in participating. Reactions of the student-teachers towards lecturers who were slow to return their work or assignment after submission tended to be more negative. They would not put a great effort into their work, as the way to achieve the best results was unclear to them.

The lecturers also understood the importance of feedback for their student-teachers' progress and motivation in learning English. One of the EFL lecturers who regularly returned his student-teachers' work along with feedback believed that returning the students' work maintained the student-teachers' trust in him; especially since he attempted to be objective in marking the student-teachers' work.

This is one of the important things; I always return homework and tests. I returned it to the students. That is objective. We could not one-sidedly correct the work; especially for the Writing course. I corrected it then we discuss it in the class, discuss what it should be. (Lecturer A)

However, possibly due to time constraints and commitments at different workplaces, the frequency with which each lecturer gave feedback was different. There was only one lecturer who returned the student-teachers work with feedback regularly and this was also confirmed by the student-teachers. The majority of the lecturers did not do so on a regular basis.

4.3.2. The student-teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies used by their EFL lecturers

In this section, the teaching strategies and methods mentioned and perceived as motivating solely by the student-teachers are described. The student-teachers stated that their lecturers frequently employed these strategies but each lecturer used them

with different frequency. Four main points proposed by the student-teachers as motivational strategies were giving challenging tasks, integrating fun activities, providing activities with a performance component, and employing a structured teaching process.

4.3.2.1. Giving challenging tasks

Giving challenging tasks was considered by the student-teachers as highly motivating in learning English. Often, they would willingly spend more time in an effort to accomplish a task that challenged them.

In the Writing course, we were not only asked to write the assignment on paper but we have to submit it through internet and send it to the lecturer's email and there was a deadline for that assignment. So for us who have limited skills, it motivates us to accomplish the task. (SIFG3).

Apparently, the integration of technology in the tasks initiated by some of the lecturers was considered as challenging for the student-teachers. This is understandable because according to the lecturers and student-teachers themselves, the majority of the student-teachers originally come from more remote areas than the provincial capital, where the Teaching Faculty is situated. In those areas, communication infrastructure such as telephones or internet may not be fully developed.

4.3.2.2. Integrating fun activities

What the student-teachers in this study meant by 'fun activities' mainly related to the use of electronic media by the lecturers in the classroom. The student-teachers expected their lecturers to make the most out of the electronic media such as television and CD players provided at this teacher training and education faculty. The student-teachers stated that very few lecturers integrated fun activities in the

classroom teaching-learning process, such as listening to songs in the Listening course and watching a short English movie (also in the Listening course). While the student-teachers were excited about experiencing these activities in the classroom and hoped that the lecturers would use these as often as possible, the lecturers did not mention this area at all.

In the Listening course, I like the warming-up part because before we started to listen to the cassette which was really hard for us, we were given a warm-up in the form of listening to interesting songs. So we could enjoy ourselves and we could sing along as we like too. (S3FG2)

The majority of the focus group participants agreed that integrating fun activities could make the class more enjoyable and relaxing. From the previous student's statement, it is obvious that fun activities could be useful in preparing the student-teachers for the difficult part of the learning. Outdoor learning employed by two of the lecturers in writing courses where the student-teachers were asked to write paragraphs while sitting and observing nature was also considered as a "fun activity" by the student-teachers.

4.3.2.3. Giving chances to perform

Some of the lecturers emphasized the whole process of the student-teachers' learning rather than just the student-teachers' performance. Emphasizing performance was perceived as motivational by the student-teachers. For example, student-teachers were delighted to get opportunities to perform or to practise their speaking skills in front of the class. But some student-teachers objected when a lecturer required a written speech in English to be submitted after the student had performed their speech, especially when it was clear that the lecturers also counted the written assignment toward their final grades. The student-teachers argued that since it was a Speaking class, the submission of a written assignment was irrelevant.

Once, the lecturer decided that a student who wrote the longest monolog was the one who could perform. Come on, that was a monolog. For me it was just wasting time. I am a kind of student who does not like to write. What I suggest here is even though I could only write a short piece of writing it does not mean that I could not present it more than what I have written. But the lecturer insisted that it should be written and the students who were allowed to perform were the ones who wrote the longest monolog. (S2FG3)

The emphasis on the process rather than just the outcomes of the student-teachers by some lecturers could have been used as a way to integrate as many skills as possible within one learning task (writing then speaking) rather than just one skill (speaking).

4.3.2.4. Employing a structured and well-planned teaching process

The student-teachers argued that a well-planned and well-structured teaching learning process would effectively maintain their motivation. The student-teachers expected that the lecturers would come to class prepared. Knowing the steps of the teaching process beforehand made it easier for the student-teachers to pace their own learning. In addition, a structured and planned teaching process allowed the student-teachers to have an approximate idea of the effort that they need to exert in the process. This sense of control made them less anxious in the classroom. When lecturers clearly communicated teaching-learning objectives, the student-teachers found it motivating and engaging.

So before the lecturer starts, he made a kind of map. He elaborated in the map what we would do; what he would teach us. (S2FG2)

One participant supported the significance of this teaching strategy by stating:

I have taught for 3 years now. A teacher is required to have lesson plans. They must have it. Why do the lecturers not do the same? You can imagine the extent of our motivation if the lecturer does not plan what she / he is going to do. (S4FG2)

One lecturer mentioned that he often explained all materials or topics to be covered for the term in the first class period. Several minutes before the end of each class, he

reminded the student-teachers about the main points to be covered in the next class. This lecturer helped the student-teachers to be prepared well in advance and this also reduced their anxiety.

In addition, the student-teachers stated that the lecturers who directly jumped into the learning process without conducting a warm-up first were less likely to hold their attention and engagement in the classroom. Warming-up activities could reduce the anxiety of the student-teachers by activating their prior knowledge so they could anticipate what was to be learnt that day.

I found one lecturer that made my friends and me happy to learn the subject because the lecturer gave us a warm-up exercise. There was a warm-up step in the beginning. (S2FG2)

The student-teachers also complained that some lecturers did not adequately conclude their lectures due to the lack of time management skills in teaching. They often ran out of time, so the class was dismissed in the middle of a discussion or uncompleted task.

4.3.3. The EFL Lecturers perceptions of motivational strategies in teaching English

The following teaching methods and strategies came from the lecturers' point of view. They argued that the strategies elaborated below were employed because of their positive impacts on student-teachers' achievement and motivation in all aspect of English. However, the lecturers arrived at these conclusions by drawing it from daily observations they made during the teaching process in the classroom. Only one of the lecturers explicitly solicited the student-teachers' perceptions and opinions on the strategies employed in the classroom. Even then, the responses of the student-teachers were unclear. The student-teachers had never openly objected to any strategies or teaching methods that the lecturer used or proposed. The lecturer added

that the student-teachers just agreed to every strategy that the lecturer suggested. The lecturers identified four main motivational teaching strategies: encouraging grammar mastery, knowing the student-teachers' prior knowledge, memorization and process-oriented teaching.

4.3.3.1. Encouraging grammar mastery

In these EFL classrooms, grammar was the main focus of English teaching. All EFL lecturers put great emphasis on the mastery of grammar. Regardless of the subject that the lecturers taught, they encouraged the student-teachers to allocate time to learn and master English grammar. This emphasis was aimed at developing student-teachers' awareness of the importance of this aspect.

I always emphasized to the students that having enough vocabulary will help them. They can guess the meaning of words. But the most important thing is their mastery of grammar and structure. (Lecturer A)

The reason behind this was that the lecturers were concerned about the student-teachers' limited mastery of English grammar in this study site. Even though the teaching of English grammar was carried out from secondary school up to university level as an obligatory subject in schools, the student-teachers' mastery was perceived by the lecturers to be far from satisfactory.

What I could understand is that our students in this city had ideas to write. I cannot say this is a general picture of Indonesian' students, but in writing the student-teachers in this city have the ideas but still have many difficulties in arranging their sentences. What should go first, they put it in the end or vice versa. But the worst was the structure. That is the reason why I give special attention to their grammar. In writing class, besides correcting their writing style, I always correct their grammar. (Lecturer D)

This was a concern since the student-teachers are most likely or will be teachers in secondary or high schools. In all secondary and high schools in Indonesia, English is one of the three obligatory subjects which are tested nationally. Grammar or structure

makes up to 70% of the English national test. So these student-teachers require mastery of English grammar. Moreover, entrance to universities in many parts of Indonesia is currently dependent upon the ability of student-teachers to pass English tests. Many universities require high schools students and bachelor degree holders to pass a TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) in order to gain entry. A significant portion of this test is based on knowledge of grammar.

4.3.3.2. Knowing the student-teachers' prior knowledge

Of the five EFL lecturers in this research, one mentioned how crucial it was to establish the student-teachers' prior knowledge before commencing the teaching process. He suggested that by finding out their prior knowledge he could more easily arrange an effective and efficient teaching process. It prevented the lecturer from repeating a topic that had been mastered by the student-teachers. He allocated a shorter time to teach a particular topic if it had been discussed before and allocated more time to others that had not been mastered by the student-teachers.

The first strategy that I employed in the first meeting was to discover the potential of the students because it is related to their prior knowledge. If I did not do that, I would have taught something that irrelevant to the students' knowledge. So knowing their prior knowledge is necessary. (Lecturer D)

The lecturer argued that the student-teachers may lose interest in the learning material and lose their engagement if this material has been presented and discussed in previous classes or semesters and especially if the student-teachers have mastered it.

4.3.3.3. Memorizing

Memorizing was also frequently used by the lecturers in order to improve the student-teachers' mastery of English. This was mainly used in the subjects that

require student-teachers' to understand and memorize theories such as Sociolinguistic theory. One lecturer who had been in charge of teaching Reading courses for many years in this Teaching Faculty also used this approach regularly.

In the materials, there were numerous words that I put, vocabulary and idiom, and I asked the students to memorize these. (Lecturer A)

The lecturer claimed that this approach allowed the student to add to their English vocabulary with greater ease. Although none of the lecturers who employed this approach in their class had done an empirical survey to provide evidence of the effectiveness of this approach in maintaining and increasing student-teachers' motivation to learn in this study site, they maintained that many of the student-teachers responded well to this approach and the student-teachers showed good progress in their vocabulary mastery as a result of using this strategy.

4.3.3.4. Process-oriented teaching

Process-oriented teaching was adopted by one of the lecturers in teaching his student-teachers. He argued that to achieve engaging and successful teaching, emphasis should be put on the process rather than the result.

I have a teaching principle that I will focus more on the process rather than the learning outcomes. I think if the process is running well, the outcomes would be good too. As I focus more on the process, I always try to create a dynamic interaction in the classroom. (Lecturer C)

In clarifying what he meant by process-oriented, the lecturer used the example of discussions in the classroom. According to this lecturer, when he divided the student-teachers into groups for discussions of some course materials, he preferred to give more attention to the student-teachers contributions to the discussion rather than to the student-teachers' speaking accuracy.

4.4. Challenges and problems related to the motivational teaching strategies faced by the EFL lecturers

All of the lecturers stated that they continuously faced a number of challenges and problems in employing the strategies that they know to be effective in keeping their student-teachers' motivation at a high level. Of the four challenges and problems elaborated below, only two were mentioned by the student-teachers. These are individual differences and the EFL lecturers' commitment to their permanent workplace. Whereas the lecturers described the three challenges they faced (the lecturers' commitment, the flexibility of each teaching strategy and method and lack of supporting media and facilities). This means the commitment factor was the only aspect considered by both the student-teachers and lecturers as a challenge that might prevent the full use of motivational strategies in teaching English in this class. The three other challenges came either from the student-teachers' or the lecturers' point of view.

4.4.1. The EFL lecturers' commitment to their permanent workplace

The EFL lecturers in this study site were all government-paid lecturers posted as full-time permanent lecturers in the public university in this province. The study site itself, as a Teacher Training and Education Faculty in a private university, had no permanent EFL lecturer. The EFL lecturers from the public university were hired on a part-time basis to teach in the Teacher Training and Education Faculty in this private university. The Teaching Faculty's operational hours, which usually started in the afternoon, allowed these lecturers to be able to teach in both universities. However, both student-teachers and the lecturers agreed that there was a possibility that this arrangement disadvantaged the Teaching Faculty and the student-teachers.

The student-teachers stated that the lecturers' permanent working status elsewhere impacted the lecturers' performance in teaching them and thus led to the student-teachers' disengagement in the process.

To be honest, we felt unmotivated to study when we saw the lecturer was sleepy and seemed tired, in the middle of teaching-learning process sometimes the lecturer closed his eyes, automatically we felt sleepy as well (S4FG1)

The student-teachers maintained that they understood that the lecturers make their permanent workplace top priority over other part-time workplaces that they have such as the Teaching Faculty, the context of this study. Probably because of their workload, many lecturers came to class looking tired in the afternoon or evening. In fact, one lecturer admitted that he struggled to attend the meetings at this Teaching Faculty due to the workload and commitment that he had elsewhere.

In my first year teaching here, I completed all the meetings, 16 meetings in each classroom, it was only in my first year. When I was getting busier and busier teaching in other places, the classes was never 16 meetings anymore. Sometimes, it was less than it should be. Sometimes I came once to complete two classes. (Lecturer D)

4.4.2. Flexibility of each teaching strategy and method

Lecturers argued that even though they wanted to employ a variety of teaching strategies and methods that they assumed to be motivational in teaching English in their class, they still found obstacles to implement this idea. The lecturers suggested that particular strategies might not fit the nature of their course or every student-teachers' expectation.

A strategy is not an absolute thing. It means that sometimes one student expects a certain strategy and other student expects another one, but it might not suit the nature of the student-teachers. (Lecturer A)

4.4.3. Student-teachers' differences

The student-teachers' differences in terms of what strategies they found motivating in learning English was described by both student-teachers and the lecturers. The student-teachers understood that it was not possible for their lecturers to motivate all student-teachers in each course. Each student is different in numerous ways. One strategy could be perceived as effective and motivating by some whereas the rest of the student-teachers might not feel the same way. Therefore, the student-teachers said it was impossible for their lecturers to address the needs of every student in the class.

There are many students here, not only one but many. Each of them has a different idea, different wish. Let say lecturer A, the way he teaches was cool, motivating, or the way he transferred his knowledge was good but on the other side there must be a student who did not like it and this student would be lazy about joining in on the class. So to employ just one good strategy, I think it would be difficult; it is difficult. Maybe one strategy is good enough, but there are so many students here. (S5FG4)

In a similar vein, the lecturers found it frustrating trying to please all student-teachers with their teaching strategies.

4.4.4. Supporting media and facilities

Almost all of the lecturers mentioned that the availability of facilities was their main reason for choosing certain strategies over others. One lecturer described his reason as follows:

Of course there was a consideration when I decided to use a strategy. Probably there was another better alternative but it was not supported by many factors, such as facilities. So I just used what I knew that could be supported. (Lecturer C)

Even though the lecturers mentioned the importance of varying the strategies and methods that they use in ensuring the engagement of the student-teachers, they said that mostly they could not achieve this as the infrastructure in this study site did not

support certain technologies. One of the lecturers further explained his opinion of the inadequacy of the facilities as follow:

There is no supporting facility. I think people understand if you explain that one of the weaknesses is in the infrastructure, electricity, facility. So, lecturers could not present materials by using visual supports, or by using PowerPoint features. I think this is also an important issue to bring up. Students could be more interested and it would be easier for lecturers to do that instead of having to write everything up on the board all the time. (Lecturer E)

From the interviews, it was clear that the lecturers realized the importance of using certain media such as presenting teaching materials in Power Point instead of just using the white-board all the time. However, from my observations, this Teaching Faculty is well-equipped with facilities such as a language laboratory with an audio and video media player and this may be one reason why the student-teachers did not say anything about this matter. The participants reported that most of the time the lecturers had to make a booking in advance with a security guard at the Teaching Faculty to use the language laboratory. Otherwise the laboratory was locked at all times for security reasons.

4.5. Conclusion

This chapter has presented both sides' perceptions, the lecturers' and the student-teachers', of motivational teaching strategies in teaching English in a foreign language classroom in one private university in the Sulawesi Island region of Indonesia. In addition to the shared perceptions that the lecturers and student-teachers had over some strategies used in teaching English as a foreign language, student-teachers and lecturers also held some differences of opinion. In terms of strategies that maintain a good relationship between student-teachers and lecturers, the student-teachers and the lecturers shared very similar perceptions. However, different perceptions were revealed when the general teaching strategies employed

by the EFL lecturers in their classroom were discussed. Nonetheless, the student-teachers and lecturers' opinions of issues and challenges faced by the lecturers in employing motivational strategies in teaching English in this study context were quite similar to each other. The lecturers' commitment to other workplaces was found to be one of the significant challenges faced by the lecturers.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter explores the findings that I described in the previous chapter. The findings showed that there are some motivational strategies agreed upon by both the student-teachers and the EFL lecturers. The student and the lecturers shared similar perceptions of the motivational strategies employed by the EFL lecturers in this study site. However, mismatches of perceptions between both sides were also discovered, and mainly related to the general teaching methods and strategies used by the EFL lecturers. This chapter discusses the findings presented in the previous chapter in the light of previous research. To discuss the findings systematically and comprehensively, the motivational teaching strategies and the student-teachers and lecturers' perceptions of the strategies are presented as four separate themes (creating the basic motivational condition, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation). These are based on Dornyei's (2001a) process-oriented model (as described in Chapter 2). Figure 1 presents this model, indicating the main macro-strategies associated with each dimension. Dornyei's model of motivational process, moving from the initial arousal of the motivation to the evaluation of the motivated actions provides a rigorous framework for discussing the findings of my study and a logical way of considering the central themes in this discussion chapter.

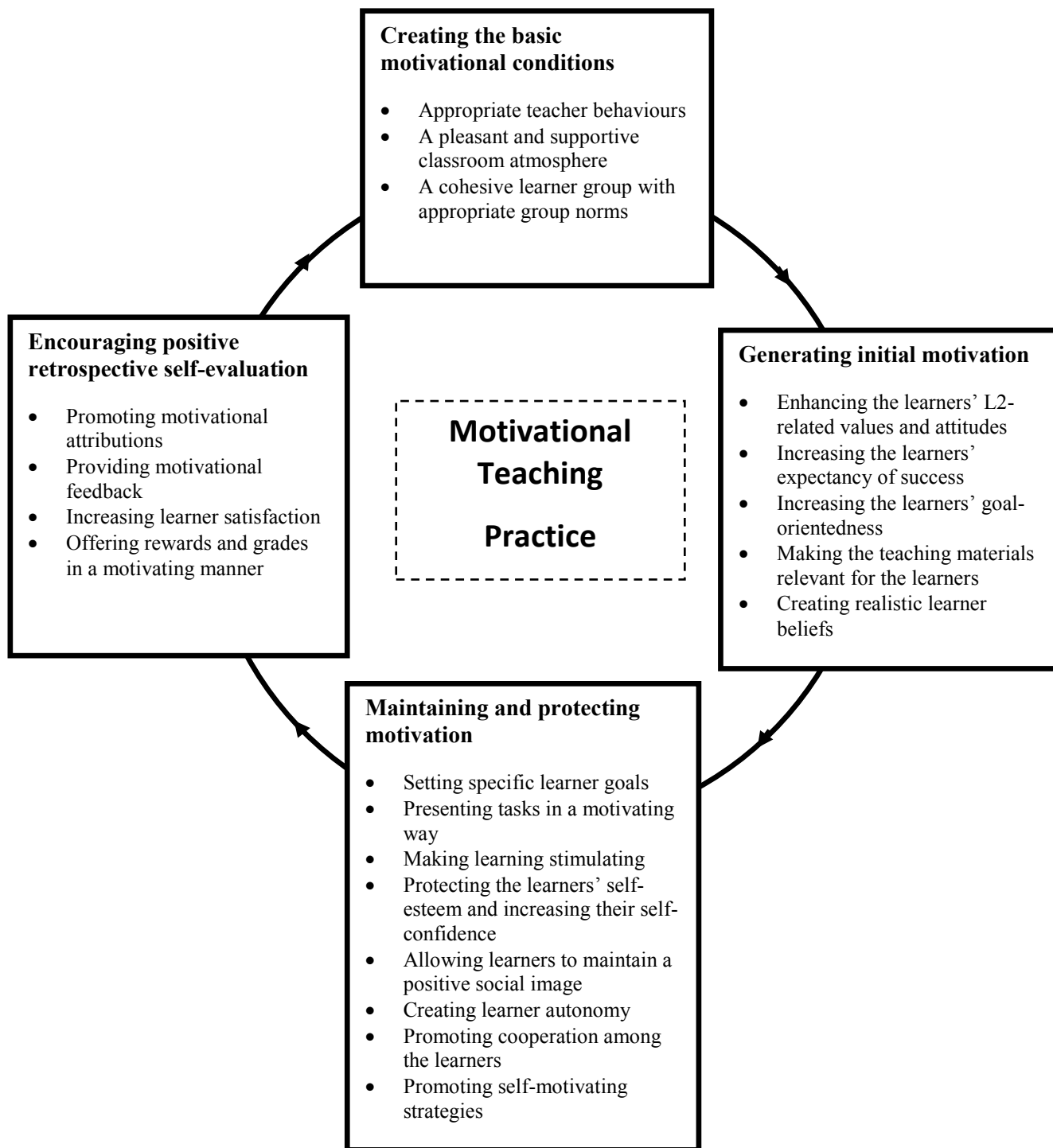


Figure 1. Dornyei's framework of motivational teaching practices (2001b, p.29)

I then adapted Dornyei’s framework of motivational teaching practices to accommodate the motivational strategies of teaching English as a foreign language that were evident in my study as presented below. This framework provides a way of organising the themes that arose from data and will provide a structure for analysis.

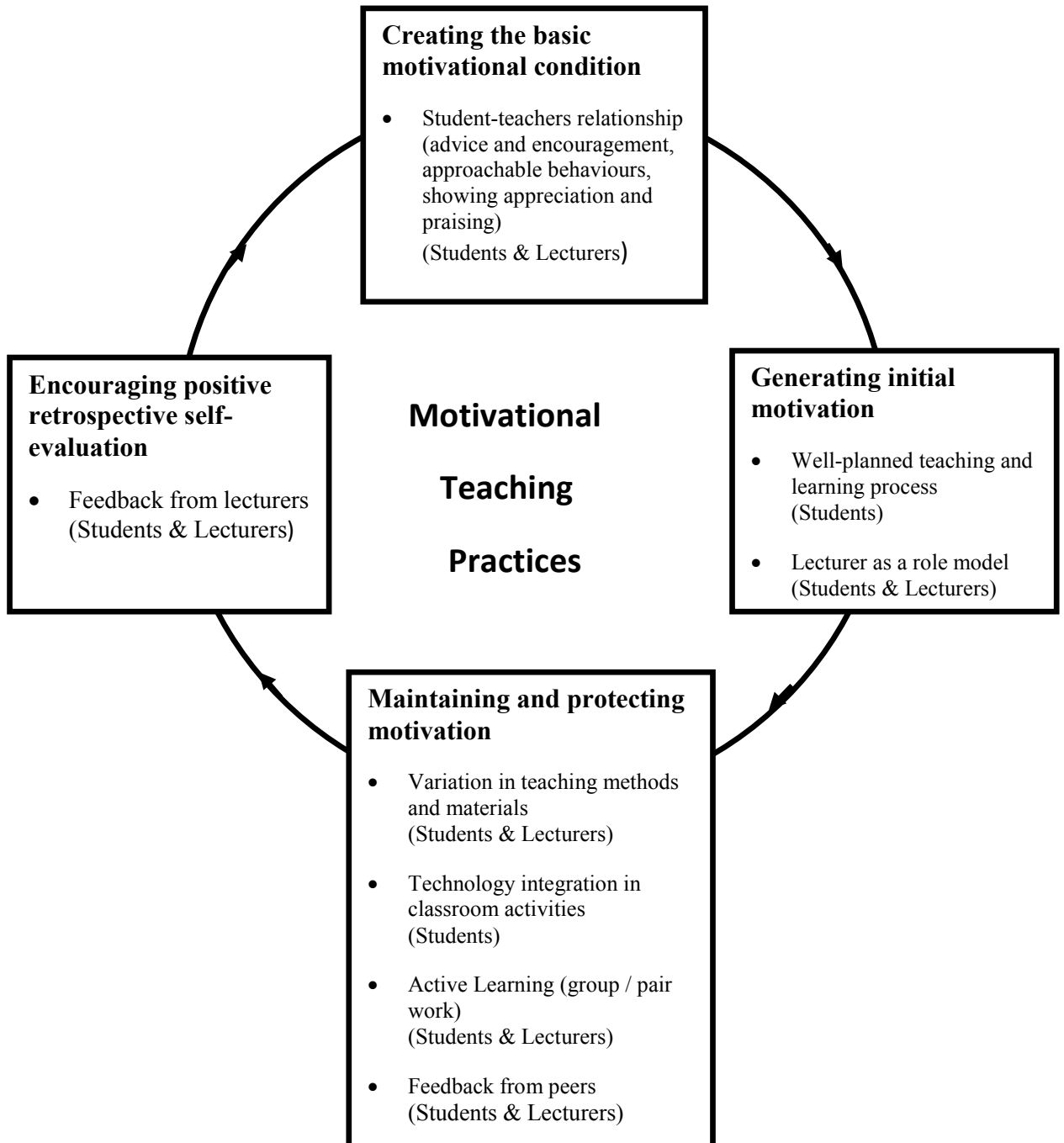


Figure 2. A revised model of motivational strategies based on this study findings

5.2. Creating basic motivational conditions

Dornyei's included three macro-strategies in motivating students to learn under this first stage of creating basic motivational conditions in a second/foreign language classroom. The three macro-strategies are: appropriate teacher behaviours and good relationship with the students, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms (2001b).

The three macro-strategies are the preconditions in generating students' motivation in second/foreign language in a range of study contexts (2001a & 2001b). Therefore, it is apparent that these macro-strategies play a pivotal role in initiating the effectiveness of other stages in this framework. Nevertheless, my study revealed only one macro-strategy that fits into this first stage of Dornyei's motivational teaching strategies framework (figure 2): maintaining good rapport with student-teachers.

5.2.1. Teaching strategies in maintaining the student-teacher relationship

The purpose of this study is to investigate perceptions of the student-teachers and lecturers regarding the motivational teaching strategies used in an EFL tertiary classroom. Student-teachers and lecturers agreed that a supportive classroom atmosphere was achieved by lecturers displaying appropriate behaviours. The findings showed that a good relationship between student-teachers and lecturers was considered one of the most influential factors by the participants of this study in this context. Many participants felt that engagement that comes from this not only leads to the enhancement of student-teachers' motivation but also leads to improved academic achievement. This belief is supported by Dornyei's study (2001a), when he showed that engagement in class activities is a major indicator of students' academic achievement. Academic achievement and students' behaviours toward their learning

are greatly influenced by the quality of the rapport between students and teachers (Dornyei, 2001a & 2001b; Meng & Wang, 2006). Students are more willing to engage in learning activities when there is a positive student and teacher relationship in the classroom (Maulana, Opdenakker, den Brok & Bosker, 2011).

Students who experienced good rapport with their teachers reported increased enjoyment, class attendance and attentiveness in a course (Abdo & Breen, 2010; Benson, Cohen & Buskist, 2005). Similarly, good rapport has been found significant in keeping students enrolled in foreign language courses. Students' willingness to participate in class and to ask questions when they do not understand, is a major indicator of a positive relationship between students and teachers (Abdo & Breen, 2010; Brophy, 2010; Dornyei, 2001b). These statements directly relate to comments made by the student-teachers and lecturers in this study.

Most teachers and students regard the relationship between students and teachers as the most significant variable affecting students' attitudes towards second (L2) or foreign language (FL) learning (Dornyei, 2001a). The findings from my study also illustrate that the student-teachers and the lecturers attached a great importance to sharing a positive relationship. Participants in Dornyei and Csizer's (1998) study ranked developing a good relationship with the students in the language classroom as the fourth most significant motivating behaviour by the teachers. However, participants in my study placed even greater emphasis on building a positive relationship with members of the class. Both the student-teachers and the EFL lecturers agreed upon three ways the lecturers may create a positive academic student and teacher relationship in the classroom: giving advice and encouragement, displaying approachable behaviours, showing appreciation and praising student-teachers' good work.

The first factor in building a relationship according to both the student-teachers and lecturers in this study was encouragement from the lecturers and academic advice in terms of the student-teachers' learning. From Chapter 4, it is apparent that the participants acknowledged the positive impact of advice and encouragement given by the lecturers toward the student-teachers' attitudes and engagement in class activities. By giving advice and encouragement (sometimes encouragement that built upon the students' religious beliefs), especially in academic matters, the student-teachers developed the impression that the lecturers cared about their learning and academic achievement. Likewise, lecturers agreed that expressing encouragement to the student-teachers was necessary to build a positive relationship with their student-teachers. However, as only a few lecturers recognized their encouragement was a significant tool to promote positive student and teacher relationships, it seemed that not all lecturers were aware of the significance of this strategy in maintaining the student and teacher relationships.

Advice and encouragement can create a sense of caring and belonging in the classroom and these feelings can be maximized when students are encouraged by their teachers to do their best (Theobald, 2006). Student-teachers in this study context felt that occasional encouragement from lecturers considerably enhanced their motivation to learn the foreign language. This may contribute to building students' confidence in their own language learning (Dornyei, 2001b). External encouragement and support from teachers is reported as a major reason for students persisting in learning a foreign language (Trang & Baldauf, 2007). In the context of this study, where English is learnt within the courses as a foreign language, there is little support for English language learning outside the class. Hence, student-teachers need the advice and encouragement from lecturers because they cannot seek advice

and encouragement elsewhere, for example, by using their developing language skills in real life tasks. Verbal encouragement was seen as a signal that lecturers believe student-teachers were motivated to learn.

In this study, participants considered that approachability was an appropriate behaviour on the part of teachers' that acted as a significant source of motivation to learn for student-teachers. The most common approachable behaviours exhibited by the lecturers were smiling and making eye contact. Several student-teachers in this study reported how they were motivated to engage in class activities and enjoyed the class even more when lecturers seemed approachable. While many student-teachers explained how motivated they would be when seeing such behaviours exhibited by their lecturers, few of the lecturers seemed to realize how important these behaviours were in encouraging their students' engagement and motivation to learn the foreign language.

A supportive and caring environment may be established through teachers' approachable verbal and non-verbal behaviours such as eye contact, smiling and calling students by name (Benson et al., 2005). In many classrooms, maintaining eye contact and smiling are probably the easiest ways of maintaining good relationship with student-teachers. Student-teachers reported that some lecturers implemented both strategies. However, calling student-teachers by their name may not be easily implemented by the lecturers in this study context. These EFL lecturers had many teaching jobs and other commitments outside of this study context, and consequently taught huge numbers of student in other institutions. Under these circumstances, memorizing and calling each student by their name would be difficult to implement.

The findings showed that good rapport with student-teachers could be fostered by lecturers by being attentive to student-teachers in numerous different ways. Being available, offering assistance when it is needed and responding adequately when help is requested contributes to maintaining a good relationship between student-teachers and teachers. In my study context, some lecturers reportedly offered assistance in academic matters or asked questions to check for student-teachers' understanding of the courses. For student-teachers, this was a sign of approachability and contributed to creating basic motivational conditions in the classroom (Dornyei, 2001b). The findings is supported by Sander, Stevenson, King and Coates' (2000) study as they found that according to university students, teachers' availability for students was the second most desired of teachers' strategies.

The student-teachers added that some lecturers who made jokes at times and appeared to have a good sense of humour were also considered to be approachable. Humour is a very potent factor to improve the atmosphere of a classroom (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; Dornyei, 2001b; Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Gorham & Christopel, 1992). However, since only the student-teachers identified humour as an approachable feature that maintained their motivation, it seems that the lecturers were less aware of the value of humour in establishing a positive relationship with their student-teachers.

This dissonance between the lecturers and the student-teachers with regard to the use of humour may provide insights for the EFL lecturers, since implementing such behaviours may be an effective step toward rapport building with students (Benson et al., 2005). My findings and literature concur that student-teachers definitely like to have a language class which is enjoyable. This study supports the notion that a non-

threatening foreign language class motivates student-teachers to be more engaged in classroom activities.

Showing appreciation of students' efforts was also identified as a motivational strategy in teaching a second/foreign language by Dornyei (2001a). He states that when language students feel that there is no appreciation of their effort, they feel that they are lacking in ability and have no capacity for learning. As a result, students may gradually lose their confidence and stop trying to learn. Showing appreciation of the student-teachers' efforts and praising students who show progress were motivational strategies agreed by the student-teachers and lecturers in this EFL context. The findings suggest that student-teachers were less hesitant in attempting to answer the lecturers' verbal questions or performing assigned tasks when they knew that lecturers appreciated their effort, or at least would not embarrass them either verbally or non-verbally in front of the class.

Sensitive use of feedback on responses to questions was also a powerful way of motivating student-teachers. Realizing that students' feelings could get hurt by reacting negatively to the incorrect answers of students, which may lead to student-teachers' disengagement, lecturers often reacted neutrally by asking opinions of other student-teachers. This way of reacting to the student-teachers' answers was considered by both parties to be a neutral reaction and minimized embarrassment for student-teachers. It is apparent that face-threatening responses by lecturers in this study context could force student-teachers to avoid failure and its implications (such as the feeling of embarrassment) by simply opting out from participation altogether. Besides protecting student-teachers' feeling, a neutral approach could allow all the student-teachers to participate in finding the answer and not to be hesitant in voicing their ideas. In this way, student-teachers would not feel a sense of failure and would

not stop trying. Moreover, recognition of a student's effort by a teacher "sustains the student's motivation and reduces the likelihood of discouragement" (Hallinan, 2008.p.273). Recognizing and acknowledging student-teachers' efforts make students more willing to participate in class activities (Deniz, 2010). This statement closely reflects comments from student-teachers in this study context. Lecturers' appreciation helps student-teachers to value their own effort and gain confidence in their learning; confidence is one of the affective factors needed to achieve engagement of students in classroom activities (Theobald, 2006).

Praising student-teachers' achievement was believed to be a motivational strategy by many participants in this study. This belief aligned with Trang and Baldauf's (2007) research findings from Vietnam, in where they found that teachers' use of praise could overcome students' demotivation in learning English. Even though the praise given by some of the lecturers in my study context was considered too infrequent for the student-teachers, some of the student-teachers and lecturers stated that praise from the lecturers was useful in heightening the student-teachers' self-confidence. The lecturers did not talk about praise very much and they did not seem to be aware of its role. However, praise should not be overly used and teachers may have to use it sparingly (Brophy, 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2001), as giving praise to enhance students' self confidence about their own abilities too often could result in praise losing its meaning and discouraging necessary revisions (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). The challenge for the lecturers in my study was discerning the type and quantity of praise that was motivational for their own student-teachers.

There was a marked discrepancy between the views of some student-teachers and lecturers in the use of praise as a strategy. Praise can promote a more positive relationship between lecturers and student-teachers, and in turn, a more supportive

learning environment. Praise fosters student self-confidence, increasing a student's effort as well reducing anxiety in learning a foreign language. While praise was valued by student-teachers as a means of creating initial motivation in learning English, lecturers did not always report it as a motivational strategy, suggesting that they might be unaware of its significance.

5.3. Generating initial motivation

In generating initial motivation of students, Dornyei proposes five macro-strategies that could be expanded and modified depending on the use in the classroom. Of the five macro-strategies that are associated by Dornyei in this second stage of motivational teaching practices framework (2001b), there is one macro-strategy revealed from my study that falls into this stage: increasing the learners' expectancy of success by adequately planning the teaching and learning process, and modelling success.

5.3.1. Well-planned teaching and learning process

Good preparation by teachers and well-organized teaching can help students to arrange the various items of their learning in order of priority and significance (Brophy, 2010; Brosh, 1996; Dornyei, 2001a). Effective teaching starts when teachers give adequate information to the learners about what they will learn. When the goals are clear and public from the beginning, students have a clear "map" on how to reach the goals (Brophy, 2010; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The student-teachers reported that some lecturers described their teaching plans and topics for the whole term in the first meeting of the class. Planning the teaching adequately reduced student-teachers' anxiety as they had a clear idea of what they would encounter in advance. Student-teachers agreed that when they were clear about what

they would learn, what purpose the activities had, and how the class would be carried out, they tended to be more excited and engaged. A few lecturers even regularly reminded the student-teachers about the topics or materials that would be covered in the next class at the end of a class. For the student-teachers, clarity of the course organisation, workload, and its goals influence how the student-teachers approach their own learning. However, the lecturers did not seem to recognize the usefulness of this strategy of explicitly sharing this information with the student-teachers in order to motivate them since none of the lecturers mentioned it as a motivational strategy.

Some student-teachers prioritised sense of assurance of where the lecturers were going and what to expect from each session. This enabled the students to prepare themselves and to plan for their own learning (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998; Dornyei, 2001a; Brophy, 2010). For the student-teachers, lack of adequate preparation and sloppy management of the course and the materials were not acceptable. When student-teachers were aware of what their lecturers were planning, it also appeared to send a message that student-teachers were important to their lecturers. In return, student-teachers tended to be more engaged in their learning. A well-planned teaching process could convey a great sense of commitment to and excitement about the subject matter by lecturers. It seemed that the lecturers in this study did not realize that their student-teachers cared when they observed that a lecturer has taken the time to get ready to teach and help them learn.

5.3.2. Lecturer as a role model

Both the student-teachers and the lecturers in my study believed that lecturers should be a role model for their student-teachers. Teachers, particularly in an Asian context,

have influence over their students. The attitudes and behaviours which teachers display in class are instrumental in forming those of their students (Stipek, 1998). Being the officially designated leaders within the classroom, teachers serve as a model or reference for their students (Dornyei, 2001a). Moreover, teachers who set a personal example with their own behaviours significantly impact students' motivation to learn (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998)

The decisions on the part of some lecturers to communicate exclusively in English in the class in order to provide a good model of an English teacher for their student-teachers was seen by both the student-teachers and lecturers as a motivational strategy. Lecturers who communicated in English indirectly motivated the student-teachers to do the same. Lecturers who usually communicated in the first language (Indonesian) during the teaching process in the classroom were considered by their student-teachers as less competent as an English teacher at tertiary level. Both student-teachers and lecturers agreed it was not possible to demand that the student-teachers speak in English fluently without the lecturers acting as a good model for them.

These EFL lecturers served as models of teachers who successfully learnt a foreign language by maximizing the use of the target language. In their student-teachers' eyes, when they communicated in English exclusively, these lecturers became good examples of non-native English speakers who had succeeded in their language learning. Furthermore, the student-teachers in this study suggested that it was not an English class if the communication was done primarily using their first language. The lecturers then reinforced the student-teachers' argument that foreign language learners needed as much exposure as possible to the target language during limited class time. If lecturers took pleasure in talking with student-teachers in the foreign

language, then the behaviour that they modelled would carry over to student-teachers. Second/foreign language teachers should maximize their use of the target language because it brings benefits for students' target language proficiency (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Turnbull, 2001).

Although several lecturers were aware of their role in providing a good linguistic example for their student-teachers, this was not always feasible in practice. Two lecturers admitted that they could not always communicate in English in the classroom as this may prevent student-teachers' understanding of some contents, especially in a course that contains a lot of difficult theories and concepts (such as in Sociolinguistics and Morphology). Instead, based on their mutual agreement, one of these lecturers sometimes used a combination of English and the student-teachers' first language (L1) with the expectation that using English as the vehicle of communication in the class should be more frequent than the student-teachers' first language (Indonesian).

Lecturers' decisions about how often English should be used as the main means of communication in the classroom was often a reflection of the difficulty level of the course they taught. In the course where numerous concepts and theories are taught, lecturers used the combination of English and student-teachers' first language frequently. This combination of English and student-teachers first language (L1) initiated by some lecturers in this EFL context aimed to make the lesson content more easily understandable by the student-teachers. Some of the lecturers' concerns about the problem of using of English exclusively are supported by studies in other EFL contexts that also show how foreign language student-teachers feel lost when a class is taught completely in English (Shimizu, 2006). The first language (L1) of language learners should be used in their English classes, where first language (L1)

usage in the classroom facilitates learning of English as the foreign language, especially to explain difficult concepts (Schweers, 1999).

Learners' first language (L1) use may have been necessary to help student-teachers understand the class and been of use when they felt confused. Students or more accurately "acquirers" of a language will filter or block out the target language if they become tense, anxious, angry or bored (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Students who are confused may become frustrated, upset, angry and resentful within such a language classroom. When this happens, students tend to disengage and even stop learning. In contrast, the use of students' L1 can assist in making the classroom a more comprehensible place and lower affective filters (Meyer, 2008).

Furthermore, the use of L1 can maximize the chance of particularly shy students asking for clarification and guidance to resolve misunderstanding, which may lead to the faster progression of students in the target language (Shimizu, 2006). This literature contrasts with the majority of the student-teachers' opinions as they reported that they preferred using the English language as the sole means of communication in the class. Not a single student reported the issue of L1 use in the focus group discussions and only two lecturers felt its use was important. Hence, there is an apparent tension between the lecturers' modelling of communication in English as a motivational strategy, and the lecturers' use of L1 as a motivational strategy to keep student-teachers engaged and on task when difficult concepts are being explained.

5.4. Maintaining and protecting motivation

Dornyei's framework of motivational teaching strategies reveals eight macro-strategies that fall under this third stage (maintaining and protecting motivation).

These eight macro-strategies are making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learner goals, protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, letting learners to maintain a positive social image, creating learner autonomy, promoting self-motivating strategies and promoting cooperation among the learners (Dornyei, 2001b, p.29). However, my study findings showed only four motivational teaching strategies related to this third stage of Dornyei's framework for motivational teaching strategies: varying the teaching methods and materials, incorporating technology into the classroom activities, encouraging active learning and employing peer feedback.

5.4.1. Variation in teaching methods and materials

Student-teachers found incorporating a variety of materials and classroom activities was a significant motivational strategy in this EFL class. This suggests that creativity of teachers in choosing materials and methods of teaching is important in engaging and motivating student-teachers (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998). A decrease in attention and an increase in boredom of students in the class often results from repetitive teaching (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

This view was reflected by both the student-teachers and lecturers in this study. They agreed that varying the teaching materials and methods had a positive impact on student-teachers' engagement in the class activities and increased their motivation to learn. Even though some lecturers apparently tended to utilize familiar teaching strategies, materials or methods repeatedly, others spent time arranging and varying their teaching methods and materials. The participants of this study argued that repeating material or a method without a significant time interval was not likely to maintain and engage the student-teachers' attention and engagement throughout the

teaching-learning process. Nonetheless, the student-teachers reported that only one lecturer varied his teaching methods. They wished that other lecturers would put time aside to develop more creative materials for teaching to maintain and protect student-teachers' motivation.

Lecturers' work load could explain why lecturers did not vary their methods and teaching materials. Since many participants explained that the lecturers had numerous teaching commitments with other institutions outside of this study context, their workloads may have prevented the lecturers from having the time necessary to plan to vary their teaching methods and materials. In addition, heavy workloads perhaps impacted the lecturers' chances of utilising the available resources to aid them in the teaching-learning process.

5.4.2. Integrate technology in the classroom activities

One of the benefits of technology integration in a language classroom is to engage and motivate student-teachers. Technology such as the internet and television can help to familiarize learners with the target language culture and make the L2/FL more "real" (Castleberry & Evers, 2010). These arguments reflect the beliefs of the student-teachers in this study. There were two particular technology-related teaching strategies that the student-teachers described as motivational teaching strategies that could be employed by their lecturers to engage them: designing challenging tasks and integrating fun activities in the classroom.

Designing challenging tasks was ranked highly on the student-teachers' choices of motivational teaching strategies. The student-teachers in almost all four focus group discussions responded positively when lecturers required them to complete challenging tasks. Student-teachers found activities that integrated technology into

their learning as highly motivating. Submitting written assignments electronically through email or completing a task (in a Cross Cultural Understanding class for instance) using the internet as the main source of information are two examples of what the student-teachers referred to as challenging tasks. One student added that the internet and television were the two main technology-related devices that they could use to open the door to the outside world, especially to the culture of English native speakers. Because the majority of student-teachers were originally from remote areas outside of the city where internet and television were relatively unknown, the use of technology may have been both challenging and novel for them. Hence, this aspect contributed to the motivation to do the task.

Integration of technology into classroom activities created more opportunities to interact with lecturers and engage in EFL learning. Emails and the internet allowed students to improve their English proficiency as well as providing new ways of closing the gap between foreign language learners and target language communities (Carter, 2006). In addition, technology integration in big classrooms, like the Indonesian classroom in this study, can develop relationships between students and teachers by enabling more communication than is normally possible inside the classroom. The internet serves as a platform where students and teachers can talk to each other (commonly through emails) without being constrained by time and place (Meng & Wang, 2006). This benefit of using the internet as the means of communication between student and lecturer is particularly relevant for this study context where lecturers' workloads in other teaching institutions seemed to inhibit their face-to-face communication and interaction with student-teachers. In addition, the internet allowed student-teachers to become independent learners and more

autonomous in their learning. The internet enabled the student-teachers to learn what they want to learn at their own pace.

Student-teachers in my study context also felt that integrating fun activities into the classroom routines was an effective strategy to motivate them in learning English. This strategy is closely related to the use of technology in the classroom. Watching short English movies, writing a short paragraph in English while observing nature around the faculty buildings or listening to a recent English song during the class (as initiated by some lecturers in this study) were considered fun activities by most of the student-teachers. The student-teachers argued that watching films made the class more interesting. Watching English movies and listening to songs created a relaxing, entertaining and non-threatening classroom atmosphere in which student-teachers lowered their anxiety and became open to learning. Neither lecturers nor the student-teachers seemed to be aware that listening to and singing western songs could be an easy yet useful strategy in learning English as it helps student to memorizing language or adding to English vocabulary of student-teachers (Yu, Liu & Littlewood, 1996). By doing these activities, student-teachers could learn and have fun at the same time. They stated that the lecturers should use these activities more often than they did. The benefits of watching English movies in creating fun classes are outlined by Yu, et al., (1996). In their study of secondary students' perceptions of their learning experience in an English class, they found that the students perceived watching activities (television, video and films) as the most enjoyable class activities.

One of the key elements of engagement in a foreign language class is the possibility for that class to be not only a place of learning but also a place where students can enjoy a moment of entertainment (Ming-zhu & Xian-rong, 2007). A classroom

climate which is always serious may cause stress and tension for student-teachers. These affective factors may inhibit language acquisition.

For most students, regardless of the level of education, subject area, age of learners and many other factors, classes must be fun and enjoyable, especially in a foreign language class in which students struggle to master a completely different language (Nikolov, 1999). The use of authentic materials in teaching English such as movies or songs by English native speakers helped student-teachers to familiarize themselves to the culture and the foreign language itself. Movies and songs exposed student-teachers to authentic materials and to voices, dialects and register others than the lecturers' English language and provided a cultural context of the target language to the student-teachers.

Familiarization with the culture of the target language tends to initiate and strengthen student-teachers' integrative motivation in foreign language learning (Gardner, 2001). The motivation of students who learn a language as a foreign language tends to be instrumental as they just need the language for pursuing better jobs or for social recognition (Gardner, 2001). Hence, the use of technology can bring authentic English into the EFL classroom and capitalise on student-teachers' integrative motivation.

5.4.3. Active learning (Group/pair work)

Having students perform an activity in a group or pair is widely considered to be a motivational strategy in teaching English (Dan-Ping & Qian, 2007; Dornyei, 2001a; Macaro, 1997; Peacock, 1998; Young, 1991). This research suggests that language teachers should include regular and effective group work in their classroom. Group work not only addresses the affective concerns of the student-teachers, it also

increases the amount of student talk and comprehensible input as well as language practice opportunities. This suggestion aligns with student-teachers' and lecturers perceptions about the benefits of student-teachers working with peers. These participants agree that the student-teachers could learn a great deal from each other when working in a group or in pair.

Regardless of the course that they taught in this study context, the lecturers sometimes made the student-teachers work in pairs and groups, which demonstrated that the lecturers valued the use of collaborative learning and students' interaction in teaching-learning process in this study context. Giving student-teachers chances to interact and help each other in the learning process was believed by lecturers to be a way to lessen student-teachers' dependence on their lecturers. Interaction in groups encouraged the student-teachers to be more active and feel responsible for their own learning. This could also mean that these lecturers wanted to move gradually into models of instruction in which the teacher is not always "the expert" and the deliverer of information.

Similarly, the student-teachers reported that working in a group or pair where the lecturers only acted as facilitators and did not do "the talking" all the time was very motivating. This teaching method was perceived as a motivational strategy by the student participants in this study. The student-teachers believed as an adult learner at university level they should be encouraged and trained by their lecturers to be more active in their own learning.

In a traditional teacher-led class, where chances to speak and practise the language are often rare, such as the context of this study, students may see group/pair work as the chance to practise the foreign language. Working with peers in a small group or

in pairs gave student-teachers ample time to practise their speaking skill in both instructional and conversational English. Group or pair work offered more opportunities to use English.

Moreover, students felt more secure about sharing ideas and opinions in small groups (Garret & Shortall, 2002). Student-teachers tended not to feel anxious or afraid to make mistakes as they were all at the same level and working toward the same goal, whereas they might be reluctant to expose a lack of understanding in front of their lecturers and an entire class. In a teacher-led class, asking questions or requesting clarification from lecturers might be considered offensive by lecturers as it could be construed by lecturers as suggesting that either the lecturer's delivery of knowledge was not effective or the student did not pay attention to the lecturer's explanation. Furthermore, in many Asian cultures, students are discouraged from voicing their opinion on the lecture content and publicly displaying knowledge (Littlewood, 2000). In this study context, student-teachers seemed to believe that expressing opposing ideas and engaging in argumentative discussions with lecturers might be perceived as challenging a lecturer personally. Group/pair work in this study context therefore served as a chance for student-teachers to express ideas and clarify any misunderstanding in a culturally acceptable manner.

A small group of peers provides a relatively intimate setting and usually a more supportive environment (Peacock, 1998; Schweers, 1999). In fact, both the lecturers and student-teachers reported that the amount of students' talk was far greater in small groups than amongst the class as a whole. Students not only tend to talk more but also use a wider range of speech acts in the small-group/pair work context (Murray & Christison, 2011; Shimizu, 2006).

The findings of this study indicated that the opportunity to work with peers greatly increased student-teachers' involvement in classroom activities and created a more favourable attitude toward foreign language learning. Generally speaking, when students work in a group they learn significantly more than in activities involving the whole class (Slavin, 1995). Moreover, it seemed that working collaboratively with peers was often preferred since it made student-teachers feel comfortable and confident; it was much easier to work at the same level and pace than when they were together as an entire class.

5.4.4. Feedback from peers

Some lecturers preferred to use non-teacher feedback in which they asked the student-teachers to do peer correction. The lecturers and student-teachers agreed that peer correction was time-saving and, more importantly, it reduced student-teachers' anxiety when their work was corrected by the lecturers. The lecturers' greater preference for this practice may have arisen from their limited time to give feedback or check all of the student-teachers' work. The findings from my study contradict findings made in other contexts.

Saito (1994) investigated three university classes and found that students tended to favour teacher feedback over non-teacher feedback such as peer feedback or self-correction. This implied that these students saw 'correction' as only the teachers' function. Saito found two main reasons for this preference. Firstly, the students tended to feel inadequate about reviewing and giving feedback on their peers' work. Secondly, the students were afraid that they would create a tense relationship with the peer whose work they corrected (in peer correction). Language learners have often been found to prefer the teachers' involvement in the error correction process

(Schulz, 2001). Students, especially Asian students, may find it difficult to give peer feedback or correction since it requires a good deal of information to evaluate peers' work (Matsumoto, 2010). As a result, students often feel insecure about this process.

Nevertheless, apparently the participants of this study did not share the same concerns as Saito's study participants as they were happy to get their work corrected by their peers in preference to their lecturers. The student-teachers in this study might have been hesitant about checking their peer's work, and still expected feedback from lecturers as well, but they mentioned that their lecturers provided guidance (usually in the form of key answers and a marking schedule) before they were asked to correct their peer's work. In addition, the lecturers' availability for consultation during the peer correction was perhaps a way of reassuring the student-teachers' as they engaged in this peer correction. Thus, these lecturers actively supported student-teachers in developing the skills they needed to manage peer feedback and this in turn was seen as a motivating strategy by the student-teachers in this study.

5.5. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

In this fourth stage, encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, Dornyei listed four main macro-strategies to enhance students' motivation in learning a second/foreign language: promoting motivational attributions, providing students with positive and informational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner. The findings in this study showed one evident strategy considered by lecturers and student-teachers as motivating and related to the fourth stage of this framework: providing feedback about students' progress.

5.5.1. Feedback from lecturers

Getting feedback on their work is commonly expected by students. One function of feedback is to identify aspects of students' performance which were unacceptable and provide steps for the students to improve it (Brophy, 2010; Dornyei, 2001b). However, the manner and timing of delivering feedback to students is significant. In addition, teachers should pay attention to the composition of feedback to ensure that it is not overly, public or face-threatening to students (Dornyei, 1994; Stipek, 1998).

Student-teachers and lecturers in this study showed concern about the lecturers' manner of delivering feedback or correction. The student-teachers and lecturers preferred to have student-teachers' mistakes or errors corrected by the lecturers in a communal way. EFL lecturers in this study explained that they usually made notes regarding the common errors during the teaching-learning process or after checking the student-teachers' work and then discussed common mistakes with the class in the next meeting. Face-to-face correction out of the class time, rather than in front of the whole class, was the student-teachers' second preferred option to get correction from their lecturers. Receiving praise from teachers for good achievement is not always favoured by certain students, so publicly becoming the centre of attention for a negative matter such as making mistakes is even more unbearable for some students (Brophy, 2010).

Learner's motivation can be most easily developed in a safe classroom climate in which students feel that they do not run the risk of being ridiculed (Ming-zhu & Xian-rong, 2007). Losing face or being humiliated in public was an intolerable learning experience by these student-teachers. Humiliation of student-teachers in front of their peers might influence student-teachers' confidence, as they might start to avoid volunteering answers for fear of being embarrassed publicly. Public

embarrassment should always be avoided as it may prevent students from taking risks in their learning; and result in students who tend to stick with easy tasks, withholding effort and avoiding risks (Brophy, 2010; Dornyei, 2001b).

Student-teachers appreciated lecturers who used indirect correction (by giving communal feedback or implementing non-teacher feedback) in the classroom. Indirect correction appeared to encourage students to do self-correction and feel less embarrassment (Theobald, 2006).

Although lecturers in this study did give feedback to student-teachers, the student-teachers in this study were concerned about its frequency and timing. The student-teachers stated that they tended to be more interested and engaged in the course if they could assess their progress by receiving feedback even if it was just a few words from their lecturers. Prompt and timely feedback is far more effective in motivating students learning than delayed feedback (Dornyei, 2001b). The student-teachers felt that they could not identify any mistakes and reflect on ways to improve if feedback occurred long after completing a task. When feedback is given promptly, the learner has “an ‘online’ awareness of his/her progress” (Dornyei, 2001b, p. 124). Immediate feedback was preferred by many student-teachers in this study as delayed correction tended to make it difficult for them to recall anything that happened prior to the correction.

To be effective, feedback should not only be given in a timely manner but it must be descriptive and informative (Brophy 2010; Dornyei 2001b; Stipek, 1998). Giving timely and informative feedback is crucial in teaching a foreign language (Dan-Ping & Qian, 2007). High quality feedback is important in helping to boost or maintain motivation (Dornyei, 2001b; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010; Stipek, 1998). Short

statements such as “good work” or simply giving a grade back to student-teachers’ work, as practiced by some lecturers in this study, was not perceived as helpful by student-teachers who wanted information about their strengths, achievements, progress and attitudes as well as weaknesses and solutions to those weaknesses. It is clear that in this study context, specific and informative feedback helped student-teachers to form specific and useful judgment about their strengths and weaknesses and contributed significantly to student-teachers’ motivation to learn the target language. If lecturers expect their student-teachers to take a step toward significant progress, they could show their initial support as often as possible by showing the way to progress.

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter examined the perceptions of the student-teachers and the EFL lecturers regarding motivational teaching strategies used in one of the tertiary EFL classes in one private university in a small province of Sulawesi Island in Indonesia. Dornyei’s framework of motivational strategies (2001b) was adapted with his permission (Z. Dornyei, personal communication, February 18, 2011) to provide a rigorous structure for this chapter.

To conclude, there was significant agreement between the student-teachers and the lecturers regarding the strategies used by lecturers in EFL class, but there were some significant differences in the relative importance given to various teaching strategies. In addition, the value placed on different teaching strategies appeared to differ.

For the first stage of motivational teaching strategies framework, creating basic motivational conditions, when asked about the strategies used by the EFL lecturers that the student-teachers and the lecturers found motivating, both groups of

participants' opinions concurred about the way lecturers maintained a positive relationship with their students-teachers. The EFL lecturers and their student-teachers agreed that attention should be paid to creating and developing a positive relationship in order to stimulate a sense of belonging and engagement in the classroom. The participants agreed that the positive classroom atmosphere had a significant influence on student-teachers' engagement in classroom activities. Strategies such as giving advice and encouragement, displaying approachable behaviours, showing appreciation and praising, and paying attention to the way correction is delivered to student-teachers were the four major aspects considered both beneficial in maintaining student-teachers and teachers relationship and also useful strategies to motivate student-teachers to keep striving toward their effort to master the foreign language. Student-teachers and lecturers had both differences and similarities of opinions starting from the second until the third stage of the teaching strategies framework by Dornyei (2001b). In the last stage of this framework, encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, student-teachers and lecturers agreed about the use of feedback from lecturers as a strategy that was motivating for student-teachers to learn the target language.

Dornyei's framework of motivational teaching practices is a cycle of motivation in ESL/EFL learning, in which each stage builds on the previous one. This model of motivation suggests that an awareness of motivational teaching strategies by EFL lecturers is very powerful as a tool for promoting students' motivation and achievement.

This discussion leads to some significant implications for lecturers to create, sustain and build on motivation for their student-teachers in this context. These implications and suggestions will be discussed further in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This thesis has examined all motivational strategies that the student-teachers and EFL lecturers in this study considered important for teaching English as a foreign language at tertiary level in this Indonesian private university. Little research has been conducted so far that includes the perceptions of both student-teachers and EFL lecturers, and few studies within Indonesia. Therefore, in taking one private university class as its context of study, this thesis sought to shed light on issues around the use of motivational teaching strategies and how student-teachers and lecturers perceive the use of those strategies.

The relevant literature was reviewed to develop a theoretical background, which also highlighted the need to undertake this research, that explores both EFL lecturers' and student-teachers' perceptions and beliefs regarding the lecturers use of strategies to motivate in teaching the second/foreign language. The importance of exploring perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL tertiary classroom and how the lecturers use it to maintain student-teachers' motivation to learn the target language justified the selection of one private university in the eastern part of Indonesia as the study context. A qualitative approach was adopted in this study to explore the perceptions of the participants. Through five semi-structured individual interviews with EFL lecturers and five focus-group discussions with student-teachers, the data to answer the research questions was collected.

The analysis presented in the previous chapters showed that the student-teachers and lectures valued the teaching strategies to different degrees. The previous chapters

also discussed the challenges that all the participants acknowledged, which may have prevented lecturers from employing strategies that lecturers and student-teachers believed to be motivating in the EFL classroom.

This concluding chapter provides a summary of the student-teachers and EFL lecturers' perception of motivational strategies used by these lecturers and explores significant implications arising from the findings. This chapter also makes recommendations based on the findings of this study to equip lecturers with ideas on how to develop teaching practices that improve student-teachers' motivation. Some concluding remarks summarize this study's main findings, and its significance and contributions to the study of second/foreign language learning are presented at the end of this chapter.

6.2. Implications and recommendations

This section summarizes the implications for the EFL lecturers, who were considered the key agent in maintaining student-teachers' motivation in learning English in this tertiary education EFL context through their use of motivational teaching strategies. Recommendations for future research on motivational teaching strategies in teaching a foreign language follow.

6.2.1. Implications and recommendations for EFL lecturers

This study is intended to contribute to EFL lecturers' perspectives and understanding of motivational teaching strategies in teaching a foreign language in my university but may have application to other second/foreign language learning contexts. By adopting a case study approach in which individual interviews and focus-group

discussions were employed, my study attempted to answer the following main questions and sub questions.

- How do lecturers' teaching strategies impact the motivation of student-teachers to learn EFL in one Teacher Training and Education Faculty in one province in the area of Sulawesi Island in Indonesia?
 1. How do EFL lecturers report motivating their student-teachers?
 2. How do student-teachers report being motivated by their EFL lecturers?

In order to answer the research questions, several themes were developed from analysing the interviews transcript of individual interview and focus-group discussions. The themes were then presented and discussed in chapter 5 by using and adapting Dornyei's (2001b) framework of motivational teaching practices as the structure of the chapter. As elaborated in the previous chapters, mismatches and similarities between how student-teachers and EFL lecturers value different motivational teaching strategies were evident. However, even though the student-teachers and lecturers shared some similar perceptions, there are implications for the lecturers' practice in using and maximizing motivational strategies in their classroom. In light of the findings, the following implications and recommendations for EFL lecturers are described using the four stages of motivational teaching practices of Dornyei's (2001b) framework.

Creating the basic motivational condition

The first implication is that the participants in this study value and prioritise teaching strategies that enhance and maintain student-teachers' and lecturers' relationships. Therefore, it is important that lecturers realise that a positive relationship brings fundamental benefits to student-teachers' engagement and motivation in learning

activities. A non-threatening and positive learning environment in which the student-lecturer relationship is well-maintained improves the student-teachers' learning spirit as well as their sense of belonging to the classroom. Thus, lecturers should avoid any behaviour, either verbal or non-verbal, that may harm their relationship with their student-teachers.

Lecturers should pay more attention in establishing a positive relationship with their student-teachers. Whether they realize it or not, through their behaviours, every teacher sends signals to student-teachers that communicate their level of approachability. Lecturers who show a sense of humour and encourage student-teachers to seek help when it is needed seem approachable to student-teachers.

Lecturers could also show that they are approachable by offering assistance to student-teachers. The lecturers therefore could actively encourage student-teachers to seek help if they feel they need it. Appreciating that student-teachers might be reluctant to ask for help for various reasons, lecturers should often remind student-teachers that asking for help is not a sign of inability on the student-teachers' side and that there is nothing to be ashamed about when asking for help from their peers or lecturers. Sometimes teachers need to remind students that having difficulty in understanding the content of the course is not a reason for fear or embarrassment (Stipek, 1998). It is suggested that lecturers explicitly express and demonstrate to all student-teachers that although it may be difficult for them to learn English as a foreign language, full support is available from lecturers. Lecturers should give assurances to student-teachers that even though learning the foreign language can be very demanding and frustrating; they are ready to help student-teachers to succeed. To resolve their limited availability for their student-teachers due to their heavy workloads, lecturers could make the most of technology to assist them with this

matter such as using internet and email. They could use email to accommodate student-teachers' questions and let the student-teachers know that they are welcome to ask questions or seek clarification.

Encouraging student-teachers to do their best by expressing even simple motivating statements or religious-related encouragements throughout the teaching learning process motivates student-teachers. Lecturers' encouragement helps to build student-teachers' self-confidence and motivates student-teachers to persist in their effort to achieve their goals. Valuing the efforts of student-teachers throughout the teaching-learning process contributed in developing the student-teachers and lecturers' rapport. This practice sends a message to student-teachers that risk-taking and relishing challenge in their learning are encouraged and valued by their lecturers. Face-threatening negatively affects student-teachers' willingness to take risks as well as student-teachers and lecturers' relationships.

Praise is seen as a form of encouragement to maintain a positive relationship. The student-teachers reported that lecturers' use of praise was minimal and it was apparent that the student-teachers considered praise as highly motivating. As a result, the lecturers might reflect on their use of praise in maintaining a good and positive relationship between them and their student-teachers, especially given the fact that lecturers may not be aware of the impact of praise. It may be useful for lecturers to use an aide to monitor her/his ability in using it. A colleague could observe a lecturer for a certain length of time during the teaching-learning process and give feedback or report back to the lecturer who is being observed. Another way is by video-recording the teaching process which would include student-teachers' responses to praise, and then use the recording to analyse the impact of praise on student-teachers.

To sum up, fostering a good rapport between lecturers and student-teachers is crucial, so it is suggested that lecturers consider characteristics that student-teachers' value, such as: creating an environment that encourages student-teachers to try out language, being attentive when assistance is needed and showing approachability behaviours to student-teachers, returning student-teachers' risky attempts with positive affirmations that make the student-teachers feel safe to try these attempts again throughout their learning process, and praising student-teachers for achieving goals as well as valuing their effort and attempts when they fail, while at the same time warmly and firmly attending to their language.

Generating initial motivation

Two clear implications arose from the analysis in this stage of motivational teaching strategies. They were giving clear instructions and being a good model for student-teachers.

Clear instructions, a product of well-planned teaching, significantly affect student-teachers' motivation to learn the foreign language. Clear instructions throughout the course establish teaching-learning processes and give student-teachers a sense of direction. Lecturers should understand that the teaching and learning process should be well-planned with clearly communicated objectives that are understood by all student-teachers. As well-planned teaching also provides student-teachers with the necessary structure for their own learning management, it is then suggested that all lecturers share their teaching plans to help the student-teachers before starting the process of learning.

Being a good model of a successful language learner for student-teachers was believed by the participants to be a strategy that motivates student-teachers to persist

in learning the target language. Lecturers practice affects their student-teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards the foreign language and their learning. Lecturers who speak in English frequently in the classroom were considered as linguistic models for their student-teachers; however, lecturers were concerned that the student-teachers might not fully understand the content if English was used all the time. Responding to this concern, the lecturers may want to give more attention to the pronunciation accuracy of their spoken language while communicating with their student-teachers. The lecturers' aim is not to show off to the student-teachers how fluent their spoken English is, but to present a good example of a successful foreign language learner. In addition, they aim to familiarize student-teachers with the foreign language. Consequently, they might need to adjust their English language use, especially when they teach difficult concepts to student-teachers. This way, lecturers could still present a good linguistic example to their student-teachers and at the same time reduce the lecturers' concern about student-teachers' inability to fully understand the content of the course.

The findings also indicated that there was a dilemma for the lecturers regarding when and how often to use the L1 (Indonesian). Most of the lecturers held the principle that English should be used most of the time. Since these learners have little opportunity to meet and communicate by using the foreign language outside of the classroom, lecturers believed that the foreign language use should be maximized in the classroom. The use of L1 is then only justifiable when both lecturers and student-teachers regard it as necessary for aiding student-teachers' content comprehension and alleviating student-teachers' anxiety or tension. From this point of view, lecturers need to cultivate the most effective L1 use while ensuring that it simultaneously meets student-teachers' needs and enhances their learning.

Whether lecturers use English exclusively or a combination of English and the student-teachers' mother tongue in their classrooms, is a national issue. Bringing L1 into the English classes may make learning English less of a threat to some student-teachers. At the same time, however, lecturers should ensure that the use of L1 will not limit the exposure of student-teachers to English. While Turnbull (2001) advocates the monolingual policy, this scholar also suggests, "Maximizing the target language does not and should not mean that it is harmful for the teacher to use the L1. A principle that promotes teacher use of the target language acknowledges that the L1 and target language can assist simultaneously "(p.533). Therefore, the lecturers and student-teachers may need to agree on the purposes of L1 use during the teaching process and employ the most effective ways to employ it by discussing together, which in turn would motivate student-teachers and lead to acquisition of the language. One means of addressing this issue may be that before each class starts at the beginning of each term, lecturers and student-teachers briefly discuss and agree on the frequency of using English in the classroom based on the content of the course. As only a few lecturers employed this kind of mutual agreement of the L1 use with their student-teachers, it is recommended that all lecturers pay attention to this suggestion.

Even though in an Indonesian educational setting, it is still uncommon for teachers to discuss their strategies and get feedback from their students (Maulana et al., 2011), it is suggested to lecturers to start implementing this idea by encouraging their student-teachers to voice their ideas and perceptions of what teaching strategies works for their motivation in the classroom to minimize any mismatch of perceptions. Lecturers then could reflect on their motivating and demotivating strategies, supplying them with a way to learn to improve their teaching strategies.

Maintaining and protecting motivation

These participants believed that in the area of maintaining and protecting motivation, two implications can be drawn: varying teaching strategies and incorporating technology in classrooms.

Varying teaching strategies and material used by lecturers would maintain student-teachers' attention in the class. In order to maintain their student-teachers' motivation to learn English in this EFL context, student-teachers wanted lecturers to vary their teaching strategies and methods. As the student-teachers expected their EFL lecturers to be more creative and employ a wide variety of teaching strategies, it is suggested that the lecturers could plan different methods and strategies. The lecturers could make the most of audio and visual tools available in their classroom or in the language laboratory because student-teachers explicitly stated that these would attract their attention to the classroom activities.

Moreover, since students learn in various ways, implementing different methods and strategies in the teaching process could accommodate different student needs (Theobald, 2006). This recommendation should be seriously considered by the lecturers as both student-teachers and lecturers in this study acknowledged that each class consisted of different student-teachers with different learning styles and preferences for their learning.

Student-teachers wanted the teaching and learning process to include fun activities to engage student-teachers in the class. Incorporating technology to the classroom activities by designing challenging tasks was perceived as one motivational strategy by the student-teachers in this study context. Games and watching English movies could be one way for student-teachers to enjoy engaging with EFL learning.

According to the student-teachers, fun activities can gain student-teachers' attention as well as encourage them to participate, and ultimately, to learn. Moreover, since English songs and movies could be used to practise the student-teachers' four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) together at the same time, thus it is one of the most effective strategies to improve student-teachers' English skills. Lecturers could share responsibility for this aspect of maintaining motivation by assigning certain student-teachers of a time to prepare all the necessary equipment (a song or movie and the needed electronic media in the language laboratory) for each fun activity. By involving the student-teachers in preparing activities and sharing the responsibility of preparing those activities in their classroom, the lecturers could inspire and prepare these student-teachers to arrange such activities for their own students in the future.

Student-teachers and lecturers agreed that working with peers in a small group or pair brings benefits to student-teachers since it allows student-teachers to pique one another's curiosity and to share interests and ideas among student-teachers. Considering this, it is crucial for lecturers to employ interactive tasks regularly and monitor their effectiveness for student-teachers' learning at the same time. In addition, student-teachers' concern about the use of this strategy, such as unequal contributions to the group work (free-riding by some group members), should be minimized. Lecturers should be aware of the optimum size and composition of a group when they want to employ group work in their classroom. Based on their knowledge about their student-teachers' academic achievement, lecturers should carefully structure groups to maximize student-teachers learning from each other. Neglecting this suggestion could result in limiting the effectiveness of learning by working in a small group or pair. To gain more advantages of learning in a group or

pair, lecturers could also show and teach their student-teachers about the benefits of learning with others.

Since student-teachers in this study context only recognized one role (a group leader) in a group, it is likely a tendency that group members may rely on one person (leader of the group) in completing the assigned tasks. To develop different skills, lecturers could introduce and assign a different role for each member of a small group to arouse student-teachers' feeling of responsibility toward the group task and to make student-teachers achieve the assigned task.

Lecturers may need to monitor student-teachers working in small groups every once in a while to ensure that student-teachers maintain their roles. Moreover, lecturers should encourage student-teachers to work with their peers, as this would help student-teachers to sharpen their interactive skills (Brophy, 2010). Student-teachers who work with one peer or more (in a small group) actively participating with others are shaping their social learning skills that will benefit the student-teachers, in not only their daily lives, but also in the world of work.

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

Feedback plays a significant role in maintaining student-teachers' motivation. It is suggested that lecturers should be careful about feedback and the way of delivering it to student-teachers. Feedback should be delivered privately and lecturers need to avoid any reprimands that are detrimental to a student-teacher's motivation to learn the foreign language. Student-teachers in this study wanted their lecturers to be aware that student-teachers should not be spotlighted for their mistake in front of their peers. It is important for the lecturers to enhance the student-teachers' willingness to take risks in their foreign language learning but at the same time not to

embarrass student-teachers when they make mistakes as a result of their risk-taking. In correcting errors or giving feedback, teachers need to be keenly aware of how they implement this and to avoid using strategies that might embarrass or frustrate student-teachers.

Feedback should be as informative as possible to student-teachers. These findings revealed that student-teachers expected feedback to be informative for them, instead of just giving a grade. Student-teachers wished that lecturers would explain in verbal or written concrete terms to them, what they had done wrong and what they could do to improve it as often as possible. Likewise, they wanted lecturers to provide sufficient comments on their work so that student-teachers understood why they earned the grade. Whenever it is not feasible to give feedback to each student-teachers privately and in a timely manner (as expected by the student-teachers) as a result of lecturers' workloads and the prescribed time allocation of each class, lecturers could then employ "communal feedback" through classroom meetings or emails as the solution, as a few lecturers have successfully practised in this study context. Feedback that is given through emails could also be more helpful as student-teachers could read feedback carefully and repeatedly.

6.3. Suggestions for future research

This study investigated the complexity of motivational teaching strategies concepts and effectiveness in enhancing student-teachers motivation in learning English as foreign language in an Indonesian tertiary education. The motivational strategies described in this study may be specific to an Indonesian EFL tertiary classroom in a private university. Certain features such as the learners' approach to learning as well as the contextual reality of different learning environments may render some

teaching strategies highly effective, while others less useful to motivate students to learn a second/foreign language. Likewise, similarities and differences of perceptions of the motivational teaching strategies from the lecturers and student-teachers point of view described may not be similar to those of student-teachers and lecturers perceptions in other contexts. Therefore, there is clearly room for further research in this respect. Further research, therefore, will be needed to confirm the effectiveness of those teaching strategies in other contexts and to link the teaching strategies to students' achievement. In addition, it would also be useful to know whether there are certain culturally or contextually teaching strategies in teaching English as a foreign language that cannot be applied to other contexts.

6.4. Reflection from the research fieldwork

Through conducting this study, I have gained a greater understanding of what contributes to producing successful research. First and foremost, I learnt that in order to be a good researcher there is a necessity to be well organised in terms of venues, time management, dress code and to be prepared with set of questions. For example, to avoid any obstructions that might affect the focus groups discussions, I often went in advance to see and arrange the seating where the focus groups discussions were to take place. Since the student-teachers agreed to be interviewed in the faculty building, I had to estimate time to travel to the location of discussions. I was aware that the student participants were providing me with data. This was a very different relationship compared to when I was a lecturer. The lecturer participants also needed to see me in a different role; as a researcher, as well as a colleague. I needed to be organised so that I could make all my participants comfortable with my role and theirs in the study. In addition, I had to take particular care in explaining issues of

confidentiality to them. So being timely and organised before the interviews and focus groups was very important.

Secondly, I learnt that not all participants could easily understand a question that appeared simple to me. Therefore, a good researcher must be prepared to be able to pose one question in a number of different ways to ensure the clarity of the questions to participants.

Thirdly, while the use of participants' L1 (Indonesian) during the interviews and focus group discussions was aimed to minimize any language barrier that the participants might encounter in answering the questions, it was apparent that not all participants saw its use during interviews positively. One lecturer seemed to be offended as he regarded that my decision to use Indonesian rather than English in the interview as an act of underestimating his ability in English. To show the lecturer participant that I did not have the intention to offend him, after I explained my own reasoning to choose Indonesian over English as the language to be used during interviews, I allowed him to answer my questions in English even though I asked questions in Indonesian. This showed me that, although researchers might make careful decisions to respect participants as well as to facilitate data collection, these decisions may be interpreted in different ways by participants.

These three points indicate that even when a research fieldwork is well planned, a researcher has to be aware of many complex factors that may influence a data gathering process.

6.5. Conclusion

This case study of one cohort of student-teachers and EFL lecturers that taught this particular cohort in one private university in Sulawesi Island in Indonesia, has made significant contributions to both research in motivational strategies in teaching English as a second/foreign language and to the EFL lecturers' awareness of the impact of teaching strategies.

The findings showed that student-teachers in this study preferred foreign language learning experiences that are satisfying, pleasant, non face-threatening and rewarding for them and disliked those that brought them embarrassment or discomfort. Through lecturers' strategies such as giving encouragement and advice, showing approachable behaviours, showing appreciation/valuing student-teachers' effort and praising, it is possible to establish a positive student-teachers' and lecturers' relationship that influence the student-teachers' sense of engagement in class, and their motivation to learn English. While opinions of the student-teachers about a number of general teaching strategies aligned with their EFL lecturers' opinions, they also shared different opinions about some other teaching strategies.

EFL lecturers should choose strategies according to their specific situation in order to achieve the maximum effectiveness of each teaching strategy. Moreover, the lecturers should not only consider their own views of prevailing methodologies and theories in second/foreign language teaching but also determine their student-teachers' feelings about their teaching strategies. A lecturer hoping to increase interest and enjoyment of foreign language study needs to find ways of promoting success and satisfaction in language learners. Knowing what student-teachers want could help lecturers to meet their student-teachers' learning needs.

The different values held by these two parties, may cause student-teachers to disengage from their learning activities. Therefore, setting a specific time to discuss the use of motivational teaching strategies with student-teachers and including them in decision over strategies to be used could resolve this issue. In all, it is expected that by finding teaching strategies to make class more engaging and interesting, a learner's general attitude toward learning English will improve, and furthermore, there may be an improvement in long-term motivation.

REFERENCES

- Abdo, I. B., & Breen, G.-M. (2010). Teaching EFL to Jordanian students: New strategies for enhancing English acquisition in a distinct Middle Eastern student population. *Creative Education, 1*, 39-50.
- Basit, T. N. (2003). Manual or electronic? The role of coding in qualitative data analysis. *Educational Research, 45*(2), 143-154.
- Bazeley, P. (2007). *Qualitative data analysis with NVIVO*. London: Sage.
- Benson, T., Cohen, A., & Buskist, W. (2005). Rapport: Its relation to student attitudes and behaviors toward teachers and classes. *Teaching of Psychology, 32*(4), 237-239.
- Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, students perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal, 08*, 387-401.
- Bowen, G. A. (2005). Preparing a qualitative research-based dissertation: Lesson learned. *The Qualitative Report, 10*(2), 208-222.
- Bradford, A. (2007). Motivational orientation in under-researched FLL contexts: Findings from Indonesia. *RELC, 38*, 302-322.
- Bradley, J. (1993). Methodological issues and practices in qualitative research. *The Library Quarterly, 63*(4), 431-449.
- Brophy, J. (2010). *Motivating students to learn*. New York: Routledge
- Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived characteristics of the effective language teacher. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(2), 125-136.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, A. V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*, 46-60.
- Carter, B.-A. (2006). *Teacher/Student responsibility in foreign language learning*. New York: Peter lang Publishing, Inc.
- Castleberry, G. T., & Evers, R. B. (2010). Incorporate technology into the modern language classroom. *Intervention in School and Clinic, 45*(3), 5.
- Chambers, G. (1998). Pupils' perceptions of the foreign language learning experience. *Language Teaching Research, 2*(3), 231.
- Cheng, H.-f., & Dornyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*, 153-174.

- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design; Qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches*. London: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R.W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning, 41*, 469-512.
- Dan-Ping, Y., & Qian, X. (2007). On techniques of sustaining and promoting learners' motivation in TEFL. *Sino-US English Teaching, 4*(9).
- Den Brok, P., Levy, J., Brekelmans, M., & Wubbels, T. (2006). The effect of teacher interpersonal behaviour on students' subject-specific motivation. Retrieved 09 December 2010 from http://tue.academia.edu/PerrydenBrok/Papers/170367/The_effect_of_teacher_interpersonal_behaviour_on_studentsubject-specific_motivation
- Deniz, S. (2010). Student teachers' evaluation of the motivational strategies used in foreign language teaching. *Social Behaviour and Personality: An International Journal, 38*(9), 1269-1286.
- Denscombe, M. (2007). *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects*. New York: Open University Press.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2005). *Handbook of qualitative research*. California: Sage Publications.
- Dornyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 273-284.
- Dornyei, Z. (1996). *Ten commandments for motivating language learners*. Paper presented at the TESOL 1996 Convention, Chicago. Retrieved from <http://ltr.sagepub.com/content/2/3/203.short>
- Dornyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching, 31*, 117-135.
- Dornyei, Z., & Otto, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working papers in Applied Linguistics, 4*, 43-69.
- Dornyei, Z., & Csizer, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research, 2*(3), 203-229.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001a). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001b). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Gan, Z., Humphreys, G., & Hamp-Lyons, L. (2004). Understanding successful and unsuccessful EFL students in Chinese University. *Modern Language Journal*, 88(2), 229-244.
- Gardner, R.C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 1-19). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P., & Masgoret, A. (1997). Toward a full model of second language learning: An empirical investigation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81, 344-362.
- Garret, P., & Shortall, T. (2002). Learners' evaluations of teacher-fronted and student-centred classroom activities. *Language Teaching Research*, 6(1), 25-57.
- Ghenghesh, P. (2010). The Motivation of L2 learners: Does it decrease with age? *English Language Teaching*, 3(1), 128-141.
- Gillham, B. (2000). *Case study research method*. New York: Continuum.
- Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. London: Longman Group, Ltd.
- Gonzales, R. (2010). Motivational orientation in foreign language learning: The case of Filipino foreign language learners. *TESOL Journal*, 3, 3-28.
- Gorham, J., & Christopel, D. M. (1992). Students' perception of teacher behaviors as motivating and demotivating factors in college classes. *Communication Quarterly*, 40, 239-252.
- Gorham, J., & Millette, D. M. (1997). A comparative analysis of teacher and student perceptions of sources of motivation and demotivation in college classes. *Communication Education*, 46(4), 245-261.
- Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dornyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effect of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 55-77.
- Hallinan, M. T. (2008). Teacher influences on students' attachment to school. *Sociology of Education*, 81, 271-283.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Holsten, J. A., & Gubrium, J. F. (1997). Active interviewing. In D. Silverman (Ed). *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice* (pp.113-129). London: Sage.
- Hyland, F., & Hyland, K. (2001). Sugaring the pill: Praise and criticism in written feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(3), 185-212.

- Jacques, R. S. (2001). Preferences for instructional activities and motivation: A comparison of student and teacher perspectives. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 185-199). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational Research: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Kimura, Y., Nakata, Y., & Okumura, T. (2001). Language learning motivation of EFL learners in Japan—a cross-sectional analysis of various learning milieus. *Japan Association for Language Teaching*, 47.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2007). Teaching English across cultures: What do English language teachers need to know to know how to teach English. Retrieved 20 September 2010, from http://www.englishaustralia.com.au/index.cgi?E=hcatfuncs&PT=sl&X=getdoc&Lev1=pub_jour_23_&Lev2=EAJ_23_2_kir
- Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 58(2), 327-355.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994). The postmethod condition: (E) merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *Tesol Quarterly*, 28(1), 27-48.
- Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System*, 32(1), 3-19.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*: Oxford University Press, USA.
- Lauder, A. (2008). The status and function of English in Indonesia: A review of key factors. *Sosial Humaniora*, 12, 9-20.
- Liando, N. V. F., Moni, K. B., & Baldauf, R. B. (2005). Student motivation in learning English as a foreign language in an Indonesian context. In J. Yamanashi & I. Milojevic (Eds.), *Researching identity, diversity and education*. Brisbane: Post Pressed.
- Lichtman, M. (2010). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (2000). Do Asian students really want to listen and obey? *ELT Journal*, 54(1), 31-36.
- Macaro, E. (1997). *Target language, collaborative learning and autonomy*. Bristol: Multilingual matters Ltd.
- Manolopoulou-Sergi, E. (2004). Motivation within the information processing model of foreign language learning. *System* 32, 427-441.

- Martin, J. L. O., & Escabias, E. R. (2007). Motivating factors in the students of FLL (English) at the Faculty of Education University of Granada. *International Journal of Learning*, 13(9), 1-15.
- Matsumoto, Y. (2010). Group dynamics in the Japanese University ELT classroom. Retrieved 28 November 2010 from <http://theses.bham.ac.uk/296/3/Matsumoto09PhD.pdf>
- Maulana, R., Opdenakker, M. C., den Brok, P., & Bosker, R. (2011). Teacher–student interpersonal relationships in Indonesia: profiles and importance to student motivation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 31(1), 33-49.
- Meng, X., & Wang, Q. (2006). Psychological factors and teachers' language. *US-China Foreign Language*, 4(5), 70-74.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research; A guide to design and implementation*. San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.
- Meyer, H. (2008). The Pedagogical Implications of L1 Use in the L2 Classroom. *Maebashi Kyoai Gakuen College Ronsyu*, 8, 147-159.
- Ming-zhu, L., & Xian-rong, H. (2007). On the application of motivational strategies in public English class in college. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 4(12), 29-33.
- Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. (2011). *What English language teachers need to know volume II: Facilitating learning*. New York: Routledge
- Nakata, Y. (2006). *Motivation and experience in foreign language learning*. Oxford: Peter Lang AG.
- Nikolov, M. (1999). ‘Why do you learn English?’ ‘Because the teacher is short.’ A study of Hungarian children’s foreign language learning motivation. *Language Teaching Research*, 3(1), 33.
- Noels, K. A., Clement, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 23-34.
- O’Sullivan, M. (2009). A study of motivation in EFL classroom. Retrieved April 8, 2010 from <http://www.biwako.shiga-u.ac.jp/eml/Ronso/371/mary.pdf>
- Oxford, R. (1994). Language learning strategies: An update. Retrieved 10 December 2010 from <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/oxford01.html>
- Oxford, R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 12-28.
- Park, G.-P., & Lee, H.-W. (2006). Characteristics of effective English teachers perceived by high school teachers and students in Korea. Paper presented at the 19th English Australia Education Conference, Perth, Australia. Retrieved

February 9, 2011 from http://www.englishaustralia.com.au/ea_conference2006/proceedings/pdf/Lee.pdf

- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Peacock, M. (1998). A useful and popular lesson? Comparing students working in pairs and threes in the ESL classroom. *RELC Journal*, 29, 27-49.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Saito, H. (1994). Teachers' practices and students' preferences for feedback on second language writing: A case study of adult ESL learners. *TESL Canada Journal*, 11(2), 46.
- Sander, P., Stevenson, K., King, M., & Coates, D. (2000). University students' expectations of teaching. *Studies in Higher Education*, 25(3), 309-323.
- Sayadian, S., & Lashkarian, A. (2010). Investigating attitude and motivation of Iranian University learners toward English as a foreign language. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 3(1), 137-147.
- Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassagby, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathway to the new century* (pp. 9-70). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Schulz, R. A. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: Students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 343-364.
- Schulz, R. A. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA-Colombia. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(2), 244-258.
- Schweers, C.W. (1999). Using L1 in L2 classroom. Retrieved 20 December 2010 from <http://dosfan.lib.uic.edu/usia/E-USIA/forum/acrobat/P6.pdf>
- Shaaban, K. A., & Ghaith, G. (2000). Student motivation to learn English as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33(6), 632-644.
- Shimizu, M. (2006). Monolingual or bilingual policy in the classroom: Pedagogical implications of L1 use in the Japanese EFL classroom. Retrieved 25 November 2010, from <http://www.kyoai.ac.jp/college/ronshuu/no-06/shimizu.pdf>
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(4), 63-75.
- Slavin, R. E. (1995). *Cooperative learning*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

- Song, Y. (2005). Motivation and demotivation in L2 learning. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 2(7), 79-81.
- Stipek, J. D. (1998). *Motivation to learn: From theory to practice*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon
- Stewart, D. W., & Shamdasani, P. N. (1990). *Focus groups: Theory and practice*. California: Sage Publications Inc.
- Sugita, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2010). What can teachers do to motivate their students? A classroom research on motivational strategy use in the Japanese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(1), 21-35.
- Theobald, M. A. (2006). *Increasing students motivation: Strategies for middle and high school teachers*. California: Corwin Press Inc.
- Trang, T. T. T., & Baldauf, R. (2007). Demotivation: Understanding resistance to English language learning - the case of Vietnamese students. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 4(1), 79-105.
- Turnbull, M. (2001). There is a role for the L1 in second and foreign language teaching, but.... *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, 57(4), 531-540.
- Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology of language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wu, W. V., & Wu, P. N. (2009). Creating an authentic EFL learning environment to enhance student' motivation to study English. *Asian EFL Journal*, 10(4), 212-226.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods*. California: Sage Publication Inc.
- Young, D. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *Modern Language Journal*, 75(4), 426-439.
- Yu, C., Liu, N., & Littlewood, W. (1996). How do secondary students perceive their English learning experience?-Report on a "Young Post" readers survey. *New Horizons in Education*, 37, 138-149.
- Yuanfang, Y. (2009). A study of foreign language learning motivation and achievement: From a perspective of socio-cultural theory. *CELEA Journal*, 32(3), 87-97
- Yuwono, G. (2005). *English language teaching in decentralised Indonesia: Voices from the less privileged schools*. Paper presented at the AARE 2005 International Education Research Conference . Retrieved 08 June 2010, from <http://www.aare.edu.au/05pap/yuw05050.pdf>
- Ziahosseini, S. M., & Salehi, M. (2008). An investigation of the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies. *Special Issue English*, 41, 85-107.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: List of Courses

No	Semesters	Courses	No	Semesters	Courses
1	1	Islamic Studies	36	4	Speaking IV
2	1	Indonesian Philosophy	37	4	Computer
3	1	Basic Natural Science	38	4	English Morphology
4	1	Indonesian Language	39	4	Sociolinguistics
5	1	Introduction to Education	40	4	Prose and Poetry
6	1	Structure I	41	4	Entrepreneurship
7	1	Reading I	42	5	Writing IV
8	1	Speaking I	43	5	English for Young Learners
9	1	Listening Comprehension I	44	5	Translation
10	1	Pronunciation Practice I	45	5	Psycholinguistic
11	1	Muhammadiyah Studies	46	5	Drama
12	2	Manliness Education	47	5	TEFL I
13	2	The Development of Learners	48	5	Language Testing I
14	2	Structure II	49	5	Language Games
15	2	Reading II	50	6	English Syntax
16	2	Writing I	51	6	Curriculum and Material Development
17	2	Speaking II	52	6	TEFL II
18	2	Listening Comprehension II	53	6	Language Testing II
19	2	Pronunciation Practice II	54	6	Research in English Language Teaching
20	2	Introduction to Linguistic	55	6	Teaching English for Children
21	2	Al-Islam I	56	6	Microteaching
22	2	Muhammadiyah Studies II	57	7	Semantic
23	3	Profession in Education	58	7	Seminar on English Language Teaching
24	3	Structure III	59	7	English Teaching Aids for Children
25	3	Reading III	60	7	Teaching Practices at Schools
26	3	Writing II	61	7	Thesis
27	3	Speaking III	62	8	Teaching Practices at Schools
28	3	Cross Cultural Understanding	63	8	Thesis
29	3	English Phonology			
30	3	Grammar			
31	3	Introduction to Literature			
32	3	Al-Islam II			
33	4	Structure IV			
34	4	Reading IV			
35	4	Writing III			

APPENDIX B: Letter of Ethics approval



FACULTY OF EDUCATION TE WHĀNAU O AKO PAI
DONALD STREET PO Box 17 310, Karori 6147, Wellington, New Zealand
Phone +64-4-463 9500 Fax +64-4-463 9649 Website www.vuw.ac.nz/education

26 July 2010

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing
M.Ed Student
Victoria University of Wellington Faculty of Education
C/- School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Donald Street
Wellington

Dear Rachmania

RE: Ethics application SEPP/2010/53: RM 17787

I am pleased to advise you that your ethics application 'Students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL', with the required changes, has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Faculty of Education Ethics Committee. Please note that the approval for your research to commence is from the date of this letter.

Best wishes for your research.

Yours Sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Sue Cornforth'.

Dr Sue Cornforth

Co-Convener
Victoria University of Wellington Faculty of Education Ethics Committee

APPENDIX C: Letter of permission to conduct the study



Faculty of Education

Letter of Permission

Dear Head of Faculty,

I would like to request for permission to conduct a research project in this particular university. I am currently undertaking my Masters Degree in Education in Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. The purpose of the research is to investigate the students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom in Indonesia.

In this research project, I would like to ask participation of the 2008 student cohort and all English language lecturers who teach in that class. The students will be asked to participate in one focus group. I will appoint 4-5 students to organise the focus groups. The students will be allowed to self-select into the groups with the conditions that each group can only consist of 6-7 students and no student wishing to take part is omitted from the study. All interviews will be conducted out of students' learning time at the university, to avoid any perceptions that the research has any relation to any of their coursework at the university. I will also ask help of one person (from outside of the study context) to be the facilitator for the focus group interviews. The facilitator will facilitate the group discussions, while I take notes during the interviews. Prior to the focus groups interviews, the facilitator will sign a confidentiality agreement. Alternatively, I will facilitate the focus groups myself and audiotape the conversations. After each interview, I will confirm the main points with the interviewees to determine the accuracy of my notes from the interviews.

The lecturers will be asked to participate in an individual interview. No interview will take longer than one hour. Interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed by me (the researcher). The main questions to be asked in the interviews and focus groups are:

1. How do EFL lecturers report motivating their student-teachers?
2. How do students-teachers report being motivated by their EFL lecturers?

Throughout this project, the participants' identities will be kept confidential, which means that in the final report or any academic presentations, no individuals will be identifiable. All data will be stored securely and destroyed after 5 years. A summary of the research findings will be made available for the interested participants upon request after the completion of the thesis. The thesis will be submitted to the School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Wellington.

This project has been approved by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Wellington.

If you have any questions or would like to receive further information regarding the research, you can address it either to me, my supervisors or to the chair of the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee. The contact details are provided below.

Thank you

Yours sincerely,

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing
Master of Education student
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Email: rachmania_bachtiar@hotmail.com

Allison Kirkman
Chair of the Victoria University of Wellington
Human Ethics Committee
Email: Allison.Kirkman@vuw.ac.nz

Carolyn Tait
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: Carolyn.tait@vuw.ac.nz

Margaret Gleeson
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: Margaret.gleeson@vuw.ac.nz

APPENDIX D: Consent form for the Head of the Faculty



Faculty of Education

Consent to participate in the research (Head of Faculty)

Title of the project: **Students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom**

Please tick the appropriate box to indicate your agreement/disagreement with the statements and to provide informed consent for participation in this research project.

Yes No

- I have read and understood the letter of invitation.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions about this project.
- I give consent for my lecturers to participate in an interview.
- I give consent for the student-teachers in 2008 cohort to participate in a focus group.
- I understand that participation is voluntary.
- I understand that any information provided is confidential.
- I understand that an external facilitator will be asked to facilitate the focus groups with student-teachers and will be asked to sign a confidentiality agreement.
- I understand that the data provided will be destroyed after 5 years.
- I understand that the data provided may be used for publication in academic or professional journals, and dissemination at academic or professional conferences.

Name :

Signature :

Date :

Please provide your contact details below if you would like to receive a summary of this research

Thank you

Contact details:

.....
.....

APPENDIX E: Letter of information for EFL Lecturers



Faculty of Education

Research title: **Students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom**

Dear lecturers,

I would like to invite you to take part in my research project. I am undertaking a Masters Degree at Victoria University of Wellington in New Zealand. The purpose of the research is to investigate students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL tertiary classroom in Indonesia. I am asking for your help by participating in this project.

I would like to interview you individually. The interview will take about 30 minutes. During this interview, you will be asked some questions about the motivational strategies you use in teaching English. If you change your mind about your participation in this project, you may withdraw up to 24 hours after the interview takes place without giving any reason. The interview can take place in anywhere that you prefer and at a time suitable for you. The interview will be audio recorded and then transcribed by myself as the researcher.

Throughout this project, your identity will be kept confidential, which means that in the final report or any academic presentations, no individuals will be identifiable. All data will be stored securely and destroyed after 5 years. A summary of the research findings will be made available for interested participants upon request after the completion of the thesis. The thesis will be submitted to the School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Wellington.

This project has been approved by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Wellington (Ethics number SEPP/2010/53).

If you have any questions or would like to receive further information regarding the research, you can contact me, my supervisors or the chair of the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics committee. The contact details are provided below.

Thank you

Yours faithfully,

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing
Master of Education student
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Email: rachmania_bachtiar@hotmail.com

Allison Kirkman
Chair of the Victoria University of Wellington
Human Ethics committee
Email: Allison.Kirkman@vuw.ac.nz

Carolyn Tait
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: Carolyn.tait@vuw.ac.nz

Margaret Gleeson
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: Margaret.gleeson@vuw.ac.nz

APPENDIX F: Letter of information for student-teachers



Faculty of Education

Research title: **Students' and lecturers perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom**

Dear student-teacher,

I would like to invite you to take part in my research project. I am undertaking a Masters Degree at Victoria University of Wellington in New Zealand. The purpose of the research is to investigate the students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL tertiary classroom in Indonesia. I am asking for your help by participating in this project.

I would like to interview participants in self-selected focus groups of 6-7 student-teachers. The focus group interview will take about 60 minutes. During this interview, you will be asked some questions by a facilitator about teaching strategies your lecturers use and I will take notes or audio-record your conversation. At the end of the interview, I will check the main ideas from your discussion with you to ensure that my notes are correct. Alternatively, I will facilitate the focus groups discussions myself and audio-recorded it. If you change your mind about your participation in this project, you may withdraw up to 24 hours after the focus group interview without giving any reason. Your participation or non-participation will have no effect on your grades. The focus groups will take place out of the university class time and is not related to any courses in the university.

Throughout this project, your identity will be kept confidential, which means that in the final report or any academic presentations, no individuals will be identifiable. All data will be stored securely and destroyed after 5 years. A summary of the research findings will be made available for the interested participants upon request after the completion of the thesis. The thesis will be submitted to the School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, University of Wellington.

This project has been approved by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee, Victoria University of Wellington.

If you have any questions or would like to receive further information regarding the research, you can address them to me, my supervisors or to the chair of the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee. The contact details are provided below.

Thank you

Yours faithfully,

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing

Rachmania Bachtiar Kassing
Master of Education student
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Email: rachmania_bachtiar@hotmail.com

Allison Kirkman
Chair of the Victoria University of Wellington
Human Ethics Committee
Email: Allison.Kirkman@vuw.ac.nz

Carolyn Tait
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: Carolyn.tait@vuw.ac.nz

Margaret Gleeson
School of Educational Psychology and Pedagogy
Faculty of Education
Victoria University of Wellington
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: Margaret.gleeson@vuw.ac.nz

Appendix G: Interview and focus groups guide

Interview guide (for EFL lecturers)

1. Tell me about the strategies you use when teaching English.
2. What effects do you think these strategies have on your students' motivation to learn English?
3. How do your students respond to teaching strategies that you use in the classroom?
4. How do you know that your strategies are effective in motivating your students to learn?
5. In your opinion, how are teaching strategies and students' motivation related?
6. Is there anything you want to add?

Interview guide (for student-teachers)

1. Tell me about the strategies your lecturers use when teaching English.
2. What effects do you think these strategies have on your motivation to learn English?
3. How do you respond to teaching strategies that your lecturers use in the classroom?
4. How are these strategies effective in motivating you to learn?
5. In your opinion, how are teaching strategies and students' motivation related?
6. Is there anything you want to add?

APPENDIX H: Consent form for EFL Lecturers



Faculty of Education

Consent to participate in the research (EFL lecturers)

Title of the project: Students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom.

Please tick the appropriate box to indicate your agreement/disagreement with the statements and to provide informed consent for participation in this research project.

Yes No

- I have read and understood the letter of invitation.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions about this project.
- I consent to participate in one interview.
- I understand that the researcher will audio-record and transcribe the interview.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary.
- I understand that I can withdraw up to 24 hours after the interview takes place.
- I understand that any information that I provide is confidential, and that no information that could lead to my identification will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party.
- I understand that the information I provide may be used in academic papers including the researcher's master's thesis.
- I understand that all data will be stored securely and destroyed after 5 years.

Name :

Signature :

Date :

Please provide your contact details below if you would like to receive a summary of this research.

Thank you

Contact details:

.....
.....

APPENDIX I: Consent form for the student-teachers



Faculty of Education

Consent to participate in the research (Student-teachers)

Title of the project: **Students' and lecturers' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom**

Please tick the appropriate boxes to indicate your agreement/disagreement with the statements.

Yes No

- I have read and understood the letter of invitation.
- I have had an opportunity to ask questions about this project.
- I consent to participate in a focus group of student-teachers.
- I understand that the researcher will take notes during this focus group and I will have a chance to check the accuracy of those notes.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and will not affect my grades in any way.
- I understand that I can withdraw up to 24 hours after the focus group takes place.
- I understand that any information that I provide is confidential, and that no information that could lead to my identification will be disclosed in any reports on the project, or to any other party.
- I understand that the information I provide may be used in academic papers including the researcher's masters thesis.
- I understand that all data will be stored securely and destroyed after 5 years.

Name :

Signature:

Date :

Please provide your contact details below if you would like to receive a summary of this research.

Thank you

Contact details:

.....
.....

APPENDIX J: Ground rules for focus groups

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
Te Whare Wananga o te Upoko o te Ika a Maui



INFORMATION AND SUGGESTED GROUND RULES FOR FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW ON MOTIVATIONAL TEACHING STRATEGIES IN AN EFL (ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE) TERTIARY CLASSROOM

(For facilitator of the focus groups)

INFORMATION

What is a Focus Group?

A focus group is a relaxed, non-threatening discussion with a number of people, the purpose being to obtain perceptions on a defined topic/area. The group comprises a 'neutral' moderator (interviewer/facilitator) who interacts with the participants, asks the questions and encourages sharing of ideas between the participants. Group members can add to, and respond to others' comments and hence influence the ideas of others. However, participants are often chosen if they share some commonality with regard to the topic as most people feel more comfortable when disclosing material to people who resemble themselves.

Objective of the Meeting

The objective of this focus group meeting is to explore what strategies do student-teachers consider to be motivational in teaching English in an EFL (English as Foreign Language) tertiary classroom.

The Planning for the Session

1. A number of questions have been appended to this information sheet. These will form the basis of the discussion between the group members. Members can of course raise any other pertinent issues at the end of the discussion when 'any other comments' are called for.
2. It is important that all, participants can readily communicate with each other so being seated in a circle shape is the most useful arrangement.
3. It is important that participants agree upon a number of ground rules for the meeting. A suggested list of ground rules are appended to this information sheet.
4. Members are given options whether or not they want to receive a copy of the report of findings after the material has been analysed.

SUGGESTED 'GROUND RULES' FOR FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

1. It is important that all of your co-participants contribute to the discussion. Do assist others to contribute if you feel this is appropriate.
2. Keep focused on the question that is being asked. Frequently look at the question to keep you on this task.
3. Try to keep the meeting moving by being succinct - but do give all relevant information. The time frame will give you an idea about how much time to spend on each question but, if necessary, another meeting can be convened to gather further information.
4. The facilitator will attempt to obtain a closure on each answer to the question – no one should feel that they have important ideas not discussed.
5. All participants need to agree that as a general rule discussion points are confidential to participants. No names or identification of school is to occur in any subsequent discussions.