Motivational Teaching Strategies, Student Motivation and L2 Use: Indonesian Higher Education EFL Context

Ronna Ria Melbondo Tamba

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University of York

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Abstract

This study investigates student motivation to learn English, in relation to a number of teaching variables, in Indonesia. Specifically, the study examines the relations between lecturers' motivational teaching strategies (MTS), student motivation, and the use of L2 in the classroom. The motivation theory of L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) was applied and extended to differentiate between groups of *Others*. Quantitative and qualitative data was collected on both lecturers' and students' personal opinions on MTS, student motivation, and L2 use in the classrooms. Thirty lecturers of English and 232 students from three universities participated in the survey; four of the lecturers and 12 of the students involved in the interviews and focus groups respectively; and three lecturers with three classrooms were observed. Reported use of L2 in the classrooms was compared to the actual use in the classroom via classroom observations. Lecturers' and students' data (questionnaires, lecturer interviews, student focus groups and classroom schedules) were triangulated data to answer the research questions.

The findings revealed that the students were influenced by both *Self* and *Other* motivation. Lecturers and the students had similar perceptions on the usefulness of MTS, and their frequency use, but the groups of participants had also differed in their opinions about them. A positive relationship between MTS and student motivation was revealed and negative relationships existed, between student motivation and their L2 use, and between the lecturers' and students' use of the L2. Quantitative results also showed a negative relationship between lecturers' L2 use and student motivation, while qualitative findings suggest that lecturers' L2 use motivated students to learn and to use the language. Concerning motivational strategies, both lecturers and students perceived that most MTS were used *frequently* while actual classroom observations revealed low use of most MTS. Similarly, the question of the use of English in the classroom revealed contradictory findings, in that, both lecturers and students reported that they used English more than was actually observed in the classroom observations. The pedagogical implications of this study, in particular for future lecturer's use of MTS, and L2 use, are discussed.

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Author's Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

This study is motivated by my desire to find out why the English proficiency of Indonesian graduates in Indonesia is unsatisfactory (Baso, 2014) in spite of reforms for quality improvement (Pasassung, 2003). From a professional point of view, poor English skills constitute obstacles for student employment and career development. In Indonesia, English is often required to apply or get a graduate job (Rini, 2014, The World Bank, 2011). Many companies, especially international enterprises, test the English skills of the applicants to offer a good position. However, Indonesian employees often find it hard to compete with international workers who have higher English proficiency (Jong, 2015), so they might have to accept lower career prospects than those with higher English proficiency, although their expertise in other respects might be high. Low proficiency in English is not only disadvantageous to the people as individuals in Indonesia, but also for the country in general; foreign investors would be more attracted to countries which have better skills in English such as Singapore and Malaysia, and even surpassed by Vietnam (Saputra, 2019).

There is, thus, a consensus that degree of English proficiency in Indonesia needs improvement (Wirdana, 2015). Indonesia's proficiency according to English Proficiency Index (EPI)[1], for example, has not grown well enough according to the education company English First (EF) in comparison with other South East Asia (neighboring) countries (Jong, 2015), it is "still a long way to go to catch up with the likes of Singapore and Malaysia" (Wirdana, 2015, para. 2); the Indonesia's English proficiency growth can be seen on Table 1.1. Singapore, Malaysia and Philippines were three leading countries in Asia entered the top 15 of English skills (Valentina, 2016). Students in Indonesia also are to improve their ability to express themselves in speaking English as they focus on this skill compared to the other skills such as writing and reading (Suherman, 2015). These facts suggest that teaching and learning English in Indonesia needs more effective

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[1] Measurement based on a free exam online (on English communication skills) administered to adults who are interested in knowing their level of English (https://www.worldatlas.com/articles/countries-that-are-most-and-least-proficient-in-english.html).

and strategic techniques to foster and improve significantly the competency of English skills of Indonesia. While there are a number of avenues (e.g. curriculum practice and development, psychological or cultural perspectives, etc.) to address this problem, this thesis focuses on my own perspective, that of an English lecturer in Higher Education (HE) institutions of Indonesia.

One avenue to address the low proficiency of English in Indonesia is to improve the pedagogy of English teaching: by training lecturers, we can reach students, and -ideally- influence student motivation, and their use of English. To do so, we need to understand what in class activities motivate students better; then give teacher recommendations for best practice to maximize motivation. Thus, this thesis investigates how lecturers strategic teaching practice might relate to improved learning outcomes. In future, improved practice in HE institutions could thus train students to be ready for a high qualified workforce.

As a developing country, Indonesia needs English skills of high proficiency in order to improve many aspects of the nation's lives such as quality of workforce, investments from other countries, knowledge and technology development. This problem needs to be resolved strategically and effectively in order to enhance the quality of human resources of Indonesian employment. Teachers, who commonly introduce English to students (Whitehead, 2013), are thus of strategic importance.

Table 1.1 shows that there is no significant progress of the proficiency trend of Indonesia's English Proficiency Index (EPI) in the last decade. In the last four years, it has even fallen into low proficiency. It seems, for the following years ahead, there would not be an important leap of the EPI's trend.

Table 1.1 Indonesia's EPI in the most recent years

Year	World Rank	Proficiency Trend[2]
2020	74 out of 100 countries	Low
2019	61/100	Low
2018	51/88	Low
2017	39/80	Low
2016	32/72	Moderate
2015	32/70	Moderate
2014	28/63	Moderate
2013	25/60	Moderate
2012	26/52	Low
2011	34/44	Very Low

1.2 Rationale of the study

It is argued that "teachers have an important role in fostering learners' ability to speak English well" in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Indonesia by maintaining their good relationship with EFL students, encouraging them to use English more often and creating classroom activities to enhance students' interactions (Widiati & Cahyono, 2006, p. 279). Teachers can also enhance student motivation in EFL Indonesian classrooms by improving their teaching techniques and speaking English ability or English (L2) use in the classroom (Yulia, 2013); however, there is a lack of governmental guidance on pedagogy including use of L2 in class. Since there has been no specific governmental guidance for how much L2 is used in the classroom in Indonesia; this study may recommend such regulation to ensure effective teaching and improvement of L2 use in EFL Indonesian classrooms. Research found that exposure to L2 use maximising students' proficiency of the language (e.g. Thompson, 2006). MacDonald and Park (2019) argue that:

> an effective classroom needs to provide sufficient TL [target language] input and ample opportunities for students' TL output through meaningful interaction and negotiation with timely feedback. These factors, in instructional practice, are essential to develop student communicative competence entailing strategic, linguistic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural, and pragmatic proficiency (p. 17)

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[2] According to EPI EF, the world's largest ranking by countries of English skills
http://www.ef.com/wwpt/epi/regions/asia/indonesia/

In addition, motivational strategies are pivotal aspects of learning and teaching English especially in a country such as Indonesia, where English has the status as a foreign language. This means that there are relatively limited opportunities, especially for students, to use or practise the language outside the classroom. It is often that learners have problems in speaking as there is also little English spoken in the classroom (Mohammed, 2014). I personally experienced this long a time ago when I first learnt English at the age of 12 in Junior High School in my country, Indonesia.

Furthermore, students are often reluctant to learn (Dişlen, 2013) and to use the language in the classroom (Savaşçı, 2013) as they have low motivation (Dişlen, 2013) due to several factors, including classroom situations and inappropriate approaches that many teachers use in their teaching. This also applies to students majoring in English, since the students are more self-motivated and have stronger goal-orientation to learn English compared to those in the other programmes(e.g. Ngo, Spooner-Lane, & Mergler, 2017).

According to my experience, learning (starting in year 7) and teaching English more than 15 years in my country, I have found that generally the students are unable to use the language well after they graduate. Students may not be good at speaking English despite the long time they spend to learn the language (Erling, 2002). English is a compulsory subject from high school to tertiary education in Indonesia, which means that a student, whose major is English, will have been learning the language for more than ten years by the time they graduate. Some students have even put in extra hours to learn English outside school to support them in learning the language. However, many students are unable to speak and write well in English after the studies. This phenomenon is very common in Indonesia regardless of the location and the reputation of the school or university. The fact suggests that we cannot predict the good skills of English would be obtained by the amount of time the students use in learning English.

However, the amount of time used to use English counts the language outcome. For example, Hakuta, Butler & Witt (2000) found in a study pertaining to English proficiency attainment that in a context where there is an extensive exposure of English outside the classroom i.e., in the United States and Canada, it takes 3 to 5 years for English learners to attain proficiency. Therefore, students' exposure to English in the classroom in this

study may influence their proficiency in the language. Added to this, student motivation has unquestionable influence in learning the language.

Motivation has been shown to predict language ultimate outcome (e.g. Alkhateeb, 2014) and has significant influence on the (English) language achievement (e.g. Zurita & Ramos, 2018; Khodadad & Jagdish, 2016). Nasihah and Cahyono (2017), for example, found that there is a significant correlation between motivation and writing achievement of Indonesian EFL students while Hadriana, Ismail & Mahdun (2013) revealed that there is a relationship between extrinsic motivation and the language achievement. In the latter, the research also found that there is no significant correlation between intrinsic motivation and self-learning with achievement. Then, the study suggested that provision of "a supportive learning environment to inspire and encourage students' interest to form a culture of learning English language" is important instead of independent learning and intrinsic motivation (Hadriana, et., al., 2013, p. 36).

Therefore, I am interested in contributing to the knowledge of good pedagogical practice to best foster motivation for learning and teaching English in the classrooms in the context of Indonesia. My interest is in looking at both the students and lecturers' perceptions of motivational strategies in order to enhance student motivation and their L2 use in the classroom. The comparison views of the two groups are important as what teachers perceive motivating students to learn might not be perceived similarly by the students.

Teacher role models are especially important where the classroom is the main site for students to use L2, as in this case in Indonesia. Students in EFL Indonesian classrooms perceive that they expect more opportunities to speak in English or use L2 in the classroom and teachers should speak more in English (L2) well (Kassing, 2011). This shows that Indonesian EFL students rely on their teachers' useful strategies to encourage the students to use L2; teachers (with frequent L2 use) may inspire them to be English (L2) speakers like their teachers for teachers are possibly the first and only persons for the L2 source or access for the students. Teachers' language is both medium and material of teaching i.e. learners will learn the language and how to use it at the same time by listening to the teachers when they instruct, direct, explain and ask questions (Zulfah, Rasyid, Rahman & Rahman, 2015).

Therefore, teachers' use of L2 likely can have an important impact on students' use of L2. In relation to this, learners also need to have sufficient opportunities to use L2 in class; but unfortunately many teachers in Indonesian English classrooms still dominate speaking whereas ideally teachers should to give opportunities for learners to use L2 e.g. in the classroom discussion (Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011) to practise and gain fluency in L2 use. The amount of L2 use of Indonesian English teachers is also far less compared to their use of L1 (native language/Indonesian) when teaching (Zulfah, et al., 2015). The teachers' low use of L2 may have a negative influence on Indonesian English learners' use of the language.

Thus, it is hoped that this study contributes to the improvement of the pedagogy research that might filter into, for example, teacher education especially in the English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia. Sulistiyo (2015), for example, found that beginner English teachers and new graduates perceived that they were well equipped in their English language and language teaching skills, but they did not have enough experience to translate their knowledge and skills gained in the university into practice in real English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms at schools.

Azkiyah (2017) also points out that Indonesian English teachers should be trained to enhance their related classroom teaching skills to help them to practice the skills and improve student outcomes. ELT in Indonesia can, then, benefit from this study for teaching enhancement either for student teachers or teachers at school through teacher education programmes and teacher training at schools. By this means, Indonesian EFL teachers can be better trained so that the teachers can influence students' motivation positively; thus, students can improve their English skills and succeed in learning the language.

In conjunction with this, the implications of the findings are expected to inform the policy makers in education, the Ministry of Education, and English teachers to better address the need of students in L2 (English) achievement: to progress significantly and gain better competency in English use. Recommendation of how much L2 is used by both teachers and students in the classroom will make a better concept and establish L2 use practice in L2 learning classrooms. The government of Indonesia, in fact, has no directives regarding

use of English (Rahmi, 2015) while in some other countries the amount of L2 use in teaching and learning the language has been addressed.

ACTFL[3] (2010), for example, recommends the use of L2 is as exclusively as possible (90% plus) by both language educators and their students in the classroom; while Department of Education of United Kingdom recommends that Secondary School should "put much greater emphasis on regular use of the target language in all lessons" in modern foreign language classes in (Ofsted[4], 2011, p. 8). In the context of South Asia, the use of L2 is often regulated through the policy on English language e.g. English is the language at school besides the other language or a bilingual education policy in Singapore (Basit, 2010); Subjects are taught in English at universities in Malaysia (Omar, 2012); and English is the dominant language in education in the Philippines (Martin, 2012). Such policies of L2 use are important so that teachers have guidelines and help them to provide the expected L2 use in the classroom. Absence or inconsistent guidelines regarding L2 use may limit or lower teachers use of the language in the classroom (Riordan, 2015) respectively.

In Indonesia, where there is a limited access to L2 speaking communities, the role of teachers to stimulate L2 use in the classroom is important. Therefore, teachers in this context should be able to 'transform' the learning environment in the classroom into L2 speaking communities e.g. teachers' L2 use or their choice of language in L2 teaching necessitates teachers' strategies to foster the students L2 use. Teachers who are able to practise creative and stimulating techniques for their L2 use will enable the students to develop their own conversation (Christie, 2016). Some strategies for supporting successful L2 use/conversation according to Christie (2016), he says that teachers need to establish a climate of L2 use, provide the language, stimulate creative use of L2 and motivate learners to speak out. Therefore, teachers' strategy (Lee & Ng, 2010) and their

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[3] The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages is an American organization dedicated to the improvement and expansion of the teaching and learning of all languages at all levels of instruction (ACTFL.org.)

[4] The Office for Standards in Education: a government body set up in 1993 to inspect and assess the educational standards of schools and colleges in England and Wales. It is a Children's Services and Skills that "inspects and regulates services which care for children and young people, and those providing education and skills for learners of all ages. It reports directly to Parliament. Inspection findings are accessible to all and are often widely published in media." (Chambers, 2013, p. 44)

strategic use of L2 may interact learners to communicate in L2 and build their confidence (Christie, 2016).

Teachers can also offer solutions to students' problems in L2 use, which may relate to other aspects of language learning, with their teaching techniques motivating the students to use the language. Some students, for example, avoid using L2 because of fear of making mistakes (Yoshida, 2013); hence, teachers can strategically to help learners reduce this fear or anxiety and support the students to use L2 more e.g. by encouraging the students to speak in L2 without correcting the mistakes when speaking (Shabani & Safari, 2016) and boost the motivation. With this teaching technique, the students might feel motivated to use the L2 and eager to participate in the classroom interactions with teachers and peers. For this reason, the literature confirms that teachers play an important role to enhance student motivation, the focus of the current study, in L2 learning and to use the language in the classroom.

1.3 Aims of the study

The aims of this study are twofold. First, it is to investigate the relations between motivational teaching strategies, motivation and L2 use linking to real classroom situations with a focus on Indonesian EFL teaching and learning. The conceptual approach of this study is based on research conducted in the fields of teachers' motivational strategies, language classroom motivation and L2 use. This will be discussed further in the Literature Review chapter. The chapter will discuss that much research has revealed (1) the relationship between teaching practice and motivation and (2) the use of L1 versus L2 in Indonesia and other contexts. There is, however, limited studies looking at the relations between motivational teaching strategies, motivation in relation to L2 use in Indonesia. The rationale of choosing the concept of motivation and motivational teaching strategies is also discussed further in the literature review. The relations between the concepts and L2 use are further justified in the chapter and in the methodology and methods one.

Next, the study aims to find out the best ways to motivate students to learn English, and to improve the teaching of English at Indonesian universities. The project is to investigate teachers' teaching strategies in order to motivate students in learning English and using the L2 (English) at English programme of three urban private universities in North

Sumatra province of Indonesia in 2017. The main purpose of this mixed-method study is to examine teachers' teaching practices which are applicable within the context: Higher Education (HE) English as a Foreign Language (EFL) of Indonesian classrooms. The following methodological considerations need to be discussed to highlight, first, it is necessary to develop quantitative and qualitative instruments to collect both teachers' and students' personal opinions on the use of motivational teaching strategies (MTS) which are relevant to classroom practices to compare to the real use of such strategies.

Second, triangulation between teachers' and students' perceptions, and between the self perceptions and the researcher's observation in the classroom is included to collect valid data and provide more meaningful interpretations. Third, this study also has adapted and developed of a statistical instrument to measure student motivation and L2 use respectively to explore the degree of student motivation and the amount of L2 use by either their teachers or the students themselves. Finally, I developed reliable instruments to investigate how self reporting strategy use relates to actual uses of MTS and L2 in the classrooms. The research utilized reliable and tested instruments for all quantitative methods through pilot study to increase validity and reliability.

- **Study Context**

Participants of the study were lecturers and students at English Department in three urban private HE institutions in Indonesia. The students were enrolled between years 2 and 4, aged over 18 years and learned English previously 6 years in Secondary Schools and at least 1 year in the programme.

1.4 Significance of the study

This study has significance in several implications contributing to teacher training and language policy implications as discussed below:

1.4.1 Theoretical implications

This study will evaluate a framework of MTS in teaching practice of HE EFL classrooms of Indonesia. Are there any techniques of teaching practice that are under-developed that emerge from the current study? The study also will attempt to count the amount of L2 use in L2 classrooms. Then, the research study will test the fitness and validity of the

L2MSS model within its dynamic system of L2 motivation in Indonesian HE EFL context. Relations of variables models used in this study will be examined by the methods used.

In addition, the study focuses on the need to see motivation as a complex and dynamic process in which the role of 'selves' in motivating students and enhancing their L2 achievement cannot be avoided. In this process, the study will focus on some aspects of teacher-student interaction in the classroom. These features are likely to be salient for the context of the study. In addition, this study has a theoretical contribution is that neither teacher strategies nor L2 use are conceptualized as one-directional or as necessary conditions for motivation meaning that this study approach allows a fluent multidirectional interpretation of motivation.

1.4.2 Methodological contribution

This study will triangulate data and compare findings from quantitative and qualitative data (mixed) methods. This study includes classroom observations unlike many studies which rely on teachers or students report. Data collected from questionnaires will be examined comparatively with that obtained from interviews and classroom observations. Data analysis will reveal findings for comprehensive data interpretation. Instruments will be adapted and piloted, so methodology used is found to be valid and reliable to answer the research questions.

1.4.3 Implications for policy and educational practice

The study gives a fluent multidirectional interpretation of motivation in relating teacher strategies and L2 use to motivation. It also recommends (1) which MTS are best appreciated by both teachers (lecturers in this study) and students to motivate students in L2 learning and to use L2 more frequently, and (2) the amount of L2 use of either by teachers or students in HE EFL classrooms of Indonesia. The study supports teacher training for teaching enhancement which improves student motivation and L2 use in the study context.

1.5 Thesis presentation

The thesis consists of 7 chapters. This chapter provides background, rationale, aims, significance of the study, and thesis presentation. Chapter 2, The Contextual Background discusses the context of the study including the overview of Indonesia, its education

system, English status in the country and in Higher Education. The chapter also includes the role of English in the world as the context of learning English in Indonesia and the rationale of conducting this research.

Chapter 3 discusses what previous studies have been completed to see how the relevant issues have been investigated. The main issue in this study is how to motivate students to learn English and use L2 more frequently. The chapter begins with an introduction of the literature, discusses the definitions, concepts of motivation for language learning followed by the most relevant theories and models of motivation in L2 classroom. It also reviews motivation in the classroom practice through motivational teaching strategies and includes the effect of the strategies on learning particularly in relation to L2 use before formulating the research questions and hypotheses towards the end of the chapter.

Chapter 4, Research Methodology and Methods, defines and discusses the concept of research paradigm, presents the types of paradigms in L2 motivation, and explains the reasons for choosing the mixed methods. The instruments development, participants and sampling procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations are then described. Finally, pilot study and results were reported before the summary of the chapter is provided.

Chapter 5, Results, presents, and triangulates the findings of quantitative and qualitative data to answer the four research questions. It begins with factor analysis to validate the instrument for student motivation questionnaire before calculating reliability and conducting statistical technique of data analysis to answer RQ1. The relationships between variables were tested and reported. Qualitative findings show the results from individual lecturer participants which were cross analysed to students' focus groups comprising the high, medium and low motivation students to find out similarities and differences between them. Preferences of MTS to learn and to use L2 use by students according to their level of motivation were also analysed.

Chapter 6, Discussion, presents the importance of findings for lecturers, students and research. Lecturers and student participants' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies associating with student motivation and L2 use either by lecturers or students are discussed. This chapter also presents my interpretation and analysis of blended

findings from the survey, lecturers individual interviews, students focus-groups and classroom observations.

Chapter 7, Conclusion, presents the summary findings of the research of all data types and their primary contribution. This chapter will discuss implications for research, policy and educational practice, pedagogical aspects for lecturers and students, limitations and future research recommendations at the end.

1.6 Summary

This chapter has overviewed the rationale for researching lecturers' motivational teaching strategies, student motivation and L2 use at HE institutions in Indonesia. Background of the study was presented initially by discussing the concerns regarding the L2 (English) proficiency in Indonesia and in the world particularly compared to the other neighbouring countries like Singapore, Malaysia and Philippines. Motivation to learn the language, lecturers' use of teaching strategies to motivate to learn and use the language and their relations to the use of English become the focus the study for several reasons: the inadequacy of research on these three variables either within the context or beyond, finding the best ways to motivate students to learn and use the language, and the necessity to develop research instruments that address the lecturers' use of motivational teaching strategies, student motivation and L2 use in the classroom at Indonesian HE context. The outline of the other six chapters is presented at the final section of this chapter.

Chapter 2
The Contextual Background

2.1 Introduction

Many countries worldwide have designed English as a (compulsory) subject in their education system (e.g. Al-Harbi, 2002; Eurostat, 2019; Qi, 2016) including Indonesia (Alwasilah, 2013) to equip learners with skills required in mastery of the language and to support the countries to compete overseas (Pinon & Haydon, 2010). Good English proficiency is very important for countries to improve the quality of people or human resources as well as their economies (McCormick, 2013) especially in the countries where English is spoken as a second or foreign language like in Europe or Asia respectively. This is inevitably due to the important role of the language in the world in many aspects of human lives such as in communication, education and international relations. The global use of English has an impact on educational policies and practices (Nunan, 2003), and this may vary from one context to another one because there are several factors involved like culture, economic conditions, and education system.

In this regard, it is essential to understand the contextual background of where English is learnt and taught to figure out how the English is used nationally and internationally in such context. This chapter, therefore, presents the contextual background of the study covering the background Indonesia, the status of English in the country and its education system. This chapter also discusses the role of English to provide a clear picture of the goals or motivation of students learning the language particularly in the study context whose participants are students majoring in English discussed further in the Methodology chapter.

2.2 Background of Indonesia

Indonesia is located in Southeast Asia, in the south of China and east of India along with the Phillipines, Malaysia, Singapore, and Brunei (Lamoureux, 2003). Indonesia which is the largest archipelago in the world, stretching some 5,000 kilometers from the Indian and Pacific Ocean and enclosing three time zones (OECD, 2015), and about 6,000 out of more than 17,000 of its islands are inhabited. The major islands stretching from west to east are Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan, Sulawesi, Bali and Papua. Indonesia is the fourth

most populated country in the world with over 250 million people and it has 34 provinces with 505 regencies, 6,543 districts and 75,244 villages (OECD, 2015). Indonesia, whose principle of nationalism concept is Unity in Diversity (Meuleman, 2006), is hugely diverse in ethnic groups and their languages. The largest compositions of ethnic groups according to census in 2011 are the Javanese (40.2%), Sundanese (15.5%), Batak (3.6%), Madurese (3.0%), Betawi (2.9%), Minangkabau (2.7%), Buginese (2.7%), Malay (2.3%), Bantenese (2.0%), and Banjarese (1.7%) (Misachi.2017).   Almost 80% of the population concentrate in western Indonesia: approximately 60% in Java island and around 20% in Sumatra, West Java province is the most populous with over 43 million people and the least one is West Papua with about 761,000 people (Indonesia Investments, 2017). The population is young and growing middle class (Asia Pacific, 2014).

A Republic country, Indonesian independence was declared on the 17th August 1945 upon the Japanese surrender to the allied forces during World War II after colonizing Indonesia from 1942 to 1945 (OECD, 2015). The Netherlands had colonized Indonesia for about 350 years before Japanese invaded the country. Finally, the Dutch acknowledged the independence in 1949 after their re-colonization efforts were strongly resisted either by diplomatic or military means (OECD, 2015). Since then, Indonesia has strived to build and develop the country and the nation within its diversity of faiths, cultures and languages.

The government of Indonesia recognizes six official religions: Islam, Protestantism, Catholicism, Hinduism, Buddhism and Confucianism. Indonesia is the largest Muslim nation in the world. Islam, the major religion, is 87.2% of the population, Christians/Protestant and Roman Catholic 2.9 %, Hindu 1.7%, Buddhist 0.9%, Confucian and other 0.4% (Hays, 2013). Faiths are mainly important in the culture of every ethnic group: the Javanese and the Sundanese found predominantly in Java, and Bugis in Sulawesi are mainly Muslims, the Acehnese in northwest Sumatra and the Minangkabau in West Sumatra are committed Muslims; the Batak in North Sumatra, the Dani in Papua, the Dayak in Kalimantan are primarily Christians; the Balinese in Bali are Hinduism (Lamoureux, 2003); and Chinese are mainly Buddists or Confucian.

Indonesian or *Bahasa Indonesia* is an official language in Indonesia: the "unifying national language of Indonesia" (OECD, 2015. p. 55). However, the first language of

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most people is a local one or *bahasa daerah*. That means *Bahasa Indonesia,* which is the medium language in education, is a second language to most Indonesian. Within around 1000 communities, more than 400 different languages are spoken all over Indonesia (Goebel, 2013). OECD (2015) indicates that 722 languages are used as a first language and 719 of them are indigenous. Besides Indonesian, local languages may also be learned at school to maintain the languages (Gumilar, 2015). Though the local languages are perceived as identities and representations by way of diversity bond, foreign languages, however, foreign languages become more popular to learn at school to gain skills in the languages (Alamsyah, 2018), particularly English. Before looking at the status of English in Indonesia and its implication on the education system, the role of English in the world is discussed.

2.3 The role of English in the world

Nowadays, English has been the most internationally used language in the world compared to the other languages such as French and German (Mastin, 2011). One political reason commonly mentioned as the cause of the global use of English was the impact of cultural legacy of British Empire in the world (Cyrstal, 2003) dated back in the 16th century. Then, in the 19th century, the use of English has globally spread due to the advanced development of British industry and trading (Cantor, 2015; McKay, 2009). Based on the spread of English the countries are grouped into the world Englishes (Kachru, 1990) and Indonesia belongs to the Expanding Circle.

Indonesia is not in the Inner Circle nor the Outer Circle as English is not the L1 nor the second language in the country respectively. This means that Indonesia is an EFL varieties (Kachru, 1990). In other words, according to Kachru's grouping of countries that use and status of English fall into three categories: first, second and foreign language (Buschfeld & Schneider, 2018). English is used as a second language mainly as a result of British colonization and it has official status like in Singapore and India; and it is a foreign language like in Indonesia, Japan and China (McKay, 2009). In the third group of countries, English has minimum use as highlighted in the context of study. The use of English worldwide in the three categories, however, has informed its prime role in some aspects of human lives as highlighted below which is for global communication and language in trade or business in the world.

- **Language in Global Communication**

English as a global language means that English is used worldwide to communicate between people from different nationalities or countries. The increased use of English globally is due to global economic growth which demands the use of the language in communication (Nunan, 2001) particularly in the 21st century. About two decades ago the number of people who spoke English worldwide was about 1.5 billion) (Crystal, 2000), about 20% of the world population which was about 6 million (The World Bank, 2017). The number later increased by approximately 1.7 billion (British Council, 2013). By now, there could be around, or more than 2 billion people use the language all over the world. International communication in English is not only dominated in face to face communication (Xue & Zuo, 2013), but also in that of using other media such as the Internet. English has been used beyond cultures (Valentyna, 2006) and age groups (e.g. Van Deursen, & Helsper, 2015).

- **Language in Trade**

   Trade is an engine of growth that creates jobs, reduces poverty and increases economic opportunity" (The World Bank, 2019, para. 1)

Trade is very important to improve the quality of lives across the globe (Ortiz-Ospina, Beltekian, & Roser, 2018), particularly if the countries can participate in trade internationally (Samimi & Jenatabadi, 2014). International trade refers to the exchange of goods or services along international borders (Rodrigue, 2020). People and countries participating in global trade necessarily need a language to communicate to those from outside their countries. English, therefore, becomes the solution to language barrier between people trading internationally as it seems unlikely for these people to communicate using their native languages (Ku & Zussman, 2010). This suggests that, whether we like it or not, English is now the language of global business (Neely, 2012) including trade. Many international companies, in fact, plausibly have adopted English as the main or official language in doing their business (Borzykowski, 2017; Neely, 2012) to succeed in global business or trade.

Accordingly, English is an advantage for those who are capable and proficient in the language, particularly in the countries where English is used as a second or foreign language in order to be able to participate and gain more in international trade. This is because that *lingua franca* is useful to diminish language barriers to trade (Mack,

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Martínez-García & Martínez-García, 2014) and proficiency in English, the language of international trade, is a key for more transactions. In this regard Fidrmuc & Fidmurc (2015) found in their studies that: "if all European countries had Scandinavian levels of proficiency in English, trade would be some 30–60% higher than what can be ascribed to economic and geographical factors" (p. 48). This means that people with high proficiency in English are more demanding and will create more job opportunities for others. As such, English also has become the agenda of Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), for example, recognising the English language education in the countries of its members to promote the ability of English communication in diplomacy and trade in the region and globally (Lazaro & Medalla, 2004).

2.4 The status of English in Indonesia

English as an international language is increasingly used worldwide (Sharifian, 2017) and learned globally. The English globally not only has social-political and linguistic impact but also the widely spread and use of English inevitably has an important implication on English learning and teaching especially in non-native speaking countries (Lin, 2013) such as Indonesia. In Indonesia, the use of English is not only limited for everyday communication, but the language also has a limited focus in the education curriculum (Indonesia Investments, 2017). The development of English learning and teaching might be a challenge to fulfill the demands of fluent speakers as well as qualified and competent teachers in Indonesia.

In other Asian countries falling into the Outer Circle, i.e., Brunei, Singapore, Malaysia and Phillipinese (Hashim & Low, 2014), the people learn and use English like their mother tongue; therefore, English is widely spoken among the people every day. In Singapore, for example, English has become the language of communication at school, work and home (Lee, 2016). In this regard, teaching English now draws its attention to "the fact that language is a medium of *self*-expression and a means of communicating (Ushioda, 2011, p. 204). Sung (2013) also mentions that:

> the predominant motivation of learning English among most L2 learners is no longer concerned with 'integration' in the target native English-speaking culture, but with the construction of a 'bi-cultural' or 'world citizen' identity, as well as identification with the international community (p. 377).

As English has become an international language and plays an important role in many domains of life worldwide such as in economy and education, non-English speaking countries including Indonesia inevitably make a policy to learn the language formally at school. According to the legislation of the educational system in Indonesia, English is the most influential foreign language in Indonesia besides the other languages: Chinese, Arabic, Dutch, Germany, French and Japanese (Lauder, 2008). English, therefore, is an important subject to learn at school (Sepyanda, 2017) alongside the other subjects like math, science and arts. Yet, English is still difficult to use in (school) class (Yulia, 2013).

The status as a foreign language in the context of the study, means that English is not used as an official or an administrative language for communication every day (Kachru, 1990) in Indonesia. English is used to speak or to communicate to people with different nationalities who cannot communicate in *Bahasa Indonesia* (Indonesian) which is the first and official language in Indonesia. In fact, many local or regional languages are also spoken everyday alongside *Bahasa Indonesia* (Cohn & Ravindranath, 2014). Indonesia has multicultural and multilingual societies using or speaking their local languages within their local communities and Bahasa Indonesia as a national language among different cultures. For the teaching implication, unlike English as a second (ESL), in a foreign language (EFL) classroom L1 is commonly used (McKay, 2018).

Thus, the use of English is very minimum compared to the countries in which English is used as a second language like in Singapore, Malaysia and Philippines. On a personal level, though Indonesian students are included as the highest users of technology even compared to those in developed countries such as the USA (Cambridge Assessment, 2018), e-learning or the internet users for learning are only a few particularly outside Java island (Berlianto & Santoso, nd). Additionally, the low proficiency of English is one of the challenges of the online learning in Indonesia (Berlianto & Santoso, nd) making English and e-learning as a vicious circle.

However, the government of Indonesia through the Ministry of Education understands that English is crucial for the students in Indonesia to learn, to be able to compete in the workforce nationally and globally (Shobikah, 2017). For this reason, English is a compulsory subject at school as stated in The Regulation of Indonesian Ministry of Education, Number 22, year 2006 (Alwasilah, 2013). According to this Regulation,

English is a compulsory subject at Secondary School from years 7 to 12 (13-18 years of age) at the educational system in Indonesia while it is an optional subject at Primary School. This means that students in Indonesia have to learn English for at least six years compulsorily at (high) school.

2.5 Education system in Indonesia

Education was one of the priorities of the Indonesian government upon its independence: they started to organize an education system for the public (Lammoureux, 2003). *Bahasa Indonesia* has become the language of education since 1949 and compulsory education was introduced for 6 years in 1950 (Nuffic[5], 2015) and later increased to 9 years in (PP[6] No 47, 2008). The education system of Indonesia is shown in *Figure* 2.1 below.
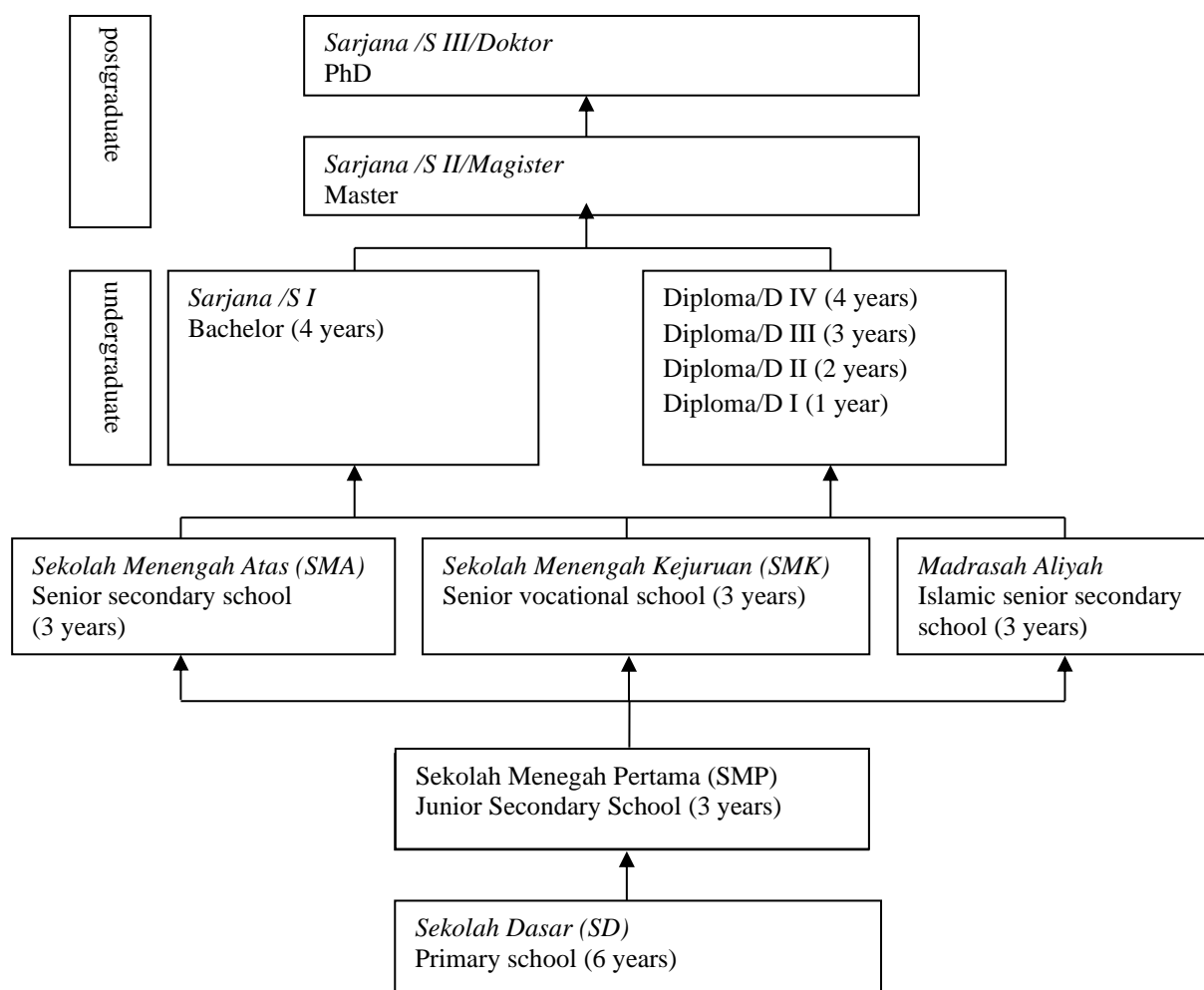
Figure 2.1 Indonesian education system
(Adapted from Nuffic, 2015)

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[5] The Dutch organization for internationalization in education
[6] *Peraturan Pemerintah* or Presidential Regulation

The figure shows the levels of education in Indonesia i.e., *Sekolah Dasar (SD)* or primary school, *Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP)* or junior secondary school, *Sekolah Menengah Atas (SMA)* or senior secondary school which is also parallel to *Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan (SMK)* or senior vocational school and *Madrasah Aliyah* or Islamic senior secondary school according to UU[7] N0 20 in 2003. Primary education is for 6 years, junior and senior secondary are 3 years each. The next level of education is *Sarjana I* or Bachelor at undergraduate, lasting for 4 years, it is parallel to higher professional education: Diploma I (1 year), Diploma II (2 years), Diploma III (3 years), Diploma IV (4 years). Then, the higher level is *Sarjana II*/*Magiste*r or Master, and Sarjana III/*Doktor* or Doctorate at postgraduate level.

Regarding this project, Higher Education of Indonesia refers to tertiary institutions or universities in Indonesia. As the diagram shows earlier Indonesia has 5 types of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) that have powers to award diploma or degree: (1) Academies, awarding vocational diplomas up to **D III** level in certain field e.g. military academy and film academy; (2) Polytechnics, awarding vocational diplomas up to **D III** usually in the fields of engineering, agriculture or business; (3) Specialized Colleges, single faculty, awarding both vocational diplomas and academic degrees up to **S I** level typically in a single professional field; (4) Institutes, awarding vocational and academic degrees up to **S III** level in a several fields; and (5) Universities, a multi-faculty HEI, awarding vocational diplomas and academic degrees up to **S III** level in a number of different fields. The context of the study is **S I** level, undergraduate, a bachelor's degree qualification. The qualifications framework can be seen in *Figure 2.2*.

Academic Program	Vocational or Professional Program	IQF
Doctorate	Specialist 2	9
Master's	Specialist 1	8
	Professional	7
Bachelor	D4/Voc. Bachelor	6
	D3	5
	D2	4
	D1	3
SMA/MA	SMK	2
Elementary + Secondary School		1

Figure 2.2 The Indonesian qualifications framework
(Adapted from WENR, 2019)

[7] *Undang- Undang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional* or Education Law of Indonesia

Basic education, from primary to senior secondary schools, and higher education is governed by the Ministry of Education and Culture, but Islamic schools are governed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs. The Indonesian school system is the 3rd largest education system in the Asia region and the 4th in the world with over 50 million students and 2.6 million teachers in over 250.000 schools (The World Bank, 2014). Education in Indonesia provided by both public and private schools. In the case of tertiary education, there are far more private institutions than public ones. Global Business Guide Indonesia (2017) notes that there are 4,445 institutions in 2016: 91.5% are private and only 8.5% public type.

The figure shows that private higher education institutions have significant participation as well as contribution to the higher education provision in Indonesia. Public higher institutions are fully funded by the government hence the tuition cost less (Sinaga, 2018) than that in the private ones. Both types of institutions are bound to the same education policy but in general the public institutions are better in "size, staff qualifications, infrastructure, equipment and facilities" (OECD, 2015, p.185). Looking at the importance of contributions of Indonesian HE private institutions can make to the Indonesian education provision, this study will be based on or conducted in private Indonesian HE EFL classrooms, English programmes, focusing on lecturers' teaching strategies motivating students to learn and use English in the classroom (the reason for setting is discussed further in Methodology chapter). The government of Indonesia is likely to face challenges of education provision to the nation either in quantity or quality.

The education of Indonesia needs strategic policy and its effective implementation to educate the huge multicultural population to bring about a better economy. Indonesia, as a developing country, is the 16th largest economy in the world and the largest economy in the Southeast Asian countries (OECD, 2015); it has significant GDP growth between 5.0% and 6.5 % for more than a decade and these make the country of specifically strategic interest to neighboring countries and the world (Asia Pacific, 2014).

Indonesia, however, still faces challenges to fulfill qualified workforce due low education qualification and skilled labor: 97% of Indonesian have primary education while only 23% of them go to tertiary level (DCR Trendline, 2015); one reason might be that studying at university in Indonesia is expensive in the country and only 27% of senior

high schools graduates enroll annually at both public and private higher institutions (Muzakki, 2013). Skilled workers also out-migrate, and skills training provisions are insufficient or often outdated (ILO, n.d.).

Therefore, the Government of Indonesia needs to develop its education system that supports further the demands of rapid economic emergence in its transition towards a high income position by improving the quality of education and assuring the skills acquired by all learners to prosper in life and work (OECD, 2015). This suggests that lecturers inevitably need quality improvement in order to enhance the learning or education outcomes. Qualified and better skilled lecturers particularly at tertiary level, an institution of education which produces the highest level of education and qualification for the workforce, may produce better qualified and skilled workers as higher education is the institution which is most likely capable of skills provisions to fulfill the workforce demands. In fact, language proficiency has economic benefits for individuals and society (The World Bank, 2010).

Grenier (2015) argues that "Economic studies have shown that fluency in a dominant language is important to economic success and increases economic efficiency" (p. 1). In regard to this, one important skill in high demand to develop the enhancement of highly qualified and skilled workforce to support the country's international participation for improving English proficiency is teaching. Thus, Indonesian education particularly at tertiary level needs to address this issue and provide more effective English lecturers training to ensure that graduates will be equipped with proficiency in English.

2.6 English in education in Indonesia

In the EFL context like in Indonesia, English is often learned and taught for the first time through education pathways. This section will briefly discuss the English in basic, tertiary or higher education and teacher education in Indonesia.

2.6.1 English in basic education

Generally English is a compulsory subject in Secondary Schools in many countries but some countries have policy or have made some reform to their English language policy that English is also compulsory in Primary Schools (e.g. Zhang, 2012). English is the language that many children currently learn as their second or foreign language at early

education while many others start learning the language in primary or secondary schools. The realization or being aware of the importance of English is likely the reason for learning English early in schools.

Positive responses are expressed into English learning at early education by many. Students, for example, have a positive response of introducing English early at the level of education particularly in the countries where people have willingness to participate in the world (e.g. Qi, 2016). Some students believe that learning English at a young age would help them to get jobs, admissions to better (secondary) schools and qualifications (Qi, 2016). The importance of learning and using English early in school is also recognised by parents. Many parents send their children to early education in which teachers use English as a medium of instruction so that their children learn and start using the language very soon for future investment in the language skills either in education or career (e.g. Al-Qhatani, 2016; Mustafa et al., 2018; Mwalongo, 2016). In other words, the parents intend to prepare their children for the future to go to higher education where English is often the requirement to enter a university and to enhance their chance to compete in the workforce afterwards.

In Indonesia, parents also like to send their children to school, particularly at primary education, where English is taught (Zein, 2017), even though English is no longer compulsory in that level of education in the country. English had to be taught at primary schools for students in years four to six between 1994 to 2012 in Indonesia (Sepyanda, 2017); English was no longer compulsory at primary schools in Indonesia due to the notion that it is more important for the students at the level of education to learn and master Indonesian than English (Zein, 2017).

Nevertheless, later in 2015, owing to the public (parents and teachers) protest against the policy of English teaching in primary schools and in response to the ASEAN Economic Society, the government demanded primary schools to teach English as a foreign language alongside the first language (Indonesian) and the local language despite the absence of formal regulation (Zein, 2017). Indonesia is the only country in South-east Asia where English is not compulsory in primary education (Saputra, 2013). In fact, if English was taught in primary schools, at all grades, it would have a great impact on students in terms of the number of children learning the language as approximately 25.5

million children enrolled in primary schools in Indonesia, academic year 2017/2018 (Hirschmann, 2019). The children and their English skills now and the future should have sufficient teaching provision of the English language to boost the quality of their English skills, which can function as the basis of their further educational development on the language skills i.e., secondary schools and higher education.

As mentioned earlier, English is taught 6 years in secondary schools in Indonesia i.e., 3 years in low secondary education and another three years in upper secondary school. However, in terms of communication ability, English learning in secondary education in the country unexpectedly is still not effective as Mattarima and Hamdan (2011) argue that only few students can communicate in English after learning the language compulsorily in secondary schools for six years. One reason for this perhaps is that not all students in primary education learn English as this is not compulsory while research shows that learning English in primary schools has a positive impact on the students' English skills development including proficiency later in secondary schools (e.g. Uematsu, 2012). If the students do learn the language in primary schools (usually in private schools), the teachers' factors including their proficiency and teaching time may have influence on the students' language skills later in secondary level (e.g. Graham, Courtney, Marinis & Tonkyn, 2017).

In fact, most of teachers in Indonesia probably have lower intermediate proficiency level (Renandya, Hamied & Nurkamto, 2018) and the teaching time is various hours from two to six hours per week (Yumarnamto, 2019) and only four hours in high school (Saputra, 2013). Moreover, English teaching practice at secondary education may have an effect on the students' low ability in communication. Teachers at secondary schools, for example, need to use appropriate learning materials meeting the students' needs rather than use the materials from textbooks very closely (Hanifa, 2018).

The top-down approach (i.e., curriculum changes occur every time a new Minister of Education is appointed suggesting that the change is based only on policy-makers perspectives), absence of needs analysis studies and evaluation on curriculum objectives may also contribute to the low English skills of students in Indonesia (Poedjiastutie, Akhyar, Hidayati & Nurul Gasmi, 2018); though research found that the current English Language Teaching Curriculum in secondary schools in Indonesia i.e., Curriculum 2013

has been implemented well (e.g. Sofiana, Mubarok & Yuliasri, 2018). Thus, the English competence of Indonesian secondary school learners in communication, which is generally unsatisfactory, (Poedjiastutie, et.al., 2018) will perhaps have a negative impact on their English skills and proficiency later in higher education.

2.6.2 English in higher education

Learning English is more demanding in higher education (Al-Khalil, 2017) compared to the basic level. Learning English is even more required for skills and efforts particularly for further and international education. Like basic education, the Indonesian language is also the language of instruction in teaching and learning in higher education Indonesian institutions regardless of study programmes (WENR, 2019). Some universities have used English as the language of instructions at higher education (Ibrahim, 2001) but many universities are striving to do so and even discontinue the practice due to some challenges such as different perspectives between policy maker and the institutional policy's articulation regarding the importance of English proficiency in the curriculum of department (Simbolon, 2018). This may be one reason why students in Indonesia find it difficult to use the language during and after the studies for there is no optimum practice or English use in the classroom.

As such, English should be the language of medium in teaching (Mappiasse & Sihes, 2014), particularly in higher education, to provide more opportunities for students to understand and practice the language at least in an academic settings. Insufficient practice English in Indonesian academic setting leads not only to low proficiency use of the language but also to incompetency of many Indonesian students in using academic English (Novera, 2004). Yet, some Indonesian lecturers themselves view the implementation of English as medium of instruction at tertiary level involve several issues such as 'linguistic matters', 'national identity' and 'sentiment towards English as an instructional language originating in the West' (Dewi, 2017, p. 241). While English as a medium of instruction is still a challenge for non-English programmes, the language should be at least implemented in the English or English language teaching programmes (Simbolon, 2018).

English, however, is also learned in higher education in Indonesia as one popular option of foreign languages in many universities, nonetheless, students learn English in non-

English programmes taking only 2 credits entire their studies (Rokhyati, 2013). This suggests that the amount of time of learning or practising English in higher education (non-English programme) probably may not be sufficient to gain the skills in the language. Some students may decide to take English as their major to gain more skills in the language. Majoring in English, the students perhaps expect that they will have good skills and abilities or high proficiency to communicate in the language.

As English is a compulsory subject at high school in Indonesia meaning a student majoring in English, will have been learning the language for more than ten years by the time they graduate (plus 4 years in Higher Education). Some students have even put in extra hours to learn English outside school to support them in learning the language. However, many students are unable to speak and write well in English during and after the studies, including those majoring in English. One reason could be an inappropriate amount of English use during the studies or in the classroom. The use of L1 (Indonesian) and local languages is common in the English programmes in Indonesia i.e., English Literature and English Education (Lotfie & Hartono, 2018). Therefore, the lecturers now need to shift their teaching practice from "learning to know the language to learning to use the language" (Poedjiastutie, et al., 2018, p. 180). It is important that lecturers are aware of their teaching practice: to maintain the students' motivation and to provide examples and opportunities to use the target language.

2.6.3 English teacher education in Indonesia

Under the current law, Teachers and Lecturers Law of Indonesia No 14, 2005, to be a teacher one must have a bachelor degree or Diploma 4 in education[8]. According to the law, with such education qualification one can be a teacher in primary school up to higher education for programmes below undergraduate degree; for an undergraduate and postgraduate programmes one must have at least Masters and Doctoral qualifications respectively. Indonesia has fewer than 12% of professors hold a PhD and most of them teach at top public universities and approximately 30% of lecturers do not hold a master's degree as required by the law, most teaching in private universities (WENR, 2019). In addition, the law also requires a teacher to have a teaching certification requiring "a set amount of teaching experiences and passing scores on qualifying examinations" (WENR,

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[8] Teachers and Lecturers Law of the Republic of Indonesia No. 14/2005.
http://luk.staff.ugm.ac.id/atur/UU14-2005GuruDosen.pdf

2019, para. 42) to improve teaching quality; however, the goals of the certification i.e., students' enhancement in learning performance have been unlikely to be met since the programme was in force (Fahmi, Maulana & Yusuf, 2011). In other words, "[…] there is no evidence that certified teachers have caused any measurable changes to both student and teacher outcomes […]" (Kusumawardhani, 2017, p. 612).

In English teaching, currently, to be a teacher in schools in Indonesia, one must attend four year teacher education at English Language Education Department with minimum of one Semester of teaching practice at school (Yumarnamto, 2019); however, for higher institutions only relevant and level of degrees (Mursidi, & Sundiman, 2014) are required one is able to be an English lecturer. Ironically, to date, there is no regulation required by English or non-English programmes in Indonesia for one teaching in higher education institutions to have either a qualification in teaching in higher institution settings or publication records. It is entirely in the regulations of the institution to require other aspects, if applicable, of the potential individuals for staff recruitment. In other words, fresh graduates or those without teaching experience or teaching qualification may become lecturers in Indonesian higher institutions.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has discussed the study context covering first the background of Indonesia including its location, cultural diversity in terms of ethnicity, religious beliefs and languages. A short discussion about the role of English is presented. The status of English as a foreign language is also discussed to give reasonable pictures or backgrounds on how English is taught, learned and used in the country. In this regard, the education system, the language teaching and learning from basic to higher education i.e., how English is learned in formal education are also discussed briefly. This is important to help us understand the study context as it investigates teaching and learning English in EFL classrooms at higher education institutions in Indonesia which is designed from and influenced by the quantity and quality of the language learning at a lower level of education.

The chapter also discusses the role of English in Indonesia; a brief discussion on the role of the language would reflect, most likely, the motivation of students in the context to learn and use English which is the centre of the study. Finally, the English teacher

education in Indonesia is discussed to inform how teachers are educated and prepared to teach at schools and at higher education institutions.

Chapter 3
Literature Review

3.1. Introduction

Given the status of English as a foreign language in Indonesia context as discussed in the previous chapter, it is important to investigate the dynamic nature of L2 motivation in the classroom, since, for the student participants in this study, the L2 language community hardly exists, and the use of the language is very limited outside the classroom. Therefore, this chapter draws motivation in the L2 classroom and links it to pedagogical practices; the importance of promoting motivation in the classroom particularly through motivational teaching strategies is included to see what teachers can do to motivate learners to learn in the classroom. Structurally, this chapter has three main sections i.e. motivation in second (L2) language learning, motivation in practice: motivational teaching strategies (MTS) and the effect of MTS on learning, with a particular focus on L2 use. The rationale to relate the variables is discussed in Chapter 1. At the end of the chapter, research questions (RQs) with working hypotheses on MTS, student motivation and L2 use are formulated, and the summary is provided.

3.2 Motivation in L2 learning

Motivation is often seen as a notion to explain a learner behaviour in a second (L2) language learning. It is considered as one important factor affecting success in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001a). However, researchers' perceptions on L2 motivation vary and some have defined motivation differently. Gardner (1985) defines motivation as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (p. 10). In this view, motivation has constructs of effort and desire to achieve learning goals as well as positive attitudes toward learning. The three components of motivation are all individual characteristics showing that "learning is essentially a personal process" (Chang, 2014, p. 159). In this sense, motivation is considered as an affective factor, therefore, many researchers in L2 motivation have focused on learners to investigate success in L2 learning.

However, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) view motivation as a process and they 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, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out (p. 64).

The definition is attributed to the fact that motivation is dynamic rather than static as it could change and vary (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). This could explain that motivation is not only related to individual differences (Dörnyei, 2005) e.g. attitude, aptitude, anxiety and emotion, but also influenced by learning situations and experiences (Dörnyei, 2001a). In this respect, motivation may also fluctuate in the classroom where learning usually takes place. Motivation in the classroom could be affected by the atmosphere in the class, the nature of course and curriculum, the teacher's characteristics, and the student's very scholastic nature (Gardner, 2010). Accordingly, research looking at the fluctuation on L2 motivation could focus on the teachers or practitioners and classroom dimensions to investigate motivational classroom interventions.

The fluctuation of motivation in the classroom learning over time, however, could also be influenced by broader aspects of the language learning because motivation is "adapted to the ever-changing parameters of the context" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 84); the dynamic process of motivation is situated "in dynamic interaction with a multiplicity of internal, social and contextual factors", and considers formulating L2 motivation "in the broader complexities of language learning and use in the modern globalised world" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 72). In this view, motivation is also related to cognitive factors or self-concept, and to social factors or significant others (milieu). Thus, all L2 models of motivation face the challenge of tensions between very individual variables and more contextual variables such as education system, society, culture and L2 status.

To understand the development of L2 motivation into research in the classroom, Gardner's conceptualization of motivation and socio-educational model, pioneering research in L2 motivation, is discussed next (section 3.2.1. Gardner's integrative motivation). Self-related concept/theory and process-oriented L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Otto's process model) which are relevant to the current study, are reviewed subsequently (sections 3.2.2 – 3.2.5). This is important to learn how motivation works in individuals in the classroom setting. In relation to this, the learning experience of L2 motivation in the classroom is also discussed (section 3.2.6) to understand how motivation changes and

what may cause the change in the classroom. Empirical research in L2 motivation in the classroom is included in relevant sections particularly to show findings on the dynamic nature of motivation in the classroom by looking at the fluctuation of motivation and social interactions in the classroom that influence learner's motivation level over time.

3.2.1 Gardner's integrative motivation

The concept of L2 motivation, integrativeness or integrative motivation, was first introduced over 60 years ago by Gardner and Lambert (1959) investigating students learning French in Canada. Gardner and his colleagues investigated second language acquisition in psychology with the focus on social aspects (Dörnyei, 2020) in L2 learning, which is known as social psychology approach. Gardner's integrativeness concept is rooted at the idea that to be successful, a language learner needs involvement in social community of the target language: "the ability of a learner to incorporate elements of another culture into his/her own 'lifespace', and the willingness "to identify with other culture communities", (Henry, 2019, p. 45). Many scholars investigated motivation based on the *social psychological* approach proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) until in the early 1990s (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). The research with the approach situates cultural beliefs interplaying with individual differences including motivation in second language acquisition within the language context (Gardner, 1985) as shown in the model below.
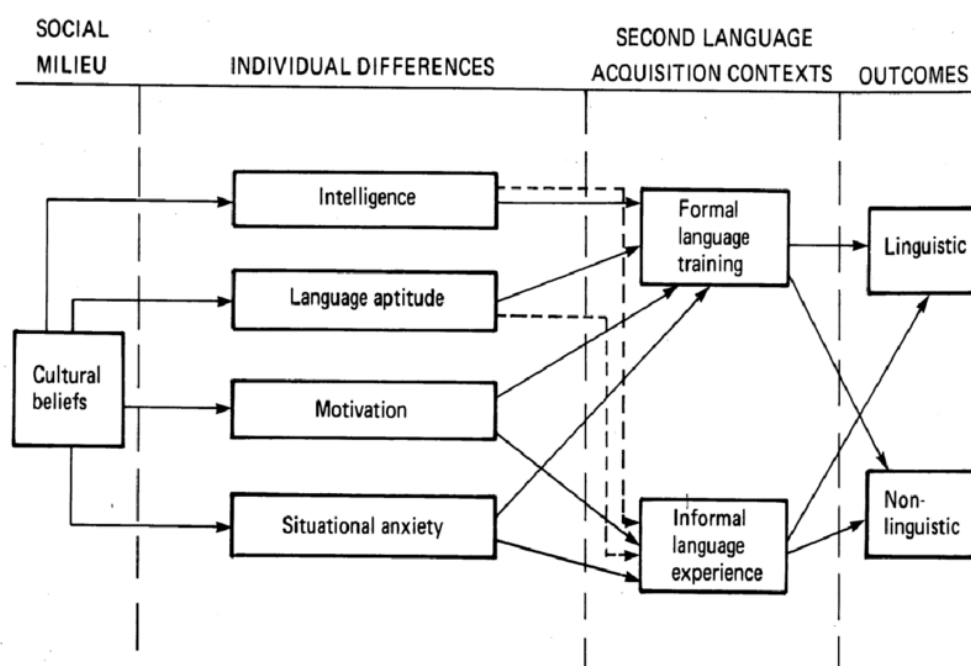
Figure 3.1 Socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985)

The model illustrates that motivation along with the other individual differences such as intelligence, language aptitude and situational anxiety is influenced or externally regulated or controlled by cultural beliefs. When the beliefs in the community, for example, is that it is important to learn a second language, the motivation referring to *desire* and *effort* towards the language learning would determine *positive attitude (affect)* in learning and influence the language achievement (Gardner, 2010). This model of motivation highlights the importance of social context or learning environment in acquiring the learning goals i.e., integration to the L2 learning community (*integrative*) and external (*instrumental*) goals (Gardner, 1985). The latter deals with pragmatic reasons to learn the language such as for jobs, skills, or education.

Since the introduction of the integrative motivation concept (Gardner & Lambert, 1959), the model has been altered repeatedly (e.g. 1985, 2001, 2005) and a recent model is shown in *Figure* 3.2. The model was developed to refine the previous model (2001) in which integrative motivation comprises three main components: integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation and motivation; and similar to the model above, motivation referring to the driving force which is fueled by certain learning goals (integrative or instrumental orientations), has three components (*effort, desire, a*nd *positive affect* in learning*)*. In the recent model, motivation and ability (comprising intelligence and language aptitude), both are related to achievement and motivation is also related to integrativeness and attitudes to learning situation (Gardner, 2005 as cited in Lai, 2013).
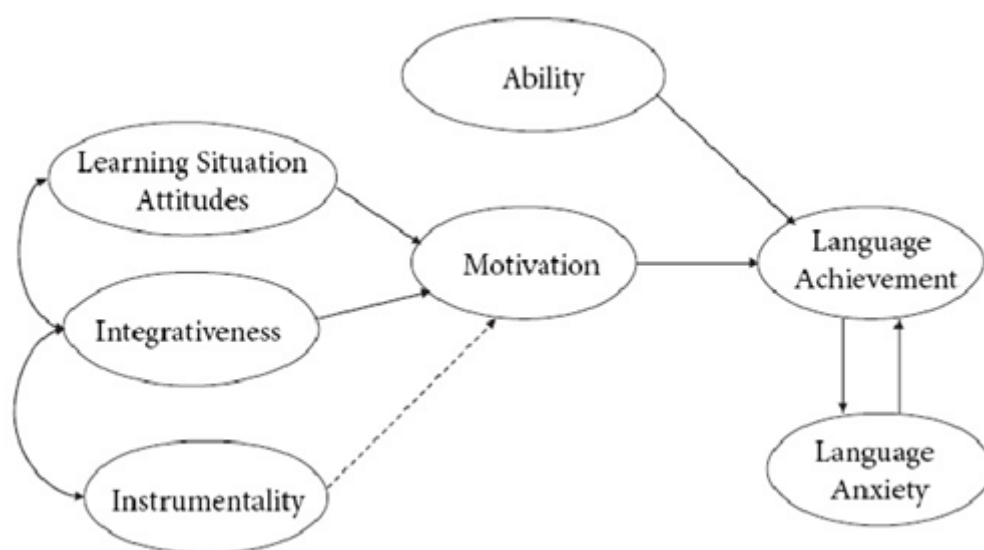
Figure 3.2 Socio-educational model of second language acquisition (Gardner, 2005)

(Adopted from Lai, 2013)

Despite its importance in the field of L2 motivation, Gardner's social psychology concept of motivation has several drawbacks; some corresponding to the current study are mentioned. First, the concept of integrativeness has been considered less applicable to a learning context like foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2010). It is likely that integrative motivation or orientation might not be motivating for learners in such a context. Second, the concept is also perceived less related to learning situated condition such as classroom because "motivational processes were hypothesised to be based on intergroup processed that generally took place outside the language classroom, it was unspecified how teachers could foster language learning motivation in their students and thereby facilitate language learning" (Macintyre, Mackinnon, Clément, 2009, p. 45).

In addition, the socio-educational model does not demonstrate the specific motivation development happening in language learning in the classroom such as motivation at learner level and learning situations (Dörnyei, 1994). Integrativeness for learning English is also a difficult concept in the context of Global English "as English is no longer associated just with Anglophone countries" (Lamb, 2004a, p. 14), meaning that the notion of target language community does not refer to native speakers of L2 alone. In sum, motivation in the dynamic classroom situations is lacking in the concept. Thus, it is slighter applicable in a foreign language context where language learning process and the development of motivation are possibly mainly classroom based.

Nevertheless, Gardner's integrative motivation and socio-educational model have contributed to the evolution of research in L2 motivation. Research on L2 motivation challenged the affective factors in the L2 learning process in the classroom marked the development of motivation research into *cognitive-situated* approach (Al- Hoorie, 2017) starting in the 1990s. The approach underscored "the learners' motivational patterns in a given socio-cultural or educational environment" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 122). The context of school such as classroom settings and teacher's concerns became the focus of the research in which motivation and learning factors influence the attainment of L2. The focus of L2 motivation in the learning process using this approach is the individual. In other words, self-belief or motive is the impetus of motivated learning behaviour or performance. Gardner's integrative motivation has also underpinned later investigations of the integration to learning community in "a broader sense" in relation to self-concept (Csizèr, 2019, p. 72), and some are discussed below.

3.2.2 Linguistic self-confidence

Linguistic self-confidence is defined as "the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks completely." (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 73). It is another concept in social psychology rooted in the social context model, and originally was modelled as an important factor of motivation in learning a language in a multiethnic context (Clément, 1980). In the concept, frequency and quality contact to the L2 community influences linguistic self-confidence in which "a high frequency of pleasant contacts will have more outcome than a lower frequency" (p. 151). Clément and Kruidenier (1985) validated the concept empirically and the results supported the cause sequence proposed by Clément: contact with L2 community influenced linguistic self-confidence significantly which was causally and positively related to motivation (Csizér, 2020). They say: "Contact with members of the second language group not only determines level of proficiency but also the pertinence and operation of the self-confidence process." (p.35).

In this respect, contact with community of L2 influences both learner's competence as an L2 user and confidence in his or her ability in L2. In other words, in linguistic self-confidence concept, a learner gains or develops his/her linguistic self-confidence through their interactions with the members of the L2 community by means of using the L2 influencing the learner's self-belief of his/her L2 competence as Dörnyei, Clèment and Noel (1994) put it:

> In a multiethnic context, positive attitudes would orient the individual to seek contact with members of the L2 community. To the extent that his contact is relatively frequent and pleasant, self-confidence in using the L2, operationally defined in terms of low anxious affect and high self-perceptions of L2 competence would develop (p. 422).

Accordingly, linguistic self-confidence is viewed "socially determined, in contrast to the cognitive nature of its counterpart in the motivational psychological literature, self-efficacy" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015, p. 76), *Self-efficacy* deals with learners' beliefs in their ability 'empowering' them to change the learning situation to succeed and is associated with the ability to perform or execute a plan of action (Bandura, 1997) or learners with their perceptions with their capabilities allow them to perform better towards learning

attainment. In this sense, s*elf-efficacy* is completely cognitive in nature while self-confidence is both cognitive and socially constructed (Csizér, 2020).

Later, linguistic self-confidence is also viewed applicable where the contact of the L2 communities is possible through media particularly in the context of learning English as a world language (Dörnyei, 2005) as evidenced in Dörnyei, Clément and Noels' research in Hungary, a unilingual and unicultural context, (1994). In the research, linguistic self-confidence is the component of L2 motivation influencing L2 proficiency directly or indirectly through attitude and effort expended on learning the language. The research hypothesized and tested tricomponential approach of *integrative motivation, linguistic self-confidence* and *appraisal classroom environment* influencing foreign language behaviour and competence, and the results supported it. The findings of the research also suggest that good classroom situations encourage student engagement and promote linguistic self-confidence. In addition, Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh (2006) found that linguistic self-confidence is correlated strongly with significant others i.e the self-confidence is influenced by the views of people in the immediate learning environment such as teachers, peers and parents (Csizér, 2020).

Thus, in the classroom context, in learning a language as a foreign language context like in this study, linguistic self-confidence might be more relevant to a learner's belief of his/her ability to complete tasks or perform in the classroom activities acquired through interactions in the classroom either with teachers or peers and by the views of people in the immediate learning environment rather than the contact with the L2 community. Such contact perhaps is quite minimum, for the participants of this study, even through the media like the internet because at individual level, only few Indonesian learners use the internet for learning as mentioned in the previous chapter in section 2.4. As such, linguistic-self-confidence might be parallel to *competence*, the component of self-motivation in Self-determination theory, a theory in educational psychology, as explained next, in terms of learner's self-perception on his/her competence gained through positive experience in learning or using the language.

3.2.3. Self-determination theory

In educational context, Self Determination Theory (SDT) was an important theory dealing with learners and their learning environment. SDT developed by Deci and Ryan (1985;

2000) who explain that self-motivation is determined by fulfillment of basic innate psychological needs including *autonomy, relatedness* and *competenc*e; and the conditions that support the processes of individual integration. Ryan and Deci (2000) discuss further that first, autonomy regarding actions performed owing to self-determination to perform activities like students choosing to do homework for future career goals are more self-motivated than those who have to do it for parents' control reasons (degree of autonomy is higher in the former).

Second, relatedness refers to the process of integration or internalization of externally motivated activities when behaviours or actions are performed due to feeling valued by others having connectedness or relatedness e.g. children feeling being cared for by parents and teachers would exhibit positive school-related behaviours better. Third, self-motivation is facilitated by behaviours performed due to feelings of enhanced competence or fulfilled self efficacy e.g. students receiving positive feedback.

SDT highlights a continuum of gradual extrinsic to intrinsic motivation (Lanvers, 2016). In the classroom situations, teachers play an important role to internalize the external influences of L2 learning and foster the students' success. Those who are less motivated or have no motivation due to unsupportive external regulations or environment (e.g. study load, large class, minimum sources of learning and unclear learning goals), can be encouraged by providing external influences which facilitate optimal development into internal motivation. Learner autonomy and competence by teachers in L2 learning, especially, can help learners internalize motivation gradually, for example, by giving rewards, good feedback, or grades.

The theory, therefore, considers the importance of valuing an activity (internal/intrinsic motivation) and external regulation (acting motivated by external determinant such as rewards or punishment) which may either increase or undermine self-motivation. Self-motivated (i.e., self-determined/intrinsic motivated) learners will make efforts to succeed in learning. In other words, teachers can encourage learners through extrinsic motivation to become intrinsically motivated (Brown, 2006). However, the theory is not used in this study because first, it is not sufficiently applied to learner context; second, instruments for data gathering are not as well developed as for Dörnyei's (2005) L2 *motivational self*

system (L2MSS*)*, in which this theory is overlapped (Lanvers, 2013); and third, I have a specific agenda for improving the L2MSS as discussed next.

3.2.4 L2 motivational self system

L2 motivational self system (L2MSS) proposed by Dörnyei in 2005 partly in response to the growing dissatisfaction with the integrative motivation concept (Dörnyei, 2009a) which is perceived less relevant to another context of language learning other than learning language as a second language context mentioned earlier. It has been a focus of much research (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015) whose concept was grounded from Markus and Nurius' *possible selves* (1986) and Higgins' *self-discrepancy* theory (1987). This conceptual approach comprises *ideal* and *ought-to L2 selves* and the *L2 learning experience*. The *ideal L2 self* is the individual aspirational self who has a vision for the future discrepancies between actual and ideal self might therefore arise. The *ought-to self* explains "the attributes that one believes ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid negative outcomes" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 29).

Broadly speaking, the *ideal self* is similar to a self-determined learner in that of SDT theory while the *ought-to self* is comparable to extrinsic motivation (Lanvers, 2013) in terms of internal and external motives in L2 learning, respectively. Both *ideal* and *ought-to selves* are possible selves and hence related to self beliefs in change, in contrast to actual self. SDT would predict that both *ideal* and *ought-to* selves (Higgins, 1987) motivate learners and that externally regulated motivation can be internalized.

However, Dörnyei's L2MSS (2005, 2009a) distinguishes domains of *self* into two, *ideal* and *ought to selves* without the basic standpoints of *own* and *other* in Higgins' *self-discrepancy* theory (1987). *Own* and *other* are two different perspectives on the *self* (Higgins, 1987) and thus describe *who* is looking at the self. For example*, own ideal self* would be how the learners see themselves as developing ideally and *other ideal self,* how significant others (such as parents and teachers) view this development. On the topic of ignoring the standpoints Higgins (1987) comments:

> […] previous theories of the self have not systematically considered the different domains of self in terms of the different standpoints on those domains (e.g. your beliefs concerning the attributes you would personally like ideally to possess versus your beliefs concerning the attributes that some

significant other person, such as your mother, would like you ideally to possess). In fact, this failure to be explicit about which standpoint on the self is involved in a particular self-concept has led to confusions in the literature.

(p. 321)

In this study, I, therefore, re-introduce the clear boundary between the standpoints of self into L2MSS. The literature discussion below also highlights how the lack of this differentiation in the L2MSS has led to misfits between empirical data and theory.

In L2MSS, a further dimension is *learning experience;* this refers to "situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 29). Dörnyei argues that "for some language learners the initial motivation to learn a language does not come from internally or externally generated self images" (*ideal* and *ought-to selves*) "but rather from successful engagement with the actual learning process" (*learning experience*) (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 29). Therefore, learning experience is one important factor influencing motivation particularly in the classroom as reviewed later in section 3.2.6 while the *ideal* and *ought-to L2 selves* are explained below and they are related to the classroom context.

3.2.4.1 The ideal L2 self

The Ideal L2 self captures the learner's self related image as a capable L2 user in the future and is a strong motivator to learn L2 "because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 29). According to self-concept in L2MSS, a learner's ability to generate image of his or her idealized L2 user or professional in the future can be a strong guide leading to success in the language learning. This suggests that the aspect of ideal L2 self is imagery which is often associated with the learner's self vision in learning the language (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). In this respect, Dörnyei (2009a) contends that the *ideal L2 self* is an effective motivator if (1) a vision exists, (2) the vision is elaborate and vivid, (3) it is perceived plausible and is in harmony with the expectations of *others* e.g. teachers and parents, (4) it is regularly activated to keep the vision alive, (5) it develops an action plan to operationalize the vision and (6) it is counterbalanced by a feared self.

Much research has focused on the *ideal L2 self* and the learner's self vision of the future ideal self has often been found to be the of strongest predictor of L2 learning motivation

in ESL and EFL contexts in a variety of countries such as the Saudi Arabia, New Zealand, Turkey, Pakistan, China, Japan, Indonesia, Chile, and Hungary (e.g. Alshahrani, 2016; Csizėr & Lukács, 2010; Islam, Lamb & Chambers, 2013; Kormos, Kiddle & Csizer, 2011; Lamb, 2012; Li, 2014; Thomson & Erdil-Moody, 2016; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). The literature suggests that (learners') visions and self-belief significantly influence learner's motivation and motivational change (You, Dörnyei, & Csizér, 2016): "learner's self-beliefs can at once be dynamic and also relatively stable, depending on the types of beliefs and forms of change investigated" (Mercer, 2011a, p. 335).

Cho (2020), for instance, carried out research into the *ideal L2 self* focusing its specific properties and motivational capacities. The study investigated five properties of the *ideal L2 self* encapsulating centrality, accessibility, plausibility, vividness, and the existence of plans and two motivational criteria: the ideal L2 self's guiding role and general intended learning effort. Narrative writing and a questionnaire were used to collect data from 42 students on their ideal L2 self, its specific aspect, and their motivation generally. The results showed that only centrality was a significant predictor for intention to learn, and only accessibility and plausibility were significant predictors for the ideal L2 self's guiding role. The elaborateness of narratives was weakly related to a global ideal L2 self, the centrality and plausibility of the ideal L2 self. Furthermore, elaborateness was related to future intended learning effort, but not to the ideal L2 self's guiding role.

Based on the findings, Cho (2020) confirms the importance of imagery training to enhance the effectiveness of the *ideal L2 self* for learner motivation as found in previous studies (e.g. Chan, 2014, Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, Magid, 2014). Cho also highlights the findings for the classroom practice that:

> teachers can provide students with opportunities to visualize and activate their ideal L2 self in order to enhance the ideal L2 self's capacity as a behavioral standard. Also, teachers can support students in building up their belief in their capacity to achieve the desired future with reasonable effort, and provide enough scaffolding to guide their course of action towards the achievable self (p. 2044).

Thus, the *ideal L2 self* is an important self-guide in motivation for a learner to achieve the learning goals through a desired future self image (vision) and teachers play an

important role to help the learner make his or her *ideal self* to be an effective motivator to learn the language.

3.2.4.2 The ought-to L2 self

The *ought-to L2 self* relates to social demands from learner's circumstances i.e., what the learner should be to fulfill the expectations of related others and society. Socially, feeling relatedness to *others* can influence an individual's intrinsic motives or behaviour to perform in learning (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Nakata (2006) also says that "Often, learners can feel a sense of success with approval from others; and even learners who attain success may not perceive their achievement as success without approval from others." (p. 111). Hence, learner's motivation is socially constructed by immediate people in the learning environment. For example, parents and other people such as family members or society are of significant *others* that influence motivation in learning a language. Research has evidenced the importance of *others* influencing motivation in L2 learning. Parental encouragement, for instance, was found strongly correlated with the *ought to L2 self* among young adults in EFL Hungary context (Csizèr & Kormos, 2009).

In the context of formal learning, teachers, parents and friends/peers are the significant *others* who could influence learner's motivation. Teacher's attitudes could promote motivated learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and their vision could transform classroom situations into engaging learning (Kubanyiouva, 2012). The role of friends/peers is also confirmed as a component of motivation in the classroom learning as *group cohesion* in the foreign language motivation construct (Dörnyei, 1994). The influence of teachers and friends on L2 motivation can be indicated in the learning process through interactions in the classroom.

Wesley (2009), for example, revealed that relationships between teachers and peers were affecting factors in L2 motivation. This study highlights that both teachers and students had positive and negative influence on the learner's motivation in learning at grade six of a French immersion public school in the United States. Six students were interviewed individually and later in a group for primary data collection investigating their language learning experiences and language motivational factors in the socio-educational model employing Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery.

The findings revealed that teacher and peer interactions influenced students to learn French. The teacher motivating the students to learn the language was mentioned as being helpful and the one not motivating was claimed as being unhelpful or a confusing instructor; peers giving positive affection on their learning when the students found themselves enjoying learning French with friends, influencing them in putting efforts on their learning, while negative affection felt due to being not respected by their friends and consequently feeling separated from the other students learning the language (Wesley, 2009). The study highlights the influence of the learning environment on student motivation i.e., relationships between teachers and students in learning the language.

3.2.4.3 Remodelling the L2 motivational self system

In this section, I review the literature regarding L2MSS suggesting a need to reinstate the standpoint differences explained above. Regarding the ideal self, we note that although comprises the learners' *own* ideal and ideals put upon the learners by *others* (Lanvers, 2016), we note relatively stable results in empirical studies as mentioned in section 3.2.4.1. However, it seems often in research (e.g. Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009; Teimouri, 2017;) there is "a lack of clarity regarding the *ought/ideal* boundary" (Lanvers, 2016, p. 82).

Contrast to the first dimension of the L2MSS, the *ideal L2 self*, research often finds the *ought-to L2 self* role in motivation to be problematic (Csizér, 2019; Lanvers, 2016). Some concerned issues include studies found that it was difficult to find a reliable measure for the *ought-to L2 self* (e.g. Lamb, 2012) and the ought-to L2 self "might encompass a range of motivation, some to do with others, some to do with preventing negative outcomes and some internalized" (Lanvers, 2016, p. 82). Another issue deals with the relationship between the *ideal* and *ought-to L2 selves* (Csizér, 2019). In its original development, the hypothesis was that the instrumental motives were related to the *ought-to L2 self;* however, it was found that the instrumental construct had both intrinsic and extrinsic feature.

Teimouri (2017) addressed the issue, the *ought-to* L2 *self* role in motivation with a clear boundary between the two selves: 2 selves with 4 distinctions (*ideal* and *ought* to L2 within *own* and *other* selves respectively), but findings support only three selves: *ideal* L2 *self*, *ought-to* L2/*own* and *other selves*. Papi, Bondarenko, Mansouri, Feng & Jiang (2018), however, carried out research involving 257 international students at learning

ESL ranging from the first to the sixth year at a university in the United States. The study used 4 standpoints of self i.e. *ought* and *ideal L2 self own/other*, to make symmetric in standpoints and "clear regulatory distinctions" (Papi, et al., 2018, p. 15), or clear boundary of the *ought/ideal* selves. Unlike the previous studies, the study revealed that *ought* L2 *self/own* was the strongest predictor of L2 learning motivated behavior followed by *ideal* L2 *self/ own*, *ought* L2 *self/other*, and *ideal* L2 *self/other*. The purpose of the study was to propose and test a revision of the self-guides constructed in Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 motivational self system, to *fix* the issues pertaining to *ought-to self*: "ought-related constructs have been found to be more prevalent than ideal-related motives" (Papi, et al., 2018, p. 3).

As a result of the misfits concerning the *ought*-to L2 self dimension in particular, this study uses an expanded version of the L2MSS similar to Papi et al. (2018) by differentiation not only between *ideal* and *ought-to* selves but also between the standpoints *own* and *other.* The instruments used, the focuses and the contexts make the previous study (Papi, et al., 2018) and the current one different; this study also includes other dimensions of L2 motivation including the *L2 learning experience* dimension of the L2MSS which is absent in Papi's et al.

The reasons the L2MSS is nonetheless chosen as a motivational framework are three folds: (1) the model attaches significance to learning classroom environment which is important for this study with the exception of the above, (2) the model as a whole has been validated many times and enjoys high esteem in the academic community, and (3) it allows for a dynamic understanding of motivation, as explained in the next section.

3.2.5 Dörnyei & Otto's process model of L2 motivation

Motivation in the process perspective has initiated the view that motivation is dynamic rather than static as it could change and vary (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). In relation to this, the process model of motivation (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998) was conceptualized to seek how motivation develops during the learning process in the classroom context that other models could not explain, including in showing that motivation is not static (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). This model has contributed to the knowledge and is useful for the educational practitioners as it explains that motivation is *dynamic,* and it can be influenced by learning situations or experience i.e., classroom setting. Good classroom environment, for

example, could bring positive motivational influence on learning, encourage learners to perform well on tasks and achieve language skills goals or vice versa. In other words, motivation could be high at one time and low at another one depending on the motivational influence during the learning process.

Motivation development in learning process in the classroom could be modeled in three phases i.e., pre action, action and post action (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998) as shown in *Figure 3.3*. Motivation is an impetus from wishes or hopes, desires and opportunities setting learning goals and forming intentions at *pre actional phase*. At this phase, motivation is initially formed within but continuously influenced by learning situation. Then, we can see the motivation manifesto in learning behaviours through participation in tasks depending on the degree of commitment and intentions and how learners feel about the learning during *actional phase*.

Through this phase the success or failure of goal attainment is evaluated in the *postactional phase*. In the process model of motivation, what *occurs* during learning period in the classroom is important as it has influences on motivation to achieve the goals rather than what *directs* the motivation to learn as mainly modelled previously. However, this model cannot explain other factors involving the complexity of the learning process in the classroom such as other motives or goals in learning (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998).

Similarly, Julkunen (2002) suggests that "motivation can be seen as a continuous interaction process between the learner and the environment" (p. 29). Such interaction can take place in a relatively short or longer time. In a short time, examination based on a classroom perspective, Pawlak (2012), for example, investigated how motivation changed during a language lesson and a series of lessons, and the factors that could contribute to such fluctuations of 28 senior high school students in Poland over a four-week period. Data obtained by way of questionnaires, observations and interviews revealed that the motives of learning remained relatively steady but there were differences in intensity of the students' learning behavior on a minute-to-minute basis by observing their levels of interest and engagement during a lesson. Data was gathered using a questionnaire on student motivation, a motivationalgrid student marking the motivational level and engagement, an evaluation sheet student's responding on the interest in a class, student interviews and a teacher questionnaire responding to the investigated lessons.

MOTIVATIONAL INFLUENCES ACTION SEQUENCE

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E

Motivational Influences on Goal Setting (Table 1)

Motivational Influences on Intention Formation (Table 2)

Motivational Influences on the Initiation of Intention Enactment (Table 3)

Wishes & Hopes

Desires   *Goal Setting*   Opportunities

Goal (Assigned Task)

Action Plan   *Intention Formation*   **Commitment (Compliance)**

Intention

Means & Resources   *Initiation of Intention Enactment*   **Start Condition**

Action-Launching

INSTIGATION FORCE   *Crossing the "Rubicon" of Action*

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Executive Motivational Influences (Table 4)

Subtask Generation & Implementation

Appraisal   *Action*   **Action Control**

Actional Outcome

Modify or Continue Action

Modify Goal

-    +

Terminated Action   **Achieved Goal**

POST-AC-TION-AL PHASE

Motivational Influences on Postactional Evaluation (Table 5)

Forming Causal Attributions   *Postactional Evaluation*   **Elaborating Standards & Strategies**

Dismissing Intention & Further Planning

Figure 3.3 Process model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998)

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Pawlak (2012) concludes that the study has contributed to field of knowledge of the dynamic nature of motivation looking at changes of motivational intensity particularly within a small unit of time period though it was not fully successful in identifying the significant changes in the students' motivated behaviour from one lesson to the following one, and the clear factors which might interfere with fluctuations.

Investigations on fluctuation of motivation over a longer period of time, are also investigated like in Kikuchi's over two years of study (2019). In the study, four Japanese university learners participated in quantitative data collection of their motivation changes owing to learning experiences. The quantitative data was collected after an interview, investigating the motivators and demotivators experienced in specific contexts, in a monthly basis. It was revealed that every learner experienced different directions of motivation changes and responded differently to their individual motivator and demotivators. Kikuchi (2019) found that though the participants recognized ideal L2 or ought to selves, they were not strongly influenced by the L2 learning experiences.

Thus, the findings suggest that the dynamic nature of motivation attributes to individual characteristics and their unique learning experiences over time. However, it is rather difficult to identify the influence of learning experience on motivation in a short time. Therefore, the current study does not investigate motivation and learning experience in a momentary period of time instead it looks on the dynamic nature of motivation attributing to the learning experience in a longer period of time entailing activities influencing motivation in the classroom.

3.2.6 Learning experience of the L2 motivation in the classroom

The *L2 learning experience* is defined as "the perceived quality of the learner's engagement with various aspects of the language learning process" (Dörnyei, 2019, p. 19). Ushioda (2011) also mentions that the *L2 learning experience* dimension is "concerned with the ongoing situated processes shaping day-to-day motivation such as the teacher or social learning environment" (p. 201). In the dynamic view of motivation, the initial, development and sustainability of motivation can relate to a learner's immediate learning situations both inside and outside the classroom. If the learner, for example, received a positive learning experience, initial motivation to learn could be

formed or the motivation would be boosted leading to a good performance or success in learning.

 The importance of the learning experience for motivation may be understood when we recall the process of internalization of motivation as explained earlier. In SDT, for instance, self-determination may occur gradually when students accept the demands and values of the external environment (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Therefore, we can say that though individuals' *own* or internal motivation could be an impetus to the person's actions in the language learning, the strength of such motivation could relate to the influence of the factors outside the individuals referring to the learning situation as Deci & Ryan (1985) confirm: "When the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich sources of stimulation and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring of learning is likely to flourish." (p. 245)

Chang (2014), for example, investigated the characteristics of a motivating classroom environment and how teachers developed such an environment into a pleasant learning situation to motivate students to learn from three English learning class group at a private language college. Data was gained from both 3 teachers and 118 students' perspectives qualitatively and quantitatively respectively. The study found that good interactions i.e., teacher enthusiasm toward teaching, students' positive attitude in learning, group with a strong cohesiveness, and positive norms in the group were crucial to the motivating L2 classroom environment.

Chang argued in the study that the teachers' attitude and the way they manage their classroom teaching influenced the students' enthusiasm in learning and how the teachers set the group norms contributed to the students' interactions when learning English. Therefore, a teacher's classroom behavior has considerable effect on student motivation (Wang, 2006) during the process of learning. However, since the data gathered was from the teachers' interview, it was rather difficult to identify the level of class group cohesiveness than students' behaviours in the classroom observations (Chang, 2014).

In this regard, a research by Henry and Thorsen (2018) investigated how motivation emerged during classroom interactions in two classroom observations and from interviews analysed by a grounded theory ethnography approach found that L2

motivation is influenced by teacher and student relationships. Eight teachers and their co-teachers were observed for approximately 15 days. The study gathered fields (lessons observations and informal conversations with teachers and students), interviews (teachers and students focus groups), documentary data (lesson plans, teaching materials and students' artifacts).

A descriptive corpus of fields notes was generated to portray the classroom events and experiences focusing on students' motivation. Teachers' interviews included lesson design strategies, pedagogical approach and perceptions of students' motivational responses while two student focus groups of each teacher explored English experiences in and out of school, motivational activities, and specific events and activities observed in the classroom. The study highlighted that teacher and student interactions contributed to the progress of motivation in the classroom learning environment: "In emerging relationships, moments of contact can generate immediate, conscious responses that take form of greater engagement and increased motivational energy." (Henry & Thorsen, 2018, p. 230); therefore, teachers have an influence on student motivation impacting the learning.

The role of teacher in motivating learners, therefore, is undisputed and the importance of the teacher in motivating learners has been paramount findings in L2 motivation research. Wadho, Memon and Memon (2016), for instance, found that teacher behavior is a motivating factor for learners to study L2. A positive relation with teachers motivates students to learn and a lack of feedback leads to a demotivating factor for L2 learners, 12th grade, in Pakistan found in the study.

Accordingly, Pavelescu (2019) argues that support and encouragement from teachers manifested in a good relationship, interactions between teachers and students contribute to learner's motivation; this was particularly because motivation and emotion were linked closely: the highly motivated student experienced the feeling of love of English and vice versa as revealed in two EFL students in Romania participated in Pavelescu's study (2019). Absence of encouragement from the teacher hampered the student's motivation in learning as the student did not encounter a positive emotion to the language learning leading to low motivation. Research should try to explore this phenomenon in a longer period of time, longitudinal studies rather than only in a short period of time or one

semester like in the study to look at a more complete picture of dynamic student motivation, looking at any changes of motivation over time.

Teacher's encouragement and support for learners to study are not only to boost motivation but also can sustain it for success in learning. If learners do not have this during their learning experience constantly, learners may have weak motivation or the worse, (highly) motivated students may become demotivated (e.g. Jodaei, Zareian, Amirian & Adel, 2018). Therefore, teachers need to pay more attention on how to maintain the student motivation, particularly in the Asian context, where students mostly rely on teachers in their learning. In this regard, students with high motivation can be demotivated and the teachers should be in charge to motivate them to learn (Song, 2005).

Al-Sharief (2013), for example, investigated student motivation majoring in English whose most teachers perceived that they were broadly not motivated. SDT (Deci and Ryan, 1985) was used in the study and the findings suggested that the teachers' view was not correct. The students' responses to the factors demotivating in learning English in the questionnaire showed that some factors (i.e., environment, materials and methods) were statistically significant relating to motivational teaching practice.

The study suggests the importance of motivational strategies (explained in section 3.3) integration in teaching to increase the student motivation. Teachers and their practices, thus, play an important role to motivate and maintain the student motivation, even those who are strongly motivated to learn English like those in English major; these students, are more (intrinsically) motivated as they decided to learn the language as their major, compared to those in a different one (e.g. Ngo, Spooner-Lane & Mergler, 2015).

Thus, the literature suggests that teachers' use of motivational teaching strategies can enhance a learning process, which often takes a long time and can be demotivating, and increase their motivation in the classroom as Ushioda (2012) highlights:

> […] for the effective and sustained engagement in the learning process to take place, motivation needs to be internally driven rather than externally regulated by teachers; however, teachers have a pivotal role to play in fostering the internal growth and development of students' motivation (p. 77).

In other words, teachers can 'nurture' student motivation in learning by creating and maintaining a motivating classroom atmosphere, for example, where students would engage and participate in learning. Added to this, to date, there are not enough empirical studies especially in the context of the study looking at teachers' motivational strategies in the classroom practice (see section 3.3)

The educational implications of L2 motivation research focusing on developing techniques to motivate or increase motivation started in the 1990s (i.e., Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Research on the importance of teachers' teaching practice to motivate learners to learn was initiated due to researchers' awareness of the importance of looking at the classroom situations in which the teachers play an important role in stimulating the learners' motivation through their strategic classroom practices as discussed below.

3.3 Motivation in practice: motivational teaching strategies

In this study, teaching strategy or teaching practice refers to teaching techniques used in L2 learning. In relation to this, teacher motivational strategies or motivational teaching strategies (MTS) are defined as teaching techniques or practices used by teachers in promoting learners' motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). In other words, through teaching practices, a teacher is an *active agent* who motivates learners in learning to successfully attain their L2 learning goals. Motivational teaching practice is used to boost student motivation or their motivated behavior; therefore, broadly speaking motivated behavior can refer to an effort made in learning to attain the goals (Kim & Kim, 2017).

Regarding this, motivated behavior is observable while motivation is rather obscure. This phenomenon has been investigated empirically as an implication of the L2 motivation theory in educational setting ass discussed below. While there is a lack of conceptual framework based on theory on motivational strategies (Guilloteaux, 2007), research in looking at the impact of the strategies on motivation either in the classroom or on perceptions have been carried out over the last decade. The research underpinning Dörnyei's framework (2001a) expanded from previous empirical-based research.

The following section discusses the framework of MTS used in this study, its elaborations in the classroom practice. Then, empirical research on the impact of teaching strategies

on motivation and studies on the strategies in many contexts are reviewed. This is important to reveal the relation between MTS and motivation and what teachers can do to motivate learners in learning in various contexts. The importance of the strategies from students' perceptions is also included to understand why some strategies might be effective to motivate students to learn while others not. Research on motivational strategies in the context of the study, Indonesian EFL context, is reviewed at the end to see how much attention has been paid to improve student motivation in this context by looking at the effectiveness of certain strategies in learning English.

3.3.1 Dörnyei's framework

Research on motivational teaching strategies that provides empirical evidence was undertaken by Dörnyei and Csizèr in 1998 among Hungarian teachers of English, ranging from primary school teaching beginners to university teaching English majors. Research revealed that "the participants considered the teacher's own behaviour to be the single most important motivational tool" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 31). In the study, 200 teachers participants were asked to rate the importance of 51 strategy items designed according to their experiences. This shows that teachers' awareness of motivating the students in learning is very significant in the success of L2 learning. The results were used to construct a framework of motivational teaching strategies: *Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners*. This model was first generated by Dörnyei in 1996 and revised during a study on the basis of empirical data relating to the language teachers' beliefs and practices (Dörnyei, 1998). Though, the framework was developed as principles from empirical data, it has received validity globally (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Khasbani, 2018; Scot & Butler, 2008; Solak & Bayar, 2014).

This framework was applied in many L2 contexts e.g. EFL teaching in Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). The study was to find out which motivational teaching strategies that teacher can use to motivate EFL learners in an Eastern, Asian context. The focus in this research is teachers because teachers play an important role in motivating students to learn. According to Dörnyei (1994) their beliefs and practice are more relevant to teaching classroom application. In the study, Taiwanese teachers teaching in various schools and university levels were asked to judge the importance of the strategies and the frequency they used them in their teaching practice.

The findings show that there are similarities and differences of motivational teaching strategies between Hungarian and Taiwanese (Western and Eastern) EFL teaching contexts, Dörnyei & Csizėr'1998 and Cheng & Dörnyei's, 2007, suggesting that some strategies are appropriate across different cultural contexts while others are "culture-sensitive or even culture-dependent" (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). This is probably because culture has an impact on L2 learning and teaching (Genc & Bada 2005). The two pieces of empirical based research, however, did not look at a relation between the use of motivational teaching strategies and any other effect on students in the learning process in the actual classroom context. A more comprehensive framework of motivational teaching strategies which can explain the motivational process taking place in the classroom interactions was developed by Dörnyei (2001a).

Dörnyei (2001a) developed another framework of motivational teaching practice that could accommodate motivational strategies involving classroom interactions that influence learner's L2 motivated behaviour. He argued that the motivating teaching practices comprise four elements. These four dimensions of motivational teaching practice were developed for "educational applications" which explain "the motivational process from the initial arousal of the motivation to the completion and evaluation of the motivated action" (Dörnyei, 2001a, p.29). These macrostrategies are broken down into 102 specific motivational teaching techniques (Dörnyei, 2001a). The diagram of showing the cycle process of motivational teaching in the classroom can be seen in *Figure 3.4*.

The cyclical process of MTS is compatible with the process model of motivation (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). The figure shows the process of what teachers can do to strategically influence motivation in learning either in a single lesson or in a longer period of time, and that motivation fluctuates over time (Dörnyei, 2001b). The process of generating and influencing student motivation in the four dimensions of motivational practices is explained next.

Creating the basic motivational conditions
- Appropriate teacher behaviours
- A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere
- A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation
- Promoting motivational attributions
- Providing motivational feedback
- Increasing learner satisfaction
- Offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner

Motivational teaching practice

Generating initial motivation
Enhancing the learners' L2-related values and attitudes
- Increasing the learners' expectancy of success
- Increasing the learners' goal-orientedness
- Making the teaching materials relevant for the learners
- Creating realistic learner beliefs

Maintaining and protecting motivation
- Setting specific learner goals
- Presenting tasks in a motivating way
- Making learning stimulating
- Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence
- Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image
- Creating learner autonomy
- Promoting cooperation among the learners

Figure 3.4 The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom

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3.3.1.1 Creating the basic motivational conditions

Appropriate teacher behaviour is the first and one important teaching strategy to create good motivational conditions for learning to take place in the classroom. Brophy (2010) puts it that teachers' own personality and everyday behaviour in the classroom can become "the most powerful motivational tool if you [teachers] cultivate and display attributes of effective models and socializers" (p. 23). Teachers need to exhibit behaviour that students would like and motivate them to learn. Brophy (2010) explains that teachers' good qualities such as being cheerful, friendly, sincere, and mature would give a positive effect on students; they would admire and value their teachers' opinions. To build *rapport*, students would also appreciate teachers who recognize, listen to, respect, and treat students equally (Harmer, 2007). These suggest that the teachers' likeable or appropriate behaviour could bring students' good feelings or positive emotions about their learning; and students with positive emotions would be motivated to learn (MacIntyre, Ross &

Clément, 2019). Thus, teacher behaviour can greatly influence motivation (Urhahne, 2015).

The second strategy dealing with students' positive emotions or feelings in learning is a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom which would be indeed possible with the teachers' appropriate behaviour. Some important aspects of a pleasant classroom environment include the relationship between teachers and learners, teacher's enthusiasm in teaching, giving students authority in the classroom (Muijs & Reynolds, 2011) and use of humour (Kyriacou, 2018). Pleasant and supportive classroom environment is necessary for students to enjoy learning because "anxious or alienated students are unlikely to develop motivation to learn. Students should feel comfortable taking intellectual risks because they know they will not be embarrassed and criticized if they make a mistake" (Good & Brophy, 2000, p. 222).

A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms, the next strategy, also makes the classroom atmosphere pleasant and supportive, which covers techniques such as promoting interaction, working in groups, no rigid seating patterns, task completion as a group, clear group rules and norms and noticing misbehaviour (Dörnyei, 2001a). The classroom interaction "serves an enabling function: its only purpose is to provide conditions for learning." (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p. vii). This suggests that interactions are important in learning particularly for language learning because interactions facilitate learning (Mackey, 2012). In other words, the more students have interactions in the classroom, whether with the teachers or peers, the more learning takes place. Mackey (2012) explains that "active negotiation in the process of communication serves as a vehicle for L2 learning" (p. 8).

In addition, students working in groups, in pairs or small groups, could facilitate learning as it gives more opportunities for individual students to participate in learning. However, a cohesive learner group would be feasible if teachers were able "to set up classroom organisations where social interactions are encouraged, and when cooperatively achieved success is a major aim" (Bennett, 1998, p. 154) and to manage students' behaviour constructively (Kyriacou, 2018). Students who do not support group dynamic, for example, may influence others and demotivate them to learn. Therefore, these suggest

that it is important for teachers to plan, encourage, and manage classroom interactions and aspects related for students to engage in learning and motivate them to learn.

3.3.1.2 Generating initial motivation

The second dimension of the motivational practice is to generate student motivation by addressing learner's related individual motivation aspects such as values, attitudes, expectancy of success, goals, and belief in learning. Generally, it would be possible for teachers to generate learner's initial motivation if the teachers were able to create the basic motivational conditions dimension explained above. In other words, generating motivation would be difficult if learners, for example, did not have a good relationship with the teacher nor unable to enjoy the lesson due to the unpleasant classroom atmosphere. As such, we can say that initial motivation can be generated *when* students are engaged in learning and depending on *what* interests them in it.

Learning goals, relevant materials and curriculum are some examples of important strategies to generate student motivation in learning (Dörnyei, 2001a), ideally for a good L2 learning experience. Learning objectives, for example, should be meaningful as "students are not motivated to learn when engaged in pointless or meaningless activities" (Good & Brophy, 2000, p. 223). In relation to this, it is necessary for teachers to choose the right materials corresponding to the learning goals, "learners' needs and the course objectives" (Brown & Lee, 2015, p. 190). In this way, students would then have positive attitudes toward learning and would expect success.

Related to L2 motivation in the classroom, teachers' provision of relevant materials, enjoyable and interesting L2 learning experience can help learners generate or boost their L2 *ideal* and *ought to* selves, learners' *wishes* or *images* of themselves to become and *attributes* they should possess in future, respectively. Teachers can remind students of the importance of L2 learning for their future career goals and provide interesting learning in the classroom through interactive group work, for example, and the students would be motivated to learn and be engaged in learning. However, as learning is a process and takes time, teachers need to ensure that students are confident that they can achieve their goals. For this reason, once motivation is generated or boosted e.g. students can identify their values, have positive attitudes and an interest in learning, teachers need to encourage and

convince the students that they can achieve their learning goals by maintaining and protecting their motivation as explained next.

3.3.1.3 Maintaining and protecting motivation

We can say that the aims of maintaining and protecting motivation are to sustain learners' engagement and achieve their goals by practicing strategies such as teaching learners to set learning goals, protecting their confidence in learning, and creating autonomy. Teachers need to help learners for their goal setting and make a commitment to achieve them by assigning tasks. Then, monitoring progress becomes important here; teachers' feedback on the learners' achievement and encouragement to do well with their tasks would influence their perceptions on their ability to perform well.

Brophy (1998) explains: "research has shown that effort and persistence in achievement situations are greater when people possess a sense of efficacy or competence—that is, confidence that they have the ability…to succeed on task…" (p. 57). According to Gardner (2010) teachers can promote student self-confidence "by providing some experiences of success regularly to students and by emphasizing what students can do rather than what they cannot do." (p. 187) This suggests that students who are confident or convinced of their competence are likely to perform well and achieve their goals (Stipek, 2002).

Furthermore, to maintain and protect motivation, giving students some freedom and responsibility in the way they learn can give them a greater sense of autonomy which strengthen internal motivation (Oxford, 2016). When teachers can support students' autonomy in learning, they will feel self-determined and their motivation will be primarily intrinsic rather than extrinsic (Brophy, 1998). Thus, tasks can become interesting and motivating to students as they are given alternatives; and working cooperatively with others will also be necessary as this can be an option for them to complete the tasks. Students can work independently in small groups, check their own and edit one another's work (Good & Brophy, 2000). When tasks are completed, students will need self-evaluation to see how well they have performed in their learning and this will be explained in the next motivational teaching dimension.

3.3.1.4 Encouraging rewards and positive retrospective self-evaluation

The fourth dimension of teachers' motivational practices relates to learner's satisfaction and self-reflection or evaluation of their learning. These two aspects related to learners' motivation seem interconnected in terms of motivational attributions or feedback, and rewards which are often classified as extrinsic motivation (Good, & Brophy, 2000). Brophy (2010) suggests that such extrinsic motivation should be given effectively otherwise they can be harmful to intrinsic motivation i.e., motivation of students to learn is to get the rewards rather than self determined motivation within to improve their skills, for example. This means that the internal motivation is influenced negatively by ineffective incentives or external motivation. Similarly, Stipek (2002) suggests that teachers need to give grades and other forms of evaluation to "support rather than to undermine motivation" (p. 184) e.g. students avoid challenging tasks because they are concerned about the external evaluation (bad grades).

However, when external motivation is applied correctly, it can improve motivation. Mercer (2011b) claims that feedback from significant others (including teachers) can shape students' self-concept or self-belief. For this reason, students' self-concept including the Ideal L2 self can be enhanced when teachers give motivational feedback effectively. For instance, students who are evaluated on their failure unconstructively may have a negative vision or self related image as a capable L2 user in the future. On the other hand, students who receive motivational feedback effectively or good grades may be satisfied with their accomplishments and improve their self-concept.

In short, we can understand that motivational teaching strategies practiced in the classroom as explained above perhaps could influence L2 learner's motivation in four main areas aligned with the four dimensions of teaching strategies: *positive emotions* towards learning, *self-motivation*, *self-regulation* (related to motivation such as self-confidence, and autonomy) and *satisfaction* in learning which can refer to the outcome of or success in learning in the forms of rewards, feedback, and grades. Thus, different aspects of motivation are related. Learner's self-motivation, for example, would be generated ideally after the learner has a positive emotion towards learning.

A number of researchers have used the framework to find out the most motivating strategies in L2 teaching and learning across various contexts; these are discussed in the following sections. The research shows that the focus of research in motivational teaching

practice has turned from mainly on teachers to further aspects: the effect of these strategies on student motivation or motivated behaviour in their L2 learning involving not only perspectives of teachers but also researchers and students themselves.

3.3.2 Studies on motivational teaching strategies and motivation

It is evident that teaching practice can influence motivation (e.g. Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Some argue that they are the most important motivational factor of foreign language learning (Chambers, 1999). All factors in L2 learning motivation are important and the number of research investigating particularly the relation between teaching strategies and student motivation has been growing over the last decade (examples discussed below). By using appropriate strategies, teachers can have a positive impact on students' motivation in the learning process and assure their success.

In the classroom practice, investigations have been conducted to find out the impact of motivational teaching strategies on student motivation including their motivated behaviour in class in various contexts. Research investigating the influence of teaching practice on students' degree of motivated behavior evidenced by student attention, participation and task volunteering in class, has found through observations on the basis of cultural differences such as in Iranian EFL secondary classes of 17 teachers with their 741 male students (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). It was found that there is a significant relationship between teacher motivational strategies to the students' motivated behaviour. This study followed the previous study utilizing a large scale (27 EFL teachers and more than 1,300 students in secondary school) survey and observational classroom over a period of time in Korea (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). This study found that the teaching strategies were related to enhanced levels of the observed students' motivated learning behaviour and their self-report motivation.

However, it has been found that there were changes in the effectiveness of teaching strategy use over a learning period as investigated in Japanese EFL university classroom context (Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014). This classroom research involved a teacher with 222 students grouped into 2 different categories: (a) higher level in English proficiency (b) lower level in English proficiency. The research revealed that some motivational teaching practices (i.e., *apply continuous assessment, share personal*

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interest in the L2 learning, help learners to accept mistakes and *provide regular feedback*) *have correlations* to students' motivation in both groups; and some other (i.e., *vary the learning tasks, humour, achievable classroom goals, transparent assessment,* and *pleasant environment*) do not have positive correlations in both groups as well.

The findings indicated that firstly there might be a relationship between motivational teaching practice, student motivation and their English use in the classroom; secondly, what teachers do in the classroom may or may not influence students in using their English in learning. In other words, it is necessary to "provide insight on how teacher and student relate to each other" (Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014, p. 34): what is the effect of teaching practice to the students' motivation as evidenced in their classroom behaviour? Are teaching strategies able to motivate students and thus improve the students' in L2 use, for example? These questions can perhaps be answered by looking at the *specific purpose* of the teaching practice and the *goals* of L2 learning itself.

Previously, Sugita and Takeuchi's (2010) found that there are changes in the effectiveness of motivational teaching in Japanese EFL classroom as indicated in that of Sugita McEown and Takeuchi's study (2014) and both studies reveal that some motivational strategies have correlations to student motivation, the differences are that in the former, the changes in the effectiveness of some motivational teaching strategies vary according to the English proficiency of the students only (excluding degree of motivational intensity as of that in the latter) . *Apply continuous assessment that relies on measurement tools other than pencil-and-paper tests* and *share you're your personal interest in the L2 learning (*e.g. *learning strategies or target culture) with your students* are two motivational strategies that correlate strongly with the strength of student's motivation according to Sugita and Takeuhi (2010. p. 25) which were described on the basis of teachers' self-report of their actual frequency use of such strategies.

Furthermore, Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini, and Ratcheva (2013) conducted research on MTS utilizing a quasi-experimental study with a pre-post intervention together with control design involved Saudi Arabia EFL teachers with their students grouped into an experiment group receiving 10 preselected teaching motivational strategies, replicated from Dörnyei and Csizèr (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), and a control group

being taught with traditional teaching method over eight weeks. The most important strategies used in this experimental in the study were:

1. *Break the routine of the classroom by varying learning tasks and the presentation format.*

2. *Show students that you care about their progress.*

3. *Show students that you accept and care about them.*

4. *Recognize students' effort and achievement.*

5. *Be mentally and physically available to respond to your students' academic needs in the classroom.*

6. *Increase the amount of English you use in the language classroom.*

7. *Make learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them.*

8. *Remind students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language.*

9. *Relate the subject content and learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students.*

10. *Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed.* (Moskovsky, et. al, 2013, pp. 41-42).

Motivation student questionnaires were administered before and after the experimental treatment period. The evidence in the study proved that teachers' motivational behaviours brought about enhanced motivation in second language learners. Thus, this empirical evidence suggests that MTSs in language classrooms are effective. The empirical studies also reveal that effectiveness of MTS depends on the specific circumstances such as culture, age and level of education. While the research has given empirical evidence of the use of motivational strategies in a variety of ways and the effectiveness of the proposed motivational teaching strategies in language classrooms; most research on MTS has been based on self-report data, observed motivated behaviour with rare connections to students L2 learning outcomes in the actual classroom learning.

Sugita McEown and Takeuchi (2014) argue that MTS "requires the investigation of dynamic perspectives and situation specific motives that will only become apparent in the actual classroom settings" (p.33). In relation to this, though it is proved that 'higher motivational leads to higher achievement' (e,g. Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus,

Wilson & Gardner, 2009), it is also important to highlight that "we do not know whether the enhanced motivational levels in the experimental group [Arabian EFL teachers and students] were ultimately translated into *improved learning outcomes"* (Moskovsky, et., al., 2013, p. 58, italicized by me). In other words, this has not proved that a high motivational degree relates to learning outcomes in L2 learning classrooms (for discussion on relationships between motivation and learning outcomes, see section 3.4.1).

3.3.3 Further studies on cultural differences in motivational teaching strategies

Other classroom investigations looked at the implementation and evaluation of motivational teaching strategies. Maeng and Lee (2015) explored the motivating behaviour of teachers of English in Korea. The research aimed to find out whether or not teachers effectively utilize motivational strategies or tactics when teaching. The finding suggested that the teachers did not implement adequate motivational strategies in the classroom instead they used strategies based on traditional teacher-centred approaches. This indicates that MTS may differ according to the teaching approaches used in the classrooms and to the cultural context in which the language is learnt.

In relation to this, it is important to investigate motivational teaching strategies in cultural contexts (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010; Wong, 2014). The investigations also showed culture specific adaptations of motivational strategies which indicated that 'there was no universal motivational strategy that could apply to all English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms' (Wong, 2014, p. 145) (motivational teaching strategies in Indonesian culture, see section 3.3.5). The common effective motivational strategies rated according to the importance in different cultural contexts can be seen in Table 3.1.

In addition, *positive learning environment, stimulating content* and *promoting student confidence* were the effective motivational strategies in Saudi Arabia context (Alqahtani, 2016). This affirms Dörnyei's argument that "not every strategy works in every context" (2001, p. 30). Though, the table above shows the use MTS only according to cultural contexts excluding to the other important factors influencing learners such as age of students, whether L2 is compulsory subject or not, educational contexts; It has proven that analysing the use of motivational teaching techniques in L2 learning classes is useful to measure motivational effectiveness, which in turn will advance student learning.

Table 3.1 Common effective motivational strategies.

	Chinese	Taiwanese	Hungarian	Japanese	Omani	Arabic
Positive learning environment	x	x	x			x
Avoid face-threatening acts	x			x		
Positive feedback				x	x	
Stimulating content	x			x		x
Promoting student confidence		x	x			x
Setting personal goals		x	x			
Recognizing success	x	x				
Clear presentation		x	x			

(Adapted, Wong, 2014, p. 145; in blue added by me)

The findings show that there is ample research investigating the relations between teaching strategies and motivation in the classroom; however, there is a lack of research focus exploring teaching strategies and student motivation relationship in the *actual classroom practice* so far (Thayne, 2013), partly because of methodological complexities involved in gathering and analyzing empirical data that permit answering such research questions.

In order to investigate the effectiveness of the motivational teaching strategies on students' L2 learning, there have also been several investigations to assess the effects of motivational teaching practices and factors influencing the relationship between the two variables. Solak and Bayar (2014), for example, investigated the variables that influence motivational strategies used by non-native English teachers in Turkish EFL context. They found that there was no significant difference in motivational strategy use with gender, year of experience and the type of school served and the state of attendance abroad i.e., having been abroad in this context.

However, year of experience is a significant factor in motivational strategies use in Taiwanese context (Yeh, 2009; Hsu, 2009 as both cited in Solak & Bayar, 2014): experienced teachers know better how to use motivational strategies appropriate to student (Solak & Bayar, 2014). Teachers are expected to use motivational strategies effectively and successfully to motivate learners in L2 learning; however, there are a number of things that determine the success of MTS use.

Some studies found that there is a discrepancy between teachers' behaviour and students' expectation of the teacher's motivational teaching techniques implementation (e.g. Deniz, 2010; Ruesch, Bown, & Dewey, 2012). Teachers may perceive that some motivational teaching techniques are effective for them to use even if students may not agree with them (Ruesch et al., 2012, Shousha, 2018). Teachers also may not implement some of the motivational strategies while students perceive them important (Deniz, 2010; Kassing, 2011). Then, some teachers may give little attention to motivational strategies use in teaching meaning that motivating students is not on the teacher's top priorities in teaching (Guilloteaux, 2013). In sum, there could be inconsistency between the teachers' perceptions of the importance of their motivational teaching techniques and their practice as well as discrepancies between teachers and students' preferences.

Therefore, this study will investigate whether teachers' perceptions of motivational strategies correlate with their practice and to investigate if teachers consider different motivational strategies to be effective in different contexts? The differences in opinions are complex as MTS involves both teachers and students. As the table (Table 3.1) shows what researchers found to be culturally different on MTS use; it is now important to investigate by asking teachers how their opinions differ.

Ruesch et al. (2012), for example, compared Western/North American, Hungarian and Taiwanese teachers' perceptions of motivational teaching practices. This research reported that some strategies are universal in these three countries' contexts: *teacher behaviour (set personal example with your own behaviour), rapport (develop a good relationship with students), climate (create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom), building learner's self-confidence (increase the learner's linguistic self-confidence)* and *task (present the tasks properly)* based on the three countries contexts. However, others "appear to be more culturally dependent" (Ruesch et al., 2012), again only in the three contexts of different countries.

Teachers in the USA rated *comparison (avoid social comparisons among students)* as the third strategy while those in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizèr, 1998) and Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) put it at numbers 18 (the last) and 41st out of 47 individual strategies in the Hungarian and Taiwanese data respectively. These different perceptions among teachers may be influenced by cultural background affecting the teaching practice. The

comparison may be de-motivating to students in the American country due to privacy laws i.e., using someone's personal data without consent while it may be motivating to those in Hungary and Taiwan for some 'weaker' students comparison may encourage them to learn (Ruesch et al. (2012) or teachers may make good students as an example to others to succeed.

Furthermore, Deniz (2010) found that students rated *share with students that you value English as a meaningful experience* and *be yourself in front of the class* as important/motivating but they thought that their teachers did not often use these strategies; *recognize students' effort and achievement* and *promote effort attributions* were attached importance by the students while they thought their teachers did not employ them frequently enough.

Shousha (2018) also investigated the importance of MTS, the ten commandments by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), on a survey gathering teachers and students' perceptions by ranking the MTS in EFL university context of Saudi. Both teachers and students perceived that *rapport, pleasant climate (humour, games), presenting tasks properly, increase the learners' linguistics self-confidence by giving positive feedback* as the most important strategies in motivating learners; and *increasing the learner's goal-orientedness by emphasizing the goal for learning English and its positive effect for students' lives*; *familiarizing learners with the target language culture by using authentic materials like journals, magazines, films and ads to convey language and meaning together were the least important ones* (Shousha, 2018).

However, there were discrepancies of perceptions in the rankings of some strategies i.e., teachers ranked *setting personal example with your own behaviour* as the seventh important strategy while the students did it as the first one and *presenting the tasks properly by giving clear instructions and by explaining the goals for using them* was ranked as the second important strategy by the teachers, but it was ranked as the fifth one by the students. The findings suggest that it is important to consider students' perceptions on MTS in teaching practice (Shousha, 2018). Regarding to this, learner beliefs is argued "to have the potential to influence both their experiences and actions as language learners" (Horwitz, 1999, p. 557) meaning that other factors on the level of the individual (e.g.

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learner beliefs and anxiety) and their personality attributes (e.g. confidence, independence, active or passive) may all influence motivation.

Some studies looking at motivational teaching strategies use a different model other than Dörnyei's (2001). Maeng and Lee (2015) found in their research of motivational strategies based on the *attention, relevance, confidence* and *satisfaction (ARSC)* model that English teachers did not effectively use the motivational strategies but only one: *attention*, in Korean secondary school context. This finding also endorsed Solak and Bayar's (2014) evidence that teacher experience has no correlation with the use of motivational strategies. However, it is in contrast to Alqahtani's (2016) findings in Saudi context. In this study, it was found that teachers' qualifications and the lengths of teaching experiences significantly influenced the ranking of MTS. This shows that the different findings in different contexts may influence the teachers' use of MTS.

Therefore, there have been contradictory findings and beliefs of MTS use from one context to another and between teachers and students. Cultures and educational contexts may be some of the reasons why there are different findings on MTS use. Further studies are also necessary to investigate links between motivational strategies and motivation in different contexts such as second or foreign L2 contexts, years of L2 learning and level of education. Such studies may be problematic particularly in getting data from both groups i.e., teachers and students and claiming a causal relation between the two for there are other factors that may contribute to the use of MTS.

In addition, if the design of the research was such that a causal link could be attributed, quantitative method alone may not be used to reveal the relationships. Therefore, qualitative method or other perspectives such as researchers should be employed or taken into account as well. Regarding the complexity of perspectives of preferred MTS use, students' perceptions are worth being included in the investigation to contribute more to the knowledge of MTS in EFL learning as discussed next.

3.3.4 Student perception on motivational teaching strategies

Teacher motivational strategies are often applied based on teacher personal beliefs and preferences (e.g. Hornstra, Mansfield, Veen, Peetsma & Volman, 2015) and most research on MTS in L2 learning has focused more on teachers rather than students in the

last 20 years or so (see Alqahtani, 2016; Alrabai, 2011; Hapsari 2013; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizẻr, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013). This is perhaps because teachers are primarily in charge of choosing the strategies they want to use in the classroom. It is undeniable that teachers have an important role in the classroom learning environment for students to enhance their motivation and engagement in learning (Honstra et al., 2015); however, it is also crucial to investigate whether the teachers' perception of their belief and preferences of MTS meet the expectations of the students in learning.

It is noted that "Although the various strategies that have been proposed seem meaningful, there is evidence to suggest that there may be disagreement between students and teachers about the value of some strategies" (Bernaus & Gardners, 2008, p. 389). Therefore, researchers have also been interested in investigating MTS from student perspectives to find out which MTS are student preferences in the L2 classroom learning environment. Thus, while research has proved that teacher perceptions may correspond to student perspectives of MTS (which are discussed below), there are particular significant mismatches in the perceptions between teachers and students.

Alshehri (2013) focused on the investigation of MTS according to the teachers' and students' perceptions in Saudi EFL higher educational context. The qualitative study showed that both EFL teachers and students perceived *classroom atmosphere, learner group, teacher behavior,* Ideal L2 self, as an important motivational strategy while the was regarded thematically to be a highly motivating strategy in the students' viewpoint. In addition, teachers believed that *rewards* were the most motivating strategies while students did not even mention anything about it in the interview.

Similarly, though Wong (2013) found a reasonable agreement of perceptions on MTS among the teachers, students and the researcher (the researcher is included since there is evaluation of the effectiveness of motivational strategies used by teachers from the researcher's professional judgment) on 6 effective motivational strategies used in Chinese EFL classroom showing how culture-specific MTS can be:
- *offering rewards,*
- *making sure that the students received sufficient preparation and assistance,*
- *reminding students of the instrumental value of the L2; introducing and encouraging humour,*

- *whetting the students' appetites concerning the content of the task;* and
- *avoiding face-threatening act.*

There was also a considerable degree of disagreement among the teachers, the students and the researcher on MTS. The students and researcher perceived that *notice and react to any positive contribution from your student, provide regular feedback about the progress your students are making and about the areas they should particularly concentrate on, pay and listen to the students* and *regularly include tasks that involve the public display of the students' skill* important and ranked them on the top 10 effective strategies; while the teachers did not perceive them that important (the teachers did not include or rank these strategies on the top ten of the list). On the other hand, the teachers considered *vary the learning tasks and other aspects of your teaching as much as you can* and *try and prevent the emergence of rigid seating patterns* the most effective strategies as well, whereas the students did not agree with them.

In addition, Ruesch et al. (2012) found that the macrostrategies: *learner's effort, present the tasks properly* and *comparisons (avoid any comparison of students of one another)* of MTS had a different degree of importance according to the teachers' and students' perceptions in the foreign language classroom in North America university. The students' enrolment was in the first or second year of Arabic, Chinese, French, Italian, Japanese, Russian and Spanish language classrooms. The research findings suggest that perceptions on MTS use differ not only among teachers depending on cultural background but also among students enrolled in different language classes differ.

Ruesch et. al (2012) asked teachers and students to rank 49 individual strategies referring to 17 macrostrategies (following Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) according to the degree of importance in motivating students in L2 learning. In this study, they found that teachers in the USA, American university language classes, rated *learner's effort (help students realize that it is mainly effort that is need it for success)* as the 6th the most motivating strategy in motivational classroom practices while the students ranked it as the 10th of the most motivational one. Teachers rated *present the tasks properly* number 9 while students put it at number 4. The greatest difference rating in the motivational strategies between teachers and students was in *comparison (avoid any comparison of students to one*

another). The teachers ranked it much higher (number 3) than that of the students (strategy number 11).

Deniz (2010) also found that there were a number of MTS perceived very important by student teachers in one English Language Teaching Department in Turkey for FL learning but these strategies (for example *teacher behaviour, recognizing students' efforts* and *promoting learners' self confidence*) were not frequently used by the instructors. In addition, the student teachers mentioned in the interview that 'studying the cultural values of the target language' promotes use of that language through interesting and motivating lessons while the instructors did not use this strategy in their teaching practice. By way of conclusion, I, next, discuss differences between teacher and student perceptions of MTS.

The discrepancies of perceptions between the teachers and students on MTS suggest that firstly, teachers and students have some differences in their expectations in the classroom. Teachers should take the students' preferred MTS into account for better teaching techniques which enhance student motivation on their L2 achievement (see Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). If teachers choose strategies matching students' expectations students are likely to be motivated (Alshehri, 2012). The right selection and use of MTS in L2 classrooms have an impact on students' outcome; Deniz (2010) mentions that "studying the cultural values of the target language facilitates fluent use of that language and assists retention" (p. 1269).

Furthermore, as for teachers, students' beliefs and preferences on MTS may differ from one context to another in L2 classroom learning environment (see results by Ruesch et al., 2011, Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei and Csizėr, 1998). Therefore, the importance attached to MTS and the frequency of their use may vary with cultural differences (Ruesch et al., 2012). For the teaching practice, by choosing and practising the right MTS in the right context, it is hoped that the students will be effectively motivated and achieve their goals in the L2/target language learning. For this reason, it is necessary to discuss MTS, motivation and learning outcomes as covered late, after looking at motivational teaching strategies in the context of Indonesia.

3.3.5 Motivational teaching strategies in Indonesia: EFL context

In the last decade, some studies have investigated what makes a good teacher and how teachers may motivate students to learn in Indonesian EFL context. Liando (2010), for example, looking at Indonesian EFL context found that a teacher was very important in motivating learners in EFL teaching. Twenty eight teachers and 126 first year students in English department were involved in the survey study focusing on teacher qualities i.e., characteristics of best teacher performance and immediacy behaviours of teachers (verbal and non-verbal) that can predict student motivation. The findings for the latter are not mentioned here since they refer to how teachers act and move when teaching rather than to the teaching practice e.g. *smiling* or *moving around the class*. Thus, only the characteristics of teacher performance in this study is more related to teacher's teaching strategies. Based on the characteristics listed on the questionnaire (14 items), the teachers perceived all characteristics 100% of being the best English teacher except *giving extra help* (85.7%), *giving rewards* (82.1%), *being strict* (71.4%) and *giving lots of homework* (46.4%).

On the other hand, the students viewed characteristics that the best teacher should have: only one 100% (*being friendly*), five characteristics in the range of 90% regarding the teachers' performance (*explaining things well* and *being intelligent,* each at 99.2%, *being nice* 97.6%, *being humorous* and *making the course more interesting* 96%), and the rest between 70% and 80% including *being patient, enthusiastic, fair, strict* and *challenging students academically)* (Liando, 2010) (Note: all characteristics are paraphrased by me). The findings suggest that teachers as role models in L2 learning are important in Indonesia. In this regard, such research on teachers and their teaching strategies in Indonesia found that a teacher's characteristics determined the degree of motivation and de-motivation of learners. These characteristics—attitudes (personal and academic) and behaviours (verbal and non-verbal)— were attached to the teachers and influenced their teaching and in the ways, they motivated the learners (Liando, 2010).

Similarly, Kassing (2011) evaluated what strategy that teachers (lecturers) and students perceived as motivating in an EFL classroom in tertiary or university context of Indonesia. The qualitative study's participants were 5 lecturers/teachers in individual interviews and 23 student-teachers in four focus groups. Both groups, lecturers and students, perceived that *creating and maintaining relationships,* a strategy that develops

good relationships between lecturer and the students, was the most effective strategy to motivate students in an EFL classroom (Kassing, 2011). *Giving advice and encouragement*, and *displaying approachable behaviours* including *showing appreciation/praising* and *correcting and error/mistake* were strategies that the two groups mentioned contributing to *rapport* between them (pp. 53-57). Similarly, both groups pointed out that *pair* or *group work, emphasis on English speaking, lecturers as models* (in speaking English), *practising* (grammatical and speaking skills), *varying teaching materials and methods, giving timely and informative feedback* as motivating for the students to learn (Kassing, 2011, pp. 61-68).

In contrast, the findings suggested that the two groups of participants (lecturers and students) had different perceptions on the teaching strategies employed by EFL lecturers in this context: some EFL lecturers did not realize that some of their teaching strategies had an impact on their learners' motivation. Students valued *giving challenging tasks*, *integrating fun activities* (electronic media related activities e.g. television and CD players), *giving chances to perform* (speaking skills), and *employing a structured and well-planned teaching process* (good teaching preparation) (Kassing, 2011, pp.70-72). Teachers, however, perceived that *encouraging grammar mastery*, *knowing the student-teachers' prior knowledge*, *memorizing* (theory and vocabulary), and *process-oriented teaching* i.e., teaching is emphasized more on the process rather than results (dynamic interactions in the classroom e.g. teacher's preferences on students' contributions to discussion rather than the accuracy of speaking) motivated the students to learn English.

In the context of MTS in high schools, Lamb, Astuti and Hadisantosa (2016) collated findings of two studies on how teachers can motivate students to learn English in Indonesian EFL classrooms. The first study was conducted by Astuti (2014) and participated by four teachers in a provincial school while the second one was carried out by Lamb and Hadisantosa (Lamb & Wedell, 2015) participated by another four teachers in schools in a metropolitan city (the capital). Teachers' data was collected using interviews and classroom observations in both studies, and students' views were collected by focus groups and online questionnaires in the first and second study respectively. The findings revealed that all teachers shared common teaching practices though there were different preferences of teachers on motivational strategies in the two different places (Lamb, et.al., 2016).

Like in the context university/tertiary institutions, Lamb, et al. (2016) identified that all teachers in the high schools (junior and high) viewed that *rapport* (friendliness, strictness/being serious and humour) was considered as an important motivational teaching strategy. In addition, every teacher viewed that *enjoyable activities* (speaking practice using pair or group work, drama or role playing), *personalization*, *variety and improvisation* and *development of learner autonomy, giving feedback in a sensitive way* (mentioned by some students as well) were motivating while other strategies were valued by only some teachers i.e., *the importance of English* (by teachers in provincial school), *the achievability of English* (by those in the capital city), *strategic use of L1 and L2* (by teachers in both studies).

Teachers from a variety of levels of education and institutions also involved in a study looking at teachers' motivational strategy in EFL Indonesian classrooms had similar perceptions of strategies motivating students to learn English in Indonesia across the educational levels (Khasbani, 2018). In the study, 159 Indonesian teachers, at 7 (6 playground, 31 elementary school, 42 junior high school, 45 senior high school, 22 vocational school, 29 university and 58 private English institutions) teaching contexts, reported their teaching strategies to learn English by means of questionnaire designed in the study of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). The study found the most employed or frequently used motivational strategies i.e.*, posing a desirable behavioral example* (e.g. rapport and teacher's enthusiasm in teaching)*, appreciating students' contribution, developing students' self-reliance* (e.g. positive feedback and tasks within student's ability) and *creating pertinent classroom tasks* (e.g. clear instructions), and underused groups of strategies including *raising students' awareness toward learning goal* (e.g. help learners with their learning goals and review class goals)*, introducing students with the target language and cultural values* (e.g. use of L2 and authentic materials) *encouraging students to become an autonomous learner* (p. 1).

Despite research findings on MTS in Indonesian EFL classrooms highlighted above, there are no clear categorizations of strategies according to the four dimensions of MTS by Dörnyei, (2001a) (see *Figure 3.4*); different studies use different lists of strategies. Nevertheless, the studies proved that teachers and their motivational teaching practice play an important role in motivating learners in Indonesian EFL context. However, to this date, there is no empirical data that compares student motivation, teacher beliefs on

motivational teaching strategies and actual classroom use or the picture of this in Indonesian HE EFL study is unclear: whether (1) motivational strategies correlate with the students' motivation; (2) the level of students' motivation is related to their teachers' MTS use.

Regarding research in the context of Indonesia, this study gives more insights on how motivation affects the learning of English in Indonesia, such as in the research conducted by Lamb (2007), Bradford (2007 cited in Nichols 2014), and Nichols (2014). Lamb found that the students' motivation declined in the second year of junior high school due to their teacher's behaviour, while Bradford and Nichols found that Indonesian students were likely to be instrumentally motivated. Nichols indicated that, based on observations in the classroom, the students' motivational level in year 12 in an English ESL classroom did not increase after the intentional implementation of the student-preferred motivational teaching strategies.

The findings suggest two things: firstly, classroom situations and a teacher's actions regarding L2 use and motivational behaviour are very important to motivate the students in their learning and to help them succeed in mastering the language. This is particularly important in EFL Indonesian classroom context where teachers generally become the centre of learning and may often find difficulties in implementing the students' preferred strategies due to several factors such as teachers' lack of experiences and competence. Secondly, what strategies perceived will work in improving motivation, does not always work with real students or in all classroom situations.

Then, it suggests that MTSs in one context are not always similarly effective in another one e.g.: from Western to Eastern second/foreign language contexts or from one Asian to another Asian context. There is not enough evidence for cultural practices in Indonesian context. Thus, it is worth investigating the preference of motivational strategies when looking at the other context such as in my context, Indonesia. The next section discusses research on the effect of MTS on learning particularly on use of L2.

3.4 The effect of motivational teaching strategies on learning: L2 use

Previous section has discussed the importance of motivation in learning L2 and the relation with motivational (teaching) strategies: what teachers can do to improve student

motivation in learning. This section will discuss how motivation through teacher motivational strategies can relate to an aspect of language learning. Gardner (2010) argues that language learning can mean different aspects from learning vocabulary to communicate in the language. The aspect of learning that is interesting and under research to date to relate to motivation and teaching practices is the use of target language or L2 use. Regarding motivation, the importance of L2 use in learning is perhaps not only to communicate but also for self-expression as Ushioda (2012) says:

> teachers need to engage students in using the target language to express their own personal meanings, interests and identities, rather than treating them as language "learners" who are merely practicing or demonstrating knowledge of the language (p. 83).

The rationale for the study as mentioned in Chapter 1, Introduction, is due to the low proficiency of the L2 in the context of the study.

Regarding this, the concept of language proficiency in this study deals with communicative competence in spoken form rather than in the other form like listening and writing. Therefore, proficiency can refer to "how well we can use such rules [the rules of use and the rules of speaking a language] in communication (Richards, 1985 as cited in Nunan, 2001b, p. 34). This suggests that proficiency can mean the ability to use the target language or L2 in communication.

The ability to use L2 or language proficiency, then, can be the outcome of learning the language. In relation to this, it is important to understand pedagogical intervention in this case teacher's techniques to improve motivation and learning outcome. Therefore, the next section discusses MTS, motivation and learning outcomes based on empirical studies. Then, it continues with the review of the language use in L2 classrooms: the first (L1) and the target language (L2) for further justification of the importance of inclusion of the variable in the study. After that, MTS to enhance motivation and L2 use in EFL context are discussed subsequently to reveal the relationships of the three variables especially in EFL context.

3.4.1 Motivational teaching strategies, motivation and learning outcomes

In the classroom context, teaching needs to be carefully planned to allow optimal motivation of students to participate actively, for it is likely to improve motivation and

learning outcomes (Bernard, 2010; Ruan, Duan & Du 2015). There is evidence that students' motivation in learning L2 and teachers' strategies in teaching that improve and sustain the students' motivation significantly determine the L2 learning achievement (e.g. Bernaus, et al., 2009; Bernaus and Gardner, 2008).

Bernaus and Gardner (2008), for example, looking at the relation between motivation and language achievement used L2 test results to indicate the L2 learning achievement. The research investigating the effects of language teaching strategies reported by teachers and students on students' motivation and their English achievement found that while motivation is a good predictor of learning achievement, there are discrepancies of perceptions between teachers and students, 31 EFL teachers and 31 classes of 694 students of secondary education, on teaching strategy use in Spain. Strategies that the teachers reported as motivating did not have a positive link to the student motivation while those that the students appreciated, influenced their English achievement. This suggests that some strategies are related to motivation and learning achievement, but others are not. Therefore, there are some aspects to consider regarding the practice of teaching strategies to make them effective to enhance student motivation such as why teachers use certain strategies and how often they use them in teaching.

Based on the data obtained in Bernaus and Gardner's study (2008), Bernaus et al., (2009) investigated other questions including those to reveal the relations between teacher's motivation and its perceived strategy use. It was found that there is a positive correlation between teacher's motivation and teacher use of motivating strategies which link to student motivation and English achievement. However, these research findings were not directly investigated in the classroom but solely based on perceptions of teachers and students on teacher strategy use in the classroom. These findings show that student motivation and L2 achievement are influenced by *what occurs in class*. Teachers might not be able to control all that happens in class e.g. disruptions, exam requirements and the physical environment. They also show that teachers and students tend to appreciate different strategies deemed to improve.

However, the relationship between motivation and learning outcomes might not be always positive or direct. In other words, (highly) motivated learners do not necessarily have good learning achievement or skills in the language. Binalet and Guerra (2014)

measured students' motivation reported by respondents and their grammar knowledge of sentences, which were gathered using a (grammatical) test. The study was participated by 30 ESL freshman students taking Bachelor of Science in Criminology at a university in the Philippines. While most students reported that they are motivated in learning L2 (English), the results showed that there is no significant relationship between the students' motivation and their grammatical skills. Based on the results, Binalet & Guerra (2014), highlight several important points including that highly motivated students may not always use the language proficiently. This means that motivation perhaps has no direct relationships with proficiency; in other words, there are other factors influencing learners to use the language apart from motivation.

Similarly, Al-Hoorie (2016) investigated the attitudinal or motivational predictor of L2 academic achievement of 311 young adults of EFL learners at university in Saudi Arabia. The attitudinal and motivational measures comprised the Ideal/Ought to L2 selves, intended effort and family support scales while the L2 achievement was gathered using the final scores in the L2 course, a 9-point point scale ranging from A+ to F. The study revealed that the Ideal nor the Ought to L2 Selves has relationships with the language achievement.

The studies above reveal contradictory findings of relationships between motivation and L2 outcomes in different levels of education i.e., motivation may or may not influence the L2 outcomes and motivation teaching strategies may or may not have relationships with the students' motivation. For young adult English learners, achievement may be influenced by external factors or extrinsic motivation leading to a weak link to outcomes. Therefore, it is worth investigating motivational teaching strategies, motivation and other variables indicating the L2 learning outcome to obtain a clear explanation on why some motivated students are successful while others are not in goal attainment. In the study context, L2 use is the learning outcome that interests the researcher to investigate: its relations to motivational teaching practice and motivation. This study looking at the link between student motivation and MTS will extend the knowledge of what to do pedagogically with any link to outcome and give directions on future studies on the emphasis on the links.

However, the current research purpose was not to measure the learning outcomes, in this case the L2 use, directly; rather it tries to resolve the issues regarding the low proficiency which may be indicated by the low use of L2 in learning or in the classrooms. The study is to support the nation's development that requires high proficiency in the English language to foster the national welfare or prosperity.

3.4.2 Language use in L2 learning

Generally, there are two languages used in L2 learning i.e., the first language (L1) and the target language (L2). The use of the languages has been a focus of discussion and research of L2 learning; and the common questions raised regarding this issue are which language, why, and how much it should be used. The use of L2 in L2 learning can be related to the purpose of learning the language; Anil (2017) suggests that "In the present age, students' acquisition of a language is measured in terms of their ability to communicate in the language rather than examining their grammatical skills." (p. 2). Before looking at the use of L1 and L2 in L2 learning, it is important to overview briefly approaches, methods and theories in the second or English language learning including in the context of study, Indonesia.

- **Approaches and methods in English learning**

In fact, the L2 language learning can be viewed either as a process or a set of structures and rules (Tavakoli & Jones, 2018). For the English language, the former is currently valued more because "there has been a broadening in the scope and diversity of English language use needed for participation in today's global community" and at the same time much research has found that L2 learners can benefit from many learning experiences to guide the learning process (Pica, 2000, p. 2). This means that the learning experiences have been valued to be used as the approaches and methods in the English learning after the use of many different approaches and methods dated back more than 50 years ago which include grammar translation, direct method, audiolingualism, cognitive code, silent way, physical response, suggestopedia and communicative approaches (Pica, 2000).

Indonesia has also gone through transition in approaches and methods of its English education from the grammar-translation method after the Independence in 1945 to the communicative orientation in the 1994 curriculum (Saputra, 2013); the country has now implemented local autonomy to manage the English education in its region since the

release of Regional Autonomy Laws in 1999 (Saputra, 2013). This also suggests that the English teaching approaches and methods in Indonesia have moved from national method based into local autonomy curriculum. This highlights that the language use in English learning i.e., L1 use versus L2 use in Indonesia likewise in the world remains debatable.

- **Second language acquisition theories**

In the second language acquisition research (SLA), which started in the 1960s, the role of L1 in L2 learning has been put much attention (Bingjun, 2013). Broadly speaking, SLA theory includes first, nativisit theory referring to natural ability of human to learn a language; second, environmental theory emphasizing the role of learner's learning environment such as L1, social and cultural variables and third, functional or interactionist theory invoking interactions in the process of learning entailing innate and environmental factors in the learning process.

The third and the most recent theory suggests that the use of either L1 or L2 play an important role in the L2 learning as interactions invoke communication. Regarding this, discussions below will look at the use of the L1 and L2 in L2 learning. Currently, some researchers believe that L1 is effective in L2 classrooms while others hold an opinion that the use of L1 hampers learners to L2 learning and exposure (Almoayidi, 2018). Apparently, the use of L1 and L2 has distinctive purposes in second or foreign language learning. The arguments look at the concepts and beliefs by researchers, teachers and students by means of empirical research findings.

3.4.2.1 L1 use

Some studies found that the L1 use in teaching and learning L2 is essential for helping learners to learn for various purposes that impede the learners to learn well. In other words, the use of L1 is for facilitating learning, other than for communicative practice in L2, to avoid or reduce problems that obstruct learners in learning.

To begin with, the use of L1 is for better vocabulary gains. Zhao and Macaro (2014) investigated teachers' L1 or L2 use only explanations for learning concrete and abstract words of three groups of Chinese EFL university learners (N=148) aged 19 to 20, non-English programmes, in China. Fifty students participated in only L1 and L2 use groups, and 48 involved in the comparison one (non-intervention). The results show that students

in L1 and L2 only explanations (intervention) groups performed better in learning concrete and abstract words than the comparison group, while the L1 group was superior than the L2 only group. With the results revealed, Zhao and Macaro (2014) argue that "Learning L2 vocabulary through L1 translations tends to occur in a comparatively straightforward manner" while "processing an L2-only explanation is more complex" (p. 91). This concept suggests that the use of L1 should be minimum by young adults.

L1 use is also important to ameliorate teaching and to facilitate learners in L2 learning. Mohebbi and Alavi (2014) conducted a survey on L1 use in the classroom in learning English in private language schools Iran. Seventy two teachers participated in the survey viewing that L1 use (Persian) in EFL classroom functioned mostly for feedback provision, new vocabulary teaching, grammar explanation, rapport building, the class management, individual assistance provision to learners and time saving in explaining tasks (Mohobbe & Alavi, 2014).

Bozorgian and Fallahpour (2015) also conducted a study in pre-intermediate EFL classrooms of two English language institutes in Iran. Six teachers and 155 students were involved in 12 sessions of data collection through observations by video recording. The results show that the purpose of using L1 is far more by teachers than students (16 versus 5 for teachers and students respectively). The teachers use of L1 manifests in many aspects of their teaching including translation, elicitation, instructions and comprehension check while the students prefer the use of L1 in supporting them in learning such as for asking and answering questions, clarifications, scaffolding and self-correction (Bozorgian & Fallahpour, 2015).

In addition, the use of L1 is important in supporting students in learning L2 for specific purposes. Ghorbani (2011) explored the use of L1 in the classroom by looking at teacher and students' interactions in an Iranian EFL classroom of language institute in Iran through observations and discourse recording. The study found that scaffolding, private speech, and humour are some other functions of L1 use in L2 learning found in the study (Ghorbani, 2011). In the study, students (N=16) used L1 more (14 turns) compared to the teacher (9 turns) in pair or group work activity while the students' proportion of L1 use in pair or group work activities (5% of all student L1 turns) was roughly similar to the teacher's (4% of all teacher L1 turns). The findings suggest that even in pair or group

work activities which require communicative interactions, L1 is still found necessary despite suggestion of the minimum use of the language in L2 learning. However, the purpose of this current study is *not* to measure how much L1 nor L2 use in the classroom should be used but to put forward the appropriate use of L2 into considerations in order to improve the proficiency level of students in the study context as mentioned earlier.

3.4.2.2 L2 use

Unlike the use of L1 outlined above, the use of L2, either by teacher or learners, is primarily to support and help learners to use the language successfully. However, to use L2 in the classroom is often not easy and straightforward. Learners' ability to use L2 when learning depends on the learning process and the nature of classroom interactions. Therefore, the discussion of L2 use below includes factors that influence L2 use and importance of the language use in the classroom.

3.4.2.2.1 Factors influence L2 use

Being fluent in a second language is often the ultimate goal of L2 learners (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010) or the purpose of L2 learning is the mastery of target language use in communication in all aspects of language skills. In the classroom context, L2 use is often difficult regarding factors that hamper students and teachers to use the language. For students, they may not competent enough to portray visions of themselves they would like to give out in their L2 (Yoshida, 2013), willingness to communicate (WTC) can be fraud with foreign language anxiety (e.g. Rastegar & Karamer, 2015; Savaşçı, 2013), fear of making mistakes (Souriyavongsa, Rany, Abidin & Mei, 2013; Savaşçı, 2013) etc. Some teachers also do not often use L2 due to low level of L2 proficiency (Kang, 2013). They also use L2 for other reasons as explained in section 3.4.2.1 and those factors influence learners to use L2 in their learning and affect their fluency in that language.

WTC, for example, is one important factor determining communication in L2 i.e., proficiency. Macintyre and Doucette (2010) argue "WTC is a necessary part of becoming fluent in a second language" (p. 169). For this reason, much research has investigated how to enhance WTC in L2 learning as: it is considered an important variable on student participation in the classroom activities (Munezane, 2015). Added to this, higher motivated students and those feeling supported by teachers have higher WTC (Bernales, 2016; Zarrinabadi, Ketabi & Abdi, 2014).

Regardless of significant relation between WTC and such variables in the classroom context, the present study does not explore questions and provide explanation into WTC and other individual differences influencing learners to use or speak L2 but rather to understand teachers' role to support students to shape the students' skills in L2 use by providing the best teaching practices to achieve competence in communication. When it comes to communication, it is necessary for students to use the L2 as much as possible (Savaşçı, 2013) because the success of L2 learning is greater if students use L2 (Polio & Duff, 1994). Before looking at MTS, motivation and L2 use in EFL context, the next section discusses the importance of L2 use in L2 learning.

3.4.2.2.2 Importance of L2 use in the classroom

Teaching L2 has always been problematic or a debate in terms of which language to be used in the classroom (e.g. Zhao & Macaro, 2016; Moeller & Roberts, 2013; Macaro, 2001). Some researchers (and/or teachers) believe that the language of the class is the target language (Bateman, 2008). Others prefer code switching or L1 to L2 (Kim & Elder, 2008). There are a number of reasons such as attitudes, beliefs, contextual factors or situations in which the choice of using L2 or mother tongue in teaching and learning L2 (e.g. Tsagari & Diakou, 2015; Kim & Elder, 2008).

L2 use is found inevitably to be very important to make students succeed in L2 learning or L2 achievement. The first reason is proficiency gains (Thompson, 2006). A study on teacher and student use of L1 and L2 in FL classrooms over a period of the course through three observations in the USA proved that students' exposure to L2 use was one key important factor to proficiency gains (Thompson, 2006). Similarly, Mayo and Hidalgo (2017) also found that the use of L1 was more significant in the group of learners that have limited exposure to L2 instructional settings. This suggests that the exposure of L1 minimizes the use of L2 and vice versa. Teachers' L2 use is recognized by students to make them better at communication in that language (Tsagari & Diakou, 2015). Therefore, a great L2 use provision is necessary to improve language skills and acquire language competence particularly for students who have limited access to the target language community.

The quantity and quality of L2 use in language classrooms is important to support students who have little opportunities to hear L2 models or access L2 use outside the classroom

(usually in a foreign language context rather than in the second one as discussed in the context section of this study). Forman (2014) found that L2 use, in the actual class talk, performed both by teachers and students was "quite restricted in range and quality" in Asian, Thai, EFL classes (p. 99). This low quantity and quality of actual classroom L2 use might be influenced by several factors including teacher's anxiety in L2 use in the classroom.

Klanrit and Sroinam (2012) found that EFL teachers' (*N*=673) anxiety in using English in teaching in the language classroom in Thailand is due to (1) their high levels of expectations of students' language limitations and low motivation, (2) students' medium level of attitudes towards learning English, (3) teachers' low English proficiency, and (4) medium level of teaching and learning management. This suggests that teachers' L2 use might influence the students' L2 use (Hawkes, 2012). Therefore, it is important for teachers to have a good amount and quality of teachers' talk/L2 use to enhance students' L2 achievement. In other words, some hold a belief that teachers' L2 use will encourage the students' L2 use: the more teachers use L2 the more students might use that language or teachers' use of L2 encourages students' L2 use.

Frohm (2009) investigated how L2 was used in an FL classroom and how different teachers used L1 and L2 in their teaching. Three teachers from three different Swedish schools (at four levels: one intermediate, one secondary and two upper secondary) participated in questionnaires, observations and interviews. Eighty eight students also participated in a questionnaire requesting data on their own and their teachers' use of L2. The results suggested that the teachers' decision of L2 use had an impact on the students' i.e., teachers' L2 use stimulated the students' L2 use (Frohm, 2009).

The second importance of L2 use in learning is to enhance student motivation; some learners perceive that L1 is used as a de-motivating factor in FL (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). L2 use is important to foster "natural acquisition of that language" (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008, p. 267-268) and high frequency of L2 use may lead to naturalistic learning. MacDonald (1993) argues that over reliance on L1 can de-motivate students in L2 use. This shows that if teachers use minimum L2 or avoid using it there might be a negative impact on students' L2 achievement. Therefore, teachers should

carefully plan their teaching strategies of their own L2 use to "stimulate originality and creativity in learner's language overtime" (Christie, 2016, p. 74).

Accordingly, teachers' techniques are used to maintain the students' motivation and encourage them to use L2. Christie (2016) investigated techniques which encourage L2 use spontaneously in the modern foreign language (MFL) in the UK; the study utilized a combination of classroom observations and interviews. The analysis of data comprised four themes: (1) a classroom climate of L2 establishment, (2) L2 promotion with the provision of language items for learners, (3) L2 management to motivate students to speak in the L2, (4) promotion and stimulation of subjects for the spontaneous talk through context management. The observations showed that students' spontaneous L2 use was much higher than L1 (English) in the classroom: students of Years 7/8 and 10/11 had only 5% and 6% of turns to speak spontaneously in L1 respectively. The teachers in the research use different techniques to motivate students in spontaneous L2 use: "keeping learners using the target language" and creating a classroom context promoting "spontaneous communication" (p.80); the teachers' L2 become the students' language (reusable) in the classroom context. The spontaneous use of L2 has proved that students might have enough "motivation to want to speak to communicate without being prompted" (p. 76). Therefore, it suggests that L2 use could be maximized in L2 classrooms by using appropriate techniques in teaching.

Moeller and Roberts (2013) affirm that techniques for teachers to keep the language in in L2 make the students motivated in learning. They mention that teachers can create a learning environment in L2 use by using eleven strategies such as involving learners in designing their tasks, creating a pleasant environment and giving rewards. By using appropriate teaching techniques or strategies, teachers can support learners to maximize L2 use in the classroom. This shows that the use of L2 in the strategies motivate the learners twofold: *to learn and to use L2*. However, the use of L2 to motivate students to learn has not been prevalent in research findings despite much research undertaken focusing on motivational strategies in teaching L2. One reason could be that research has not put the pivot on relations between motivational teaching strategies and L2 use.

3.4.3 Motivational teaching strategies, motivation and L2 use in EFL context

In a foreign language context, "the target language is usually learned in an institutional or academic context where learners have no or limited opportunities for interacting with the target language community" (Li, 2014, p.451). The specific exposure to L2 and relation to L2 culture may have a significant impact on the learners' motivation (Hernandez, 2010). Learners who have more access to L2 and its culture would probably find it easier to understand, practice and become fluent in that L2 (e.g. Huensch & Tracy-Ventura, 2017; Leonard & Shea, 2017) because classroom is not the only place for them to learn the language. This advantage can initiate and maintain their motivation and succeed in learning that L2. For example, children in European countries such as the Netherlands, France and Spain often learn English (ESL context) outside the classroom (e.g. Brysbaert, Eyckmans, & Wilde, 2018). Their motivation and success in learning English is shaped and maintained by the high amount of L2 use outside the classroom.

In relation to this, Li (2014) investigated differences in the motivation of English learners in second language/ESL and foreign/EFL context in China found that ESL learners "expended or intended to expend more effort in learning English, developed stronger idealized self-images as competent users of English, and had more favourable attitudes toward learning English" than the EFL learners (p. 451). Here, the ideal self links to the learning experience: "an experience → ideal self link, because the learning experience concerns the present, which is then expected to affect the future self-image" (You, et al., 2016, p. 97). The ideal self in EFL context may not be strongly aspired in the limited contact with L2; therefore, teachers or "we should encourage our students to view the target language as a means of self-expression and self-development" (Ushioda, 2011, p. 204). In other words, teachers should also always try to fulfill the role as 'actors' in students' extrinsic motivation (Báez Dueñas & Chacón Vargas, 2013) and should be able to create, generate, maintain, and evaluate students' motivation not only in learning (Dörnyei, 2001a) but also in using the language.

Students are found not to use L2 in L2 learning due to several factors, as discussed earlier, from anxiety (Yoshida, 2013) to motivation (Bateman, 2008; Levine, 2003). Therefore, teachers should be able to choose the relevant strategies for the classroom activities that maximize L2 use and improve competence in using the language. To encourage students' L2 use, teachers can use teaching techniques that give opportunities for the students to

express themselves in L2. In addition, Zhang and Head (2010) reported a study revealing that appropriate teaching strategies can turn reticent learners into using English in speaking activities in L2 learning. In EFL classrooms, teachers are to facilitate the students' use of L2 and at the same time maintain and boost their motivation to use the language because the students often lack practice during a lesson either for not having ample opportunities or if they get some, many do not dare to speak or use the language (Babu & Rao, 2012).

One teaching technique which can motivate students use L2 in the classroom is teachers as providers of L2 models; teachers' provision of L2 can maintain the students' motivation and encourage them to use the L2 (Christie, 2016). Levine (2003) investigating L2 use according to teachers and students in FL context suggests that level of motivation and the frequency of strategies instruction about L2 use were two of important aspects that correlated with the amount of L2 use in the classroom. In this research, it was found that students who had higher motivation to learn FL and had instructors engaging more often in strategy instruction about L2 use had the higher levels of L2 use. However, teachers should be able to find the best ways or strategies to promote the students' use of the L2 more as teacher's talk in the classroom could be a tool in managing classroom interactions (Sešek, 2005).

Next, a good relationship with teachers, a pleasant learning environment, the ability of teachers (professionalism) to design fun activities and use appropriate materials were among the most effective teaching strategies to increase student participation to speak English in a survey study of a grade 9 group students in middle school in China (Zang, 2011). All these factors seem to focus on generating the students' interest and boosting their motivation to use English in the classroom. Zang's research (2011) also indicates that students need to feel at ease to use the language, having minimum stress or tension in using the language, for they would not resist taking part in interesting materials and fun activities requiring English use.

Other teaching strategies: (1) allowing student to discuss on interesting topic, (2) presenting any topic "in an entertaining and funny way, (3) forcing students express their opinions on the particular topic, both in speaking and writing; (4) establishing classes with a native teacher of English who would converse with them; (5) introducing audio

tapes, video in classes; (6) studying and drilling grammar, doing grammar quizzes; (7) reading original texts in L2; (8) revising words and practicing pronunciation (mentioned marginally only)" (Klimova, 2011, p. 2601) were found motivating and improving students' ability to use English at the University of Hradec Kralove in Czech Republic. Nineteen students participated in the qualitative study. The findings suggest that students learning English at university level had similar perceptions to those in basic education on strategies motivating them to use L2 which were interesting topics and fun activities.

However, the studies show that students at higher education favored more variety of activities and materials to make them use English more; they even hoped the teachers would 'push' them to use the language. Students in English programmes like those in this current study, have bigger 'obligations' to speak English more and gain proficiency in the language. This might be due to their 'bigger capacity' as 'older' or adult students to manage their learning compared to the younger students in basic education and students at different programmes.

In the context of the study, Manurung and Mashuri (2017) claim that "lecturer doesn't use English all the time" and "lack of practice" (p. 358) can be de-motivating factors for students to use the language, among the top five of most frequently (fifteen) factors experienced by the students, as found in a longitudinal mixed-method study in teaching speaking classes at an English Education Department of university in Indonesia.

Students (N=220) were interviewed by 20 students (after being trained to conduct the interview) from Speaking IV class at one university at the English programme. The students reported that the lecturers did not use L2 all the time and responses from the lecturers and peers on the students' answers during the lesson discouraged them to use the language resulting in demotivation. Therefore, teachers and their classroom environment providing L2 use opportunities for students are very essential in EFL learning context including in Indonesia. The students, then, find classrooms as important sources of English input as well as output otherwise their learning goal may be at risk of failure for there is a minimum alternative around particularly for the English output.

In addition, when teachers fail to relate the lesson to the students' everyday life situations, it lessens their motivation to learn and use the language (Manurung & Mashuri, 2017).

Students reported that they were motivated and confident in speaking when they knew the topic, the teachers asked them to choose their own topic, or they spoke in a group (Manurung & Mashuri, 2017). Losing interest in the subject matter or not understanding the materials might hinder the students to learn or communicate in the language.

Despite the broad issue of L2 use, little attention has been paid to the interplay between teaching strategies and L2 use: *what teachers can do to motivate* students in learning and *motivate L2 use* in the classroom learning. Most research investigates L2 use quantity for the purpose of student L2 achievement classroom learning alone including in my educational country context, Indonesia. In a study of actual EFL classroom it was found that students' language output is influenced by the teachers' language input in EFL Indonesian classrooms at primary school (Zainil, 2013); so, it is important to investigate the teachers' L2 use in relation to students' in upper level, Higher Education (HE): How is the L2 use of EFL HE students of Indonesia influenced by their teachers?

In addition, to date there is no adequate research investigating the use of L2 use (English) in Indonesian EFL classroom context; instead, L1 use (Indonesian) has roughly been found in the literature (e.g. Arung, 2015; Halim, 2013). Success or failure in L2 learning is often indicated by the ability of the students to use the target language (TL) in communication. However, there is less research exploring the effects of teaching strategies on motivation in relation to TL or L2 use in class. This affirms Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) argument that "The literature has reported ample evidence that student motivation and learning achievement are correlated, but it would be important to specify the optimum conditions for realizing this link" (p. 73). Thus, there is a need to optimize the congruence of motivational teaching strategies used by teachers and those that students appreciate. In addition, it is important to look at further the relation between motivation and L2 use. In fact, L2 use in class can be considered as a measure of motivation in its own right because Nunan (2015) mentions: if one knows a language it is assumed that he or she is able to use the language in speaking.

In regard to this, the current study seeks explanation to questions of other variables at a classroom level other than at individual differences such as WTC, and language anxiety. Existing studies have proved that learner motivation can be influenced by L2 use (Christie, 2016), and effective motivational strategies (e.g. Wong, 2014; Sugita McEown

& Takeuchi, 2014; Morkovsky et al., 2013; Papi & Abdolllahzadeh, 2012; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

Therefore, this study aims to explore on how MTS relate to student motivation and to teacher's and student's L2 use and/or which MTS have an impact of L2 use from both teachers and students' perceptions in university of Indonesian EFL classroom context. Student motivation in the study refers to something that student wishes "to accomplish or gain, being the target language the vehicle to attain it" (Gardner, 1985; Gijaklani, Leon & Saoburi, 2012); and L2 use or second language use refers to the use of target language in second language classroom context (Kim & Elder, 2008).

The literature shows that the L2 MSS which is considered "more classroom oriented research" (Al-Hoorie, 2017, p. 2) has been the most successful L2 motivation model over the last ten years. Its validity has been empirically tested in many contexts (Islam, et al., 2013); the components of L2 MSS: the *ideal* L2 and *ought-to* selves as well as learning experience "were a good predictor of the learners' intended learning effort" (Moskovsky, et al.,2016, p. 641). The L2 MSS is conceived as an appropriate model that can address other factors affecting the dynamic nature of motivation that previous (i.e. social-psychological) model could not explain (Al-Hoorie, 2017). One important benefit of the L2MSS is that its components enable teachers to find ways to motivate students (e.g. Magid & Chan, 2012) and help learners to get success in L2 learning.

The literature also shows that there is a research gap of looking at the relations between teaching strategies and student motivation relationship in the *actual classroom practice.* Then, this study investigates not only the complex issue taking place in learner motivation but also in the L2 learning activities. The focus of this study is particularly to find out the relationship between MTS and L2 use in the classroom environment. Do teachers encourage students to use L2? Do students express themselves or communicate more in L2 use with certain MTS? In other words, this study combines motivational research in students with research on pedagogical ways to increase motivation in English Language Teaching (ELT) classrooms, thus combining teacher and student perspectives on *what teachers can do* to motivate students in L2 learning.

3.5 Research questions

Having discussed the literature and the gaps which this research intends to fill and a pedagogical ambition to learn about student EFL classroom motivation and L2 use, the following research questions are constructed on the basis of the review:

RQ1: What is the motivational orientation in terms of L2MSS among Indonesian EFL students in the classroom?

RQ2: A. Which motivational teaching strategies do (a) lecturers and (b) students perceive to be most useful and frequently used in EFL classrooms? How do they compare?

B. How do lecturers' actual use of MTS in class compare to self-report of MTS (a) by themselves, and (b) by the students' in EFL classrooms?

RQ3: How does student motivation relate to students' self-report of (a) the lecturers' MTS use (b) the amount of students' L2 use (c) lecturers' L2 use in EFL classrooms.

RQ4: A. What is the relationship between students' self report of lecturers' L2 use and the students' L2 use,

B. How does actual L2 use by (a) lecturers and (b) students in EFL classrooms compare to (a) lecturers' self report, and (b) students' self-report of L2 use for both groups?

For the purpose of this study the following working hypotheses are offered and from the RQs can be hypothesized:

1. Students overall tend to show more Other than Own motivation.

2. Lecturers' and students' appreciation of MTS will differ in particular in the MTS regarding strategies that foster their use of L2 or increase opportunity for L2 use.

3. The following positive correlations are expected (a) student motivation and their reported of lecturers' MTS use, (b) student motivation and the amount of students' reported of their lecturers' and their own L2 use, and (c) students' reported of their L2 use and their lecturers' use of the language. This hypothesis is built on the fact that there is little evidence regarding the relation between MTS use and L2 use; and some contradictory evidence is found pertaining to L2 use. In the context of this study, the exposure to L2 is the main source for students. Therefore, it is also hypothesized that students with stronger motivation might respond to L2 more and they might be more motivated when lecturers use L2 more frequently. However, this study is to provide or measure students' use of L2.

4. There is an inconsistency between the lecturers' perceptions on (a) MTS and (b) L2 use in class to the actual (a) MTS and (b) L2 use.

The hypotheses indicate that lecturers' MTS might influence the students' motivation and L2 use. It is important to highlight that this study explored what strategies the lecturers *really* use (rather than what strategies the lecturers think they use) that motivate the students and encourage them to use L2 more through the descriptions and explanations of the students' views or appreciations of MTS and the observations of lecturers' MTS actual use. The MTS use was correlated to student motivation level rather than on motivated behavior in the classroom on individual components, i.e., alertness, participation and volunteering like in the previous studies (Papi & Abdollahzadah, 2012; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

3.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the main aspects of literature review in this study, pertaining to MTS, student, motivation and L2 use. The definitions, the most relevant theories and models of classroom L2 motivation including L2MSS, and quantity of research using the L2MSS model were discussed first. Though the L2MSS has been used widely but the model used has used only two selves (Ideal and Ought). Three or four selves of L2MSS construct has been used in a few numbers of research to address the issue of Ought to self. Findings revealed that the role of Ought to and Other selves cannot be ignored in motivation. This confirms the dynamic nature of motivation to learn L2.

The chapter, then, looks at the dynamic nature of motivation in the classroom by looking at motivation in practice: what teachers can do to motivate students to learn by applying motivational teaching strategies or practice that influence learners' motivation or motivated behavior. The relations between motivational practice and motivation that influence learners' learning outcome in learning was explored. The literature shows that what happens in the classroom influences students to learn. Teachers, their behaviour and teaching strategies have positive relations with the student motivation. Many research findings have confirmed this.

The effect of MTS on student learning, in this study L2 use, was also reviewed. Research findings have also revealed that there is more evidence on the link between motivation

and learning outcomes. This suggests that student motivation and learning outcome may or may not have any relations. There could be other factors influencing student outcomes. The use of L1 and L2 was also discussed in L2 learning to look at its relevance to the MTS and student motivation in this study as one aspect of learning results or outcome. L1 use cannot be ignored in L2 learning for it is effective to support learners in L2 classrooms. However, L2 use is very important to enhance a learner's proficiency and communication skills. For this reason, this study does not compare the use of L1 and L2 use rather to measure the amount of L2 use in the classroom.

Finally, after reviewing the literature, the current research focus was justified. L2MSS model is relevant and appropriate for the purpose of this study where dynamic classroom atmosphere is the basis of student motivation in this study. In addition, the four selves motivation i.e., Own Ideal/Ought and Other Ideal/Ought to be used to fit the process model of motivation in dynamic interactions in L2 classroom. Research questions with hypotheses on MTS, student motivation and L2 use were also formulated on the basis of the discussion of MTS, student motivation and L2 use relationships in this chapter. How the research would be conducted, the aspects related such as methods and procedures are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 4

Research Methodology and Methods

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides descriptions and explanations of any procedures conducted in this study that is how the investigation was carried out and what methods and instruments were used to ensure maximum reliability and validity. The research paradigm used in the study is explained in this chapter. Then, the methods used in the research, participants, details of the sample selection, its composition and the instruments are presented as well. Data analysis, ethical considerations and pilot study are also described before summary is provided.

4.2 Research paradigms in L2 motivation

A research paradigm is "a worldwide or perspective about research held by a community of researchers that is based on a set of shared assumptions, concepts, values and practices" (Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p. 31). Therefore, Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) say that research paradigms are important because "they provide beliefs and dictates, which, for scholars in a particular discipline, influence what should be studied, how it should be studied, and how the results of the study should be interpreted." (p. 26) In other words, we can say that research paradigms are philosophical perspectives underpinning research and how it is conducted.

A research paradigm comprises *ontology*, *epistemology*, *methodology* (Guba, 1990). Ontology is the branch of philosophy pertaining to "the nature or reality and truth" (Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p.32) or philosophical assumptions we make about the nature of reality of phenomenon we are researching. Epistemology deals with the knowledge, its nature, and forms or how knowledge can be created, acquired, and communicated to others (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Methodology refers to the strategy underpins the choice and use of research methods (Crotty, 1998). In educational research, there are three major paradigms *positivist, interpretivist/constructivist* and *pragmatic* which are generally associated with *quantitative*, *qualitative* and *mixed methods*

approaches respectively (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). The three will be explained below and related to L2 motivation research. The reasons of why pragmatic paradigm will be used in the current research are also explained.

4.2.1 Mixed methods approach

Pragmatic paradigm offers the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches in mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Creswell (2015) observed that mixed methods research is:

> An approach to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (close-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems (p. 2).

From the explanation above, therefore, we can say that mixed methods approach refers to a technique using the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches for robust data collection, analysis, and interpretations to make sense of the research phenomenon.

A positivist paradigm is "based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy" whose - assumptions include that "the social world can be studied in the same way as the natural world, and that explanations of causal nature can be provided" (Mertens, 2010, p. 10). In this research paradigm, researchers use a theory to make a claim (Creswell, 2003) and typically employ quantitative approach to measure the social phenomena and investigate the causal relationships between different aspects of the social world (Matthews & Ross, 2010).

Quantitative approaches or methods refer to "techniques related to the gathering, analysis, interpretation, and presentation of numerical information" (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 5) and may use methods such as correlation, survey, experimental design. In other words, the research approach utilizes quantitative data (which are usually large) and statistical analysis (Mertens, 2010) to find the answers to a research problem. The purposes of using quantitative approach include "to create research design allowing the generalization of findings; and to formulate general laws" (Flick, 2014, p. 13). Research in education dominantly used the quantitative paradigm until the early 1980s when both

quantitative and qualitative approaches claimed superiority over each other (Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

Most research in language learning has been grounded in quantitative methods focusing on both groups of learners or teachers and very popular in motivation research (Boo, et al., 2015, Dörnyei, & Ushioda, 2011). Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), for example, conducted a large–scale survey on motivational teaching strategies in an Asian (Taiwanese) language teaching to add to the previous research (Dörnyei & Csizer's research in 1998) in a Western country (Hungary). This method of research benefits from its large quantity of participants but different findings in the contexts could not explain the specific reasons of why some strategies are more useful compared to those in the other context such as in those of culture, institutional and ethnolinguistic different contexts.

As mentioned above, quantitative research provides generalization to data, but it cannot give reasons, for example why the teachers, considered the MTS to be the most important. It may also not reveal concepts that might exist outside the Western context in which instruments were designed, for instance in Asian/Eastern contexts, as quantitative data is gathered "across observed group of participants, and by working with concepts of averages it is impossible to do justice to the subject variety of an individual life" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 214).

The research on MTS in the Saudi context perhaps demonstrates this further. Alqahtani (2016) conducted a second similar research of MTS in Saudi context after Alrabai's 2010 research (as cited in Alqahtani, 2016). Though inferential statistical was used to generalize findings, the ranking order of strategies found in this research was different from the previous research in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizer's, 1998), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) and Saudi Arabia (Alrabai, 2010) which applied a statistical analysis as well (Alqahtani, 2016). The quantitative analysis alone cannot explain further why difference in findings occurred.

Different from the preceding paradigm, Creswell and Poth (2018) highlight that interpretivist or constructivist paradigm is used to understand the world in which the individuals live and work. They say researchers use individuals' experiences which are socially constructed through interactions with others, historically and culturally formed

by the norms operating in their lives to interpret a theory of phenomenon investigated. Liamputtong (2009, p. x.) argues that "For most qualitative researchers, it is understood that in order to understand people's behaviour, we must attempt to understand the meanings and interpretations that people give to their behaviour". In other words, the researchers often employ a qualitative approach to gather the participants' views in the socially constructed claims or interpretivist paradigm (Creswell, 2003).

Qualitative approaches are usually used in research which "rely on text or image data" (Creswell, 2014, p. 188) gathered using procedures like interviews, document analysis and focus groups. Qualitative or narrative data are "often described as referring to people's feelings and thoughts" (Newbay, 2010, p. 142) and they are analyzed using thematic analysis (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Recently, studies in L2 motivation have seen an increase in qualitative research (Boo, et al., 2015), the findings of which reveal behaviour and/or perceptions of its respondents. The increase of such research might be due to the dynamic nature of L2 motivation that "involves a combination of diverse factors and variables" (Harrison, 2008-2009, p. 110): the research has tried to find out and explain why individuals have certain patterns of behaviours and/or appreciation on L2 motivation especially within specific context. In relation to this, the research has seen an increase in qualitative methods which allow better grasps of such complexities and contextual variables, including interviews focusing on individual teachers or learners (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). For example, Alshehri, (2013) interviewed EFL teachers and students to find out their perceptions of motivational strategies used by teachers to promote the students' motivation for L2 learning in three higher education institutions in Saudi context. While the qualitative analyses in this research explored in depth of MTS in Saudi Arabia context, the findings limited the conclusion due to a relatively small size sample.

Qualitative research using perceptions and/or behaviour individual(s) focus more on depth while quantitative studies accommodate breath or general trends conditions with reference to issues. Results of qualitative research that utilize such [small] sample size, however, might be arguable since conditions grounded for the sample conditions may not broadly apply to others (Dörnyei, 2007). The purpose of the interview is to "explore the complex beliefs and practices of an individual person" (Liamputtong, 2009, p. 84). These

limitations of both qualitative and quantitative research may explain why a growing number of researchers turn to mixed methods (Boo et al., 2015, Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) developed from the notion of triangulation "which expresses the belief that the convergence of evidence stemming from two or more methods can enhance the strength and validity of research findings" (Arthur, Waring, Coe & Hedges, 2012, p. 147).

Investigating learner motivation with the focus of the individual while respecting the complex dynamic context necessitates considering a range of variables such as clear vision, teacher's behaviour, teaching practice and classroom situations. In a world view that conceptualizes interactions as a dynamic complex system, research cannot rely on quantitative investigation alone (Dörnyei, 2009b); qualitative or the combination of the two allows better contextualization of L2 motivation. This is due to the fact that the variables in the model and the relationships among them are complex and might be relatively different in various L2 learning contexts.

A clear vision of Ideal L2 self of L2MSS which determines motivation, for instance, can be influenced by different factors in certain learning contexts or circumstances. In other words, to attain "a highly desired personal goals" requires "a period of intense and enduring motivation" (Henry, Davydenko and Dörnyei, 2015, p. 329). The research, then, needs to explore which significant challenges that learners face in shaping their Ideal L2 self-image as competent L2 users in the future through qualitative approach or a combination with quantitative rather than generalizing the trend by using quantitative methods alone. Valid and credible findings would be obtained from deep and or different angles; therefore, it would be able to explain the appropriate model of L2 motivation in that learning situation.

Regarding research on MTS, Walker (2016) investigated motivational teachers' strategies and behaviours in relation to student motivation and anxiety employing mixed methods: questionnaires and interviews of teachers and students. She found that none of the strategies found in other countries' contexts listed in Wong's (2014) were similar to those revealed in her study of motivational teachers' strategies and behaviours in Cyprus context. She also indicated that four of the strategies noted in Dörnyei's and Csizer's (1998) and Cheng's and Dörnyei's (2007) studies to motivate students, and a further four identified by Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) were not identified by the student or teacher

participants in the study. In other words, teacher and student appreciation both differ and are similar. Therefore, mixed methods of data collection and analysis can reveal how motivational teaching strategies differ in specific cultural contexts particularly in relation to student motivation and other variables in L2 classrooms. Therefore, it was decided to use a mixed methods approach in this study including interviews and focus-group discussions.

4.3 Research methods

This study involved perceptions of lecturers and students within a complex issue regarding MTS, motivation and L2 use; therefore, a combination of methods was important. Given the complexity of the issues involved, a mixed method was deemed best rather than quantitative or qualitative methods alone. Creswell (2009) highlights that "the use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches by themselves is inadequate" to address the complexity of problems in social and health science research (p. 203).

The mixed method approach is considered especially important here as there is not much prior research conducted in this context hence there is little data to compare. In other words, empirical studies on the relationships between the variables are scarce perhaps due to the complexity of this problem particularly in the Indonesian context of English teaching. In addition, this study is an answer to the shortcoming of evidence of the actual use of lecturers' motivational strategies "across different cultures and the possible links between the use of such strategies and other motivational dispositions of language learners" (Papi & Abdollahzadah, 2012, p. 577).

In addition, a mixed method, a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches employed in this study intends to "generate a more accurate and adequate understanding of social phenomena that would be possible by using one of these approaches" in order to "enhance the strength and validity of research findings" (Biesta, 2012, p. 147). Validity and reliability will be improved by combining quantitative and qualitative methods in tandem (Creswell & Clarck, 2011) to understand and find the answers to the research questions. In other words, this study used the advantages of mixed methods which: "can simultaneously address of confirmatory and explanatory questions with both qualitative and quantitative approaches", "provides better (stronger) inferences" and "provides the

opportunity for a greater assortment of divergent views" (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 33).

The study included the views of lecturers and students in this context of study which may be specific to the Indonesian HE EFL educational and classroom context. Data was obtained by using multiple designs to investigate the research questions. This study investigated lecturer motivational strategies, as reported, and perceived by lecturers and students, the actual use of these strategies, the relations of such strategies with students' motivation and L2 use. The amount of L2 use was also collected according to the lecturers' and students' self report and their actual use of the language. The data collection was based on the lecturers' teaching and students' learning experience. In this regard, the study applied an approach that the major data collection consists of surveys and followed by a minor secondary form of data collection (Creswell, 2009) which in this study were interviews, focus groups and classroom observations. Since the research used combinations of views, methods, and data; mixed methods research was best chosen for the quality standard of the research.

Regarding the quality, a mixed method research includes triangulation, in which various data sources, methods and theoretical designs are involved, as a quality standard to avoid researcher's bias. Mackey and Gass (2015) observe that "Triangulation involves multiple research techniques and multiple sources of data to explore the issues from all feasible perspectives. Using the technique of triangulation can aid in "credibility, transferability, confirmability, and dependability" (p. 181). Comparing quantitative and qualitative is one way to generate credible results. Mears (2012) further mentions that "While serving as a primary tool for data collection, in-depth interviewing can also function to clarify for triangulate data obtained through other means" (p. 170).

This study utilized *concurrent triangulation* i.e., the collection of quantitative and qualitative data is concurrent, "happening in one phase of the research study", and it "usually integrates the results of the two [quantitative and qualitative] methods during the interpretation phase" (Creswell, 2003, p. 217). The former was considered concerning the cost, time, and space because the study was conducted in Indonesia. For the latter, lecturers' and students' self -report data on MTS and L2 use, first, were compared and related. Data obtained from the individual lecturer interviews were also compared and

contrasted to the students focus groups and classroom observations in order to find out whether lecturers did what they said.

In addition, data collection for classroom observations was completed during and evaluated after classroom observations. Data collected during classroom observations were also triangulated after the observations. Finally, data from questionnaires, classroom observations, interviews and focus-groups triangulated one another. This aimed to increase reliability of data collected. The strategy of triangulation and data relationships in this study, which was multi-method design to find deep and complimentary answers to the research questions from different angles, can be seen in *Figure 4.1*:

Quantitative data: Questionnaires
MTS, Student Motivation and L2 Use

Qualitative data: Lecturers' Interviews and Student Focus-Groups
MTS, Student Motivation and L2 Use

Quantitative data: Classroom Observations
MTS and L2 Use
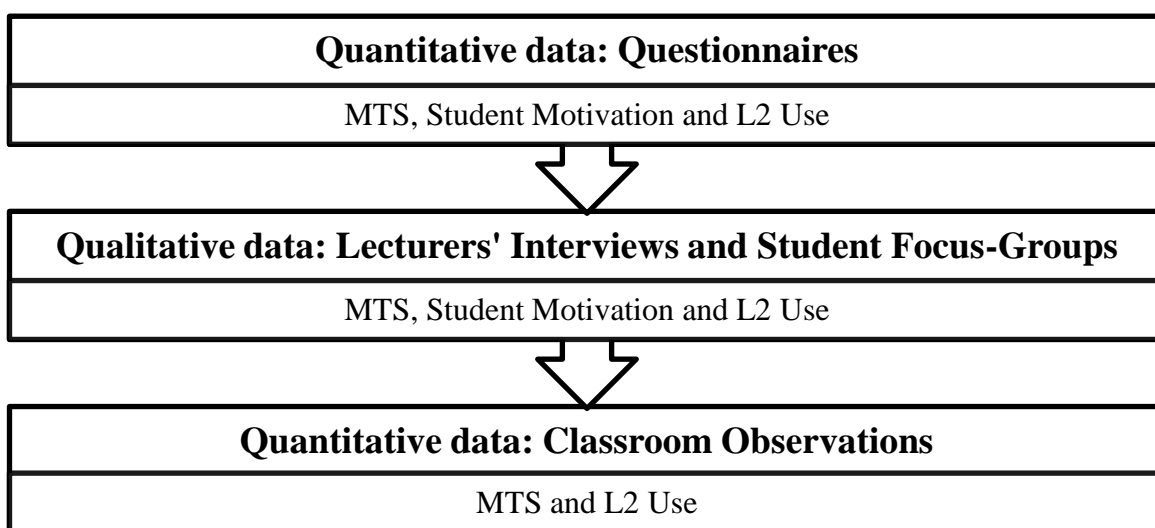
Figure 4.1 Data triangulation and relationships

In the study, lecturer and student views were collected regarding MTS, motivational state (only for students) and L2 use by utilizing questionnaires for lecturers and students. The researcher gave information and explained the research purposes to the lecturer and student participants (e.g. how to do the questionnaires). Then, they were asked to give informed consent that says they understood about the purpose of the study and were willing to participate. The questionnaires were given to the lecturers individually while for the students they were given before the class was over and collected by the lecturer who was teaching at that time.

This study also investigates the participants' explanations for the lecturers' and students' MTS preferences and lecturers' MTS use through lecturer individual interviews and student focus groups. This interview was to give insights to the individual lecturer's personal beliefs and practices of MTS which would be a supplement to the data collected quantitatively. While lecturers were interviewed individually to triangulate MTS from lecturers' perceptions, students were interviewed in focus groups for similar aims from students' views. All participants were interviewed in *Bahasa Indonesia* or the Indonesian Language.

To compare lecturers' and students' perceptions or self-reports on MTS and L2 use in class to the actual use of MTS and L2, this study utilized 3 classroom observations. Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2011) claim that "the distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring situation" (p. 456). In this regard, classes with expected amounts of L2 use e.g. Speaking classes were selected for the classroom observations. The focus of the L2 use in this study is in oral skills hence the observations were limited to oral L2 use in i.e., speaking and listening skills; hence the researcher did not observe L2 use in writing and reading skills as the written medium was unobservable.

The researcher is a complete observer who only observes what is going on in the group (Cohen et al., 2011) through silent presence and an audio recording. The researcher did not have any conversation with the student participants of the study to minimize "unnatural" interactions during the observations. In this way, the researcher is unable to "manipulate the situation of subjects" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 457). The researcher and her assistant also conducted observations three times of each class, but only in the third one data was collected and used for the research. In this way, it is expected that the participants would eventually behave naturally as they became familiar with the presence of the researcher and the assistant. Therefore, data obtained would offer natural participants behaviour as possible during the classroom observations. In addition, each classroom observation lasted according to the number of hours or minutes the course was taken. The timeline or summary of pilot and main study are shown in Table 4.1 below. The table provides and overviews of the procedures conducted, as a reference guide.

Table 4.1 Timeline and summary of piloting and conducting research

Proce dures	Research Activities	Setting	Participants	Time (2017)
Pilot study	MTS questionnaire (Lecturer & Student versions)	University 3 (English Education Programme)	4 lecturers and 37 students	1 week (23-28 Oct)
	Student motivation questionnaire		37 students	
	L2 use questionnaire (Lecturer & Student versions)		4 lecturers and 37 students	
	Classroom observation schedules		1 class (1 lecturers & ± 30 students)	
	Interview schedules		1 lecturer and 3 students	
Main study	MTS, student motivation, and L2 use questionnaires: lecturers and students	University 2 (English Language and Literature Programme) 2. University 3 (English Education Programme) 3. University 4 (English Language and Literature Programme)	30 lecturers and 232 students (aged 19-25 years)	1 week (6-10 Nov)
	3 Classroom observations		3 lecturers and 100-150 students (aged 19-25 year)	2 weeks (6-17 Nov)
	Lecturer interviews and student focus-groups		4 lecturers and 12 students (19-25 years)	1 week (13-17 Nov)

4.4 Research instruments and procedure

To attain the aims, a set of questionnaires for both lecturers and students was designed to collect data on perceived MTS use, student motivation and L2 use. In addition, schedules for lecturer interview and student focus groups and classroom observations were created to gather data on MTS preferences and L2 use. The procedure of instruments development is explained below. Before that, the instruments and the purpose are shown in Table 4.2. while the types of development are in Table 4.3.

Table 4.2 Instruments and purposes

No.	Instrument type	Data collected on	Number of instruments
1.	Lecturer questionnaires	MTS and L2 use	2
2.	Student questionnaires	MTS, motivation and L2 use	3
3.	Interview schedules	MTS and L2 use	1
4.	Focus groups schedules	MTS and L2 use	1
5.	Classroom observation schedules	MTS and L2 use	2

Table 4.3 Data types and instrument development

Data Types	Instrument Development					
MTS	Questionnaire	Created	Observation schedule	Adapted	Interview & Focus-group	Created
Student Motivation	Questionnaire	Adapted				
L2 use	Questionnaire	Created	Observation schedules	Created	Interview & Focus-group	Created

4.4.1 Questionnaires

Cohen, et al. (2011) argue that "a questionnaire's general purposes must be clarified and then translated into a specific, concrete aim or set of aims" (p. 379). For the efficiency of data collection, questionnaires were designed to collect data of MTS, student motivation dimension and L2 use from either lecturers or students collectively. Questionnaires for lecturers comprised sections of MTS and L2 use while that for students consisted of MTS, student motivation dimension and L2 use (see the questionnaires for lecturers and students).

4.4.1.1 Constructions of lecturers' and students' MTS questionnaires

"Because the essence of *scientific research* is trying to find the answers to questions in a systematic manner" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 1), lecturers' and students' MTS questionnaires were constructed to apply in this research. As the focus of this study is motivational lecturer's teaching practice in the classroom context, the selection of these strategies was based on *being observable* and *researcher self-experience* as a lecturer. Based on this, the Motivational Language Teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's study (2008) was used to construct the MTS questionnaire. However, some strategies were not relevant or did not work to the context of this study since the MOLT

instrument was previously developed to measure the relationships between student motivated behavior and motivational variables of Korean junior high school teachers context. For this reason, the strategies were chosen and adapted to construct MTS instrument that were valid and reliable for this study by referring to the problem of observability and cultural appropriateness.

The process of selection was conducted by the researcher. Firstly, the 25 strategies or motivational teaching practice were selected and appropriated to the context of the study i.e., Indonesian university level. Then, these motivational strategies of teaching practice in the classroom observation scheme were used to construct MTS questionnaires. The strategies listed on the classroom observational scheme used in the previous study were understood only by the researcher: it was only for classroom observation conducted by the researcher herself. However, as these strategies were used also for questionnaire; it was necessary that the classroom teaching strategies to be comprehended by both lecturers and student participants of the MTS questionnaire.

Therefore, the wording of strategies was modified to be less abstract or to be more concrete by referring to the descriptions of the strategies in Table 2 of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's study (2008, pp. 63-64). For example, strategy 1: *Social chat (unrelated to the lesson)* was modified by making it into two strategies: (1) *Having an informal chat in class* and (2) *Having humour in lesson*. Strategies 24 and 25: *effective praise* and *class applause* were blended and modified into *praising* to make them more comprehensible and concrete. After selection, division, elimination and combination, the strategies used in the questionnaire decreased into 12 as listed in Table 4.4 below:

Table 4.4 Motivational teaching practice in the classroom after adaptation

1. Having an informal chat
2. Having humour in lesson
3. Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life
4. Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural product
5. Highlighting the role of English plays in the world
6. Encouraging students to help one another
7. Pair work
8. Group work
9. Offering reward
10. Giving opportunities to express the student's personal experiences
11. Encouraging self or peer correction: mistakes, or work
12. Praising

Furthermore, the modification of the motivational lecturer's practice was used to construct a questionnaire to both lecturer and student versions. After the adaptation of the strategies, the lecturer questionnaire was constructed by asking lecturers to indicate **the frequency (in percentage) of motivational strategies use in their teaching practice**. They were evaluated on a five-point Likert-scale (1 = never used (0%-20%) − 5 = frequently used (81%-100%). The percentage was used here to help the participants to rate the frequency use of strategies and to make it compatible with classroom observations looking at how frequent such strategies were used in actual classroom practice rather than to expect that one strategy, for example, might be used 100% in one lesson. In other words, the percentage of frequency use of strategies in the questionnaire was to scale the participants' perceptions on the strategy use based on the teaching and learning experience rather than to calculate how much the strategy used in one lesson. The latter, however, applied to the classroom observations.

Therefore, the student questionnaire asked the students to point out **the frequency use of strategies that their lecturers have used them in teaching**. Similarly, the strategies were also selected by students to indicate the frequency use in teaching with the degree of those in the lecturer's version. The results of lecturers and students of MTS questionnaires would reveal their perceptions of MTS use in the classroom according to their experience.

4.4.1.2 Student motivational questionnaire

The questionnaire (initially 60 items) was primarily constructed with items derived, some modified, and developed from the existing studies (Papi and Abdollahzadeh, 2012). The questionnaires were utilized for this study as they compromised the ideal and ought to L2 selves and L2 learning experience in the classroom environment which are the constituent variables of the L2MSS. However, the theory focus was altered for the purpose of the study that is the L2MSS centered on **learner experience** and **different levels of Others** on student motivation rather than on the nature of focus and changes: Ideal and Ought Other were used to distinguish another person's wishes (Ideal Other) on a learner and the demands for the learner (Ought Other) (Lanvers, 2016). This was due to the context of the study dealing with student motivation in Indonesian HE EFL classrooms focusing on *what* influences their learning experience in class i.e., *what* lecturers actually do in the classroom, and others' perceptions on their learning.

This study also used six-point Likert scales of statement-type items in which 1 demonstrated *strongly disagree* and 6 *strongly agree*. The questionnaire included the items from the *ideal, ought-to L2 selves, L2 learning experience* and *linguistic self-confidence* constructs and excluded the ones in the *motivational intensity* construct of Papi and Abdollahzadeh's (2012) as this study did not look at the students' behavioural engagement as mentioned in the previous chapter. Kubanyiouva's (2006) words were also used to adapt the items of L2 learning experience dimension as they were relevant to this study, classroom teaching practice which motivates learners in L2 learning includes classroom atmosphere, and lecturer behaviour. The modification of the items was listed below:

- The **ideal L2 self** related to the English learners' image of their own ideal English users in the future was labeled as **own ideal L2 self** and were slightly modified focusing on Indonesian HE EFL of classroom perspectives e.g. from *I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals* into *I can imagine myself using English with foreigners* (4 items).

- The **ought-to L2 self** related to the external or other people demands upon the English learners were modified into **other ought-to L2 self** dimension to clarify the Ought/Ideal boundary. *Lecturers, parents, friends* and *people (wider circle)* were chosen to be the external demands that influence student motivation in L2 (English) learning in the context of study. In other words, these grouped items were rephrased to focus on Other self rather than the ideal self. For instance, *If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down* shows that the emphasis could be on the learner self rather than the other. Therefore, to make a clear boundary and adapt it simultaneously, it was modified into *people will be disappointed, if I fail to learn English* (16 items).

- In addition, **own ought-to L2 self** dimension was created to differentiate between *other* and *own* **demands** upon themselves e.g. *I would like to improve my English for future career purposes/opportunities* (7 items).

- **Other ideal L2 self** dimension was also created which distinguishes from **other ought-to L2 self** by **what others' wishes** and **what others' demands** on a learner respectively. *My parents would be happy if I had many international friends,* an item

on Other Ideal L2 Self, for example, shows what another person (parents) wishes on a learner *while my parents will be disappointed if I fail to learn English,* an item on Other Ought-to Self indicates what the person (parents) demands on the learner (16 items).

- **English learning experience** dimension**,** the areas of this group were also developed from 1 (classroom) into 3 different learning experiences: classroom (5 items), lecturer evaluation (5 items) and L2 use (2 items). For example, *do you always look forward to English classes?* was modified into *I think the material we learn in the classes will help me to use the language effectively* (12 items).

- **Linguistic self-confidence** grouped items dimension regarding the amount of confidence in learning English were also modified and adapted for appropriateness to the study focusing on L2 learning and L2 use in class. For example, *I often experience a feeling of success in my English lesson this semester* was modified and adapted to *When I have to speak English in class, I often feel confident* (5 items).

The items created particularly for the *own ought-to* and *other ideal/ought-to selves* dimensions or constructs were closely seen by an expert in the field.

4.4.1.3 L2 use questionnaire

An L2 questionnaire for both lecturers and students was developed to collect the amount of L2 use by lecturers and students. It asked lecturers and students' perceptions of percentage of time use in speaking L2 (English) of a lesson and ranged from 0% to 100% to elicit responses about the amount of L2 use. This instrument was relevant to the current study as it measured the real amount of L2 use in language classes and to compare the data to the other variables investigated.

Eliciting data on L2 use in the classroom was calculated based on (a) clarity: spoken L2 was loud enough to be heard in the classroom and clear on recording, whispering or low voices when talking were not included in the observations nor on the recording; and (b) oral use: not only when having conversations but any kind of oral use of L2 whether lecturers' giving instructions or students' reading was considered as L2 use. L1 use was not considered and calculated for this current research purpose. The questionnaire was

developed to obtain data pertaining to the amount of L2 use in class by providing spaces to record how much either lecturers or students use time of a lesson to speak L2.

4.4.2 Interview and focus group schedules

As this research looks for insights from "the qualities of experiences and the significance events or situations" (Mears, 2012, p. 170) of lecturers and students' experiences in English classrooms, a set of questions or interview schedule was also designed to conduct interviews for individual lecturers and student focus groups. Semi-structure interviews were conducted to interview individual lecturers. Berg (2007) argued that the questions in the semi standardized interview are asked "in a systematic and consistent order" but the interviewer is "permitted (in fact, expected) to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared standardized questions" (p. 95).

Liamputtong (2009) says that a focus group is a group interaction that helps stimulate the participants to produce information; they "compare and contrast their experiences"; it may remind participants about their experiences by hearing from others and encourage them to speak more (p. 83). Berg (2007) also mentions that focus groups interviews may be used "to quickly and conveniently collect data from several people simultaneously" through group interactions (p. 144). Therefore, focus groups will give opportunities for participants to interact with one another and to encourage discussion and "focus group data may be used in an adversarial way, to contest or quality earlier survey data." (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson, 2001, p.10).

Thus, interview and focus group schedules were designed for lecturers and students respectively (see below). The questions for lecturers were parallel to those for students so that it would be possible for the researcher to compare and triangulate the answers obtained for the questions from either group of participants. The number of questions in both schedules was the same; the only difference consisted in eliciting lecturer or student perceptions as shown below:

A. **Individual Lecturer Interview Questions**
   1. What do you do to motivate students to learn English?
   2. How often do you use these teaching strategies?
   3. Based on your teaching experiences, what teaching strategy that motivates students best in learning English?
   4. Do you encourage your students to use English in class? How?
   5. What do you think about student grades in relation to learning motivation?
   6. What do you think of the usefulness of English nowadays?
   7. Is there anything you want to say about how to improve your students' motivation in learning English?
   8. Is there anything you want to say about how to encourage your students to use English more in class?

B. **Student Focus-Group Interview Questions**
   1. What does your lecturer do to motivate you in learning?
   2. How often does your lecturer do things to motivate you?
   3. What works best to motivate you in learning English?
   4. Does your lecturer encourage you to use English in class?
   5. What do you think about grades in relation to learning motivation?
   6. What do you think about the usefulness of English nowadays?
   7. Is there anything you want to say about motivation to learn English?
   8. Is there anything you want to say about how to use English more in class?

The lecturer and student questionnaires as well as the interview and focus group schedules were translated into Indonesian (*Bahasa Indonesia*) to avoid misinterpretations or misunderstanding due to participants' limited knowledge of English. Translation was carried out by using a translator service, checked by another research student studying in the UK and looking at student motivation. Then, the researcher finalized the translation fitting into the context of the study.

4.4.3 Classroom observation schedules

4.4.3.1 MTS observation schedule

The instrument for MTS classroom observation was derived and adapted from MOLT classroom observation scheme of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's study (2008), whose motivational teaching practice had been modified for constructing the MTS questionnaire. This instrument was also used to observe the use of MTS related to L2 use in class rather than to motivated behaviour of students as observed in the previous study. Therefore, Learner's Motivated Behaviour section comprising *attention, engagement* and *volunteering*, were not included for this study. In addition, as this study was to compare

the perceptions and the actual use of MTS, the list of MTS observed were the same with those in the questionnaire. In relation to this, the other feature of the lecturer's practice section of the previous study was excluded as well. The observation investigated the use of MTS in 3 EFL classrooms and was designed to collect MTS use in every minute of the lesson by the researcher, following Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) MOLT classroom observation data collection procedure.

4.4.3.2 L2 use classroom observation schedule

An instrument was developed to collect L2 use in class for both lecturer and students for every minute of lesson time, similar and compatible to MTP classroom observation schedule (see the L2 use classroom observation schedule for Pilot study). The instrument was designed to collect lecturer's L2 use to the whole class. It was also utilized to gain data of student's L2 use to (1) lecturer and (2) the other students. The L2 use observation schedule identified the extent of lecturers and students use L2 according to the total time of speaking in class. It was measured with speaking time percentages (very low to very high) depending on the actual use of L2. The frequency of L2 use of both lecturers and students was collected during the lesson by a research assistant, an Indonesian EFL teacher. Data collected was evaluated and compared later with recorded data on an audio recording device by the researcher. The audio recording helped to check the accuracy of L2 use recorded by the research assistant.

4.5 Research participants and sampling procedure

To date, few studies have gathered data on lecturer and student views on motivational teaching practices (e.g. Alshehri, 2013; Shousha, 2018) compared to the vast amount researching student motivation, therefore, the sample of this study includes Indonesian HE EFL lecturers and students at English Programmes (English Language and Literature, and English Education) in three private university in Indonesia. The choice of universities was based on the location and the reputation or accreditation of institutions of HE institutions in Indonesia as explained below.

The universities are located in the urban area, capital of North Sumatra province, the fourth largest city in Indonesia. The universities are in Regional Office I of Indonesian private HE Institutions. All private HE institutions in Indonesia are regionally grouped under Regional Office Working Coverage which has 15 regions, regions 1 to 15. In region

I, there are 35 universities out of 500 in all regions.[9] This suggests, regionally, the universities can represent the Indonesian context.

In addition, the study programmes in the universities have good and satisfactory reputation or categories, B and C categories accreditation[10] according to Indonesian National Accreditation Agency for Higher Education (BAN-PT). This level of accreditation is beneficial to gain suitable samples for the study. Cohen, et al. (2011) argue that "The quality of a piece research not only stands of falls by the appropriateness of methodology but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted" (p. 143). The 'good' and 'satisfactory' categories of accreditation in these universities provide several good points for the purpose of this study: lecturers may practice satisfactory to good MTS; students may have good motivation in learning English and both lecturers and students may speak English more frequently in the classrooms.

Involving only three private universities for the research may also be sufficient to present HE EFL classrooms of Indonesia as the study programme with B and C categories reveal good and satisfactory competency of its graduates (Junaidi, 2017). According Junaidi (2017), the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education of Indonesia has recorded that there are 26,672 study programmes at Indonesian HE institutions and 20.254 of which are accredited i.e., with A category is 2,512 (12%), B category is 9,922 (49%), C category is 7,820 (39%), and more than 5,000 study programmes have no accreditation yet. Thus, the study programmes of the universities involved in this study meet the accreditation qualification and have the majority of category of study programmes of Indonesian HE; therefore, this can also be representative of the Indonesian context.

The sampling is a *nested concurrent* which "involves quantitative and qualitative data being collected approximately the same time (i.e., concurrently) but with the qualitative sample being a subset of the qualitative sample or vice versa" (Johnson & Christensen,

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[9] Indonesian Higher Educational Statistical Year 2018:
https://pddikti.kemdikbud.go.id/asset/data/publikasi/Statistik%20Pendidikan%20Tinggi%20Indonesia%202018.pdf
[10] The accreditation at Indonesian Higher Education system for a study programme has four different categories: A (very good), B (good), C (satisfactory) and D (unsatisfactory). See the description of Indonesian Higher Education system e.g. at https://www.nuffic.nl/en/publications/education-system-indonesia/

2014, p. 272). Dörnyei (2001) argues that motivation is dynamic and "Whatever form it takes, however, the motivating process is usually a long-term one" (p. 25); therefore, the students in this study are those who have learnt English at this programme for at least 2 semesters or one year. Undergraduate English programmes in Indonesia take four years; accordingly, student participants are those who study from years 2 to 4. To identify the MTS use and to measure student motivation the samples were students (*N*=232) and lecturers (*N*=30) who have taught the students in the programmes. The number of participants is shown in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5 The composition of survey sample in the main study

Institution	Lecturers	Students
1	17	157
2	7	44
3	6	31
Total	30	232

Three lecturers and their classes were observed to find out the actual MTS use, lecturers', and students' L2 use. The classes were selected based on Subjects or Modules that should use English more in speaking: 2 Speaking or Conversation classes and 1 Speech and Rhetoric class from three different institutions.

To compare lecturers' and students' preferences and use of MTS, and L2 use, lecturers were selected for individual lecturer interviews (*N*=4) and so were students for 4 student focus groups (*N*=12 students). Like the classroom observations, the lecturers were selected on the basis of courses they taught which allowed L2 use much in class e.g. L2 (English) Speaking course. For the student focus groups, one focus-group consists of 3 students with different levels of motivation. The students were selected on the basis of motivation level, representing both extreme and moderate case samples i.e., high, moderate and low motivation students from each institution. The selection of extreme cases was used because "they are potentially rich sources of information and then to compare them" (Johnson and Christensen, 2014, p. 270). In other words, the research was to collect data on variables investigated representing students at different level of motivation and to compare them rather than to gather the typical or average insights.

After conducting a student survey to 232 students, students with high, moderate and low motivation i.e., four for each degree of motivation were selected from 200 students (around 87% from total of participants) from 3 different institutions participated in the study. As about half of the participants were from Institution 1, two focus-groups were made up from the institution. The sample composition in the study is shown in *Figure 4.2* and the sample profile of qualitative data is presented next.

Figure 4.2 Research sample composition

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="6" style="text-align:center">S
A
M
P
L
E</td><td>Questionnaire:</td></tr>
<tr><td>30 lecturers and 323 students enrolled between years 2 and 4</td></tr>
<tr><td>Classroom observations:</td></tr>
<tr><td>3 classrooms (3 lecturers and ±100 students)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Interviews: 4 lecturers</td></tr>
<tr><td>Focus-groups: 12 students (4 groups)</td></tr>
</table>

Participants' profile of qualitative data collection

- **Lecturers**

Four lecturers were interviewed voluntarily from 3 different institutions as shown in Table 4.6 presenting the lecturers' profile and interviews data. As mentioned above the lecturers were selected on the basis of (1) courses where both lecturers and students are expected to use or speak L2 (English) more such as in Speaking course, in addition to that, the selection was based on (2) institution and (3) sample size of students. There was one lecturer from one institution and two lecturers from the institution whose sample students were far more than the other two (about half of the total sample). Two lecturers were teaching Speaking courses during the semester when data were collected while the other two were teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP) and Discourse Analysis (DA) respectively.

Table 4.6 Lecturers' profile and interviews data

Lecturers	Sex	Teaching Experience	Qualification	Institution Number	Courses	Date of Interview	Duration of Interview
L01	F	7 years	Masters	1	ESP	09/11/2017	13 minutes 14 seconds
L02	M	10 years	Masters	1	Speaking	15/11/2017	20 minutes 41 seconds
L03	F	10 years	Masters	2	Speaking	14/11/2017	09 minutes 43 seconds
L04	M	20 years	Doctor	3	DA	09/11/2017	15 minutes 23 seconds

All lecturers were interviewed after they participated in questionnaires on MTS for lecturers and classroom observation had been conducted. It was expected that firstly the performance of the two Speaking courses lecturers' behaviours and teaching styles were not influenced by the interview questions during the classroom observations. Secondly, all lecturers would be aware about the questions regarding MTS in the interview. Because of this prior engagement, the lecturers would have been familiar with the purposes of the questions asking about their ways or techniques of teaching English in the classroom to boost student motivation and to encourage them to use L2. The variety of lecturers with the courses taught was intended to obtain a variety of input and give further insight to MTS, student motivation and L2 (English) use in the classroom.

- **Students**

The profile of the student focus-group participants is shown in Table 4.7 Students named from 1 to 12 and the order refers to the group interviewed, for example, Students 1,2,3 were in 1 group, 4,5,6 were in 1 group, etc.

Table 4.7 Student focus-group profile and data

Focus Group (FG)	Students	Age (years)	Sex	Years of Learning English	Institution	Semester	Level of Motivation	Date of Focus Group	Duration of Focus Group
01	S1	21	F	16		5	High		
	S2	20	F	14	1	3	Low	15/11/2017	25 minutes 44 seconds
	S3	20	F	12		5	Moderate		
02	S4	20	M	14		7	Low		
	S5	19	F	10	1	3	High	15/11/2017	19 minutes 23 seconds
	S6	19	F	11		5	Moderate		
03	S7	20	F	8		3	Low		
	S8	19	F	14	2	3	Moderate	15/11/2017	17 minutes 47 seconds
	S9	19	F	12		3	High		
04	S10	20	M	11		3	Moderate		
	S11	19	M	13	3	3	Low	16/11/2017	22 minutes 14 seconds
	S12	21	M	11.5		5	High		

4.6 Method of analysis

4.6.1 Statistical analysis of quantitative data

The quantitative data were analyzed using statistical software SPSS version 24. Descriptive statistics e.g. maximum, minimum, means, frequencies, and standard deviation, were performed. Factor analysis was conducted before calculating the internal reliability of the student motivation dimensions. The purpose of the factor analysis in this study was to identify interrelationships between variables in the data set (Allen, Bennett & Heritage, 2014) which is often known as *exploratory factor analysis* (Pallant, 2020). Then, descriptive statistics, means (and standard deviation) was run to find out how the students were motivated which was to answer RQ1.

Lecturers' and students' perceptions on frequency use of MTS were analysed using descriptive statistics and *t*-test to answer RQ2. The normal distribution of quantitative data, first, was tested by using parametric procedures. If the distribution was not normal, then, a non-parametric procedure needs to be carried out (Elliot & Woodward, 2011). The means and standard deviations of lecturers' and students' perceptions on MTS frequency use were compared. Mann-Whitney test would be an alternative if the distribution of raw data was not normal. The rankings of MTS on the lecturers' and students' perceptions were also compared by using descriptive analysis (mean and standard deviation). Then, the variables were measured according to the levels designed (e.g. Lecturer MTS frequency use: five approximately equal (ordinal-level) categories i.e., 'never/rarely used', 'occasionally used', 'sometimes used', 'often used' and 'frequently used').

The associations between: (1) MTS use and student motivation variables, (2) MTS and L2 use variables, and (3) student motivation and L2 use variables were measured by using Pearson correlation test to answer RQs 3 & 4. Spearman's rank correlation would be an alternative if the raw data distribution was not normal. In addition, to compare lecturers' and students' perceptions on MTS and L2 use to the actual use of the variables in the classroom observations to answer sub RQs 2 and 4. Data obtained from classroom observations were entered in an Excel spreadsheet Microsoft office 365 version 10 and calculated in the spreadsheet.

4.6.2 Thematic analysis of qualitative data

Data of lecturer MTS gained from the interview and focus groups were analysed to answer all RQs. First all qualitative data was transcribed. The transcriptions were sent to the participants for confirmation of accuracies and any misunderstanding or errors. Data were analysed qualitatively using software NVivo 12. Thematic analysis was used for the qualitative data process. After the transcription, the data was imported into Nvivo software 12. Then, the raw data was processed as an analytic organization into themes by coding. Qualitative coding of this data used multiple cycles of reading and examining the data. The data were coded by naming the group of similar ideas called themes that were used to interpret the data. This process followed Baralt's arguments (2012) pertaining L2 learning:

> Qualitative coding is inherently more interpretative. It is a process of
> delineating the nature of a phenomenon by continuous interaction with and

re-reading of the data. By comparing and contrasting themes and stopping often to reflect and ask questions, the researcher discovers patterns in the data. In many cases, qualitative coding is congruous with building explanations and even with generating theory. This is why qualitative analysis is often called "rich" and "deep," because it reveals a much more detailed and complex picture about the human experience of language learning that a mathematical procedure would not be able to reveal. (p. 223).

In other words, data from interviews and focus groups were coded, developed into themes, highlighted the relationship, differences, patterns, and interpreted. Lecturers' and students' data coding from interviews and focus groups were also compared and contrasted.

- **The coding system**

Data gained from lecturers' interviews and students' focus groups used (1) a theoretical or deductive approach or top down way of thematic analysis and (2) an inductive thematic analysis. The deployment of the latter is explained below. A theoretical thematic analysis "would tend to be driven by the researcher's theoretical or analytical interest in the area, and thus more explicitly analyst driven" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). In other words, the coding process was conducted through the questions evolved from the research questions particularly which related to MTS to learn—a deductive approach. Coding was developed into themes by using the list of macro strategies and motivational strategies in the language classroom (Dörnyei, 2001a, pp. 137-144; see Appendix C listing 35 macro strategies and 102 strategies).

Inductive thematic analysis is 'data driven' and was also used in the coding process particularly if data did not fit into any of " pre-existing coding frame" (Braun & Clarke, 2008, p. 83) which had been set corresponding to questions. This also helped to raise particular findings which probably are only specific to the context of the study. In other words, the analyses were started with deductive and then, on subsequent readings, the data were also looked at for new coded i.e., a more inductive approach. Data were analysed with coding in English, but the data remained in the Indonesian language. However, the findings for analysis were then translated into English, first by the

researcher, i.e., all citations which contain the themes. The translation was checked by an Indonesian PhD student who had similar research interest. The themes were relatively clear and indicated in the data which remained in Indonesian. In addition, coding was also checked by a second coder. This is to ensure that coding is valid and reliable.

The codes were adjusted, recoded, and underwent an immersive process. For example, initially there were thirteen main themes of MTS (see Table 1 Appendix D) i.e., macrostrategies without including the four dimensions in which these were rooted, with 21 sub-themes for MTS to learn English; but in the final codes, they became seven main themes categorized in four dimensions of MTS with 16 sub-themes (see Table 2 Appendix D). For example, theme 1, i.e., *take students' learning seriously* in the first version then was recoded into *creating supportive atmosphere* theme and *valuing L2 learning* as the sub-theme in the final one. This was to ensure that data had the most relevant interpretation referring to the framework used in the study.

4.7 Ethical consideration

Regarding an ethical or moral obligation, it is claimed that "researchers must ensure the rights, privacy, and welfare of the people and communities that form the focus of their studies" (Berg, 2007, p. 53). After the ethics were carefully considered and approved by the Ethics Committee of the university, the researcher started piloting instruments that involved participants. *Informed consent* and *confidentiality protection* are the most fundamental principles of ethical research (Angrosino, 2012, p. 167). Berg (2007) defines *informed consent* as "the knowing consent of individuals to participate as an exercise of their choice, free from element of fraud, deceit, duress, or similar unfair inducement or manipulation" (p. 78). Therefore, voluntary was informed to the participants, their participation was kept anonymous and the information given was protected confidentially by coding all the data taken. The participants were allowed to opt out of the research and there was no consequence of data collection. All these issues were mentioned in the consent form agreements and were also applied to the institution where the study was undertaken (see the consent forms in the Appendix E).

4.8 Pilot study

This section of methodology chapter reports the procedure and results of the pilot study. Gillham (2000) postulates that a pilot study should involve the same people from similar backgrounds to the ones participating in the main study, though fewer in number. A pilot should also test all the instruments used; therefore, all the instruments used in this study were piloted in October 2017 in Indonesia, with 37 students, 4 lecturers, 1 classroom (*N*=30 students, 1 lecturer) from one Indonesian private HE institution which was similar to the one in the main study, to ensure all instruments used (questionnaires, interview schedules and classroom observation schedules) are valid, reliable and feasible to fill in within the space of time given.

Regarding wording and ambiguities, there was a pre-piloting stage: the instruments had been given to and completed by 7 postgraduate Indonesian students at York University, UK, to find out if the participants could understand and complete them without any difficulty. In fact, modification was made after this pre-piloting stage particularly regarding translation of some items. For example, 2 statements were repeated, and one was missing. 'Lecturer' was firstly translated as 'guru' in Indonesian which literally refers to teachers in schools (basic education) then translated into 'dosen' referring to lecturer in higher education or university.

In piloting methods, the students and lecturers participants were informed about the study and given consent forms before participating in the pilot study. Thirty seven students and 4 lecturers completed questionnaires, 1 student focus-group (*N*=3) and 1 lecturer were interviewed and another group of students with the lecturer (1 class) was observed to test all the instruments in the study. The order of piloting the instruments is discussed below.

4.8.1 MTS questionnaire

Neither lecturers nor students had any difficulty in answering the questionnaire in terms of instructions, and constructions of the questionnaire. They did not find any ambiguities in the questionnaire by not writing any comments in the spaces provided (in the students') or asking questions when opportunities were given to them (lecturers and students). The lecturers' MTS questionnaire was given to 4 Indonesian HE EFL lecturers to identify the MTS according to the degree of the frequency they use them in the classroom. Similarly, for student data, one class of Indonesian HE EFL students (*N*=37) filled in the MTS

questionnaire according to the frequency their lecturers use them on students' MTS questionnaire.

Twelve MTS resulted from the constructions of the questionnaire and they were identified according to the frequency used and measured on a five-point Likert-scale (never/rarely used (0%-20%)-frequently used (81%-100%) as mentioned above. The MTS questionnaire was later modified according to the results of classroom observations as the strategies listed in the classroom observation schedule had been designed compatible to those in the questionnaire. Due to availability and timetable of classes, piloting classroom observation schedules was conducted after the MTS questionnaire. Then, the results of the MTS in the classroom observations were compared to those in the questionnaires. The strategies for teaching practice that were not evident during the classroom observations in the pilot were excluded or eliminated from the schedule.

As a reminder, the study investigated the perceptions and the actual use of the strategies; therefore, the instruments for both survey and classroom observations should be compatible or measure similar strategies and only strategies which were evident in the classroom practice were included in the instruments. Then, six strategies were deleted from the questionnaire and the schedule as well. The number of strategies decreased from 12 to 6 (Please see the questionnaires for lecturers and students in Appendix F).

4.8.2 Student motivation questionnaire

The student motivation questionnaire was administered to one class of Indonesian HE EFL students (N=37) to check for ambiguities by providing a few lines for students to give comments if they had problems or difficulties in understanding the words and complete the questionnaire. This was to ensure if the words were clear and concise, so the participants would find no ambiguities or difficulties in doing them in the main study.

Some students commented that some questions were similar or repeated. Therefore, face validity (Fink, 2010) was conducted to make a concise instrument i.e. similar (group) items were identified and only one (group) matching item(s) was retained. For example: *I wish we spoke English more in the classroom* was similar to *I like it when we use English in the classroom.* This made the number of items went down to 42 of the six groups of motivation dimensions as shown below (see the items in Appendix A):

1. **Own Ideal L2 Self**: English learners' image of their own ideal English users in the future (4 items).

2. **Other Ideal L2 Self**: what others wish on learners as an ideal image of English users (9 items).

3. **Own Ought-to L2 Self**: what English learners demand on themselves of attributes they should or ought to possess in the future (6 items).

4. **Other Ought-to L2 Self**: what others demand on learners of attributes the learners should or ought to possess (9 items).

5. **English Learning Experience**: related to English learning situations and experience comprising learning materials, lecturers, and classroom atmosphere (9 items).

6. **Linguistic Self-Confidence**: the amount of learner's confidence in learning English (5 items).

4.8.3 L2 use questionnaire

Similarly, L2 questionnaires for both lecturers and students constructed in the instrument was also administered to Indonesian HE EFL lecturers (*N*=4) and students (*N*=37) to check for ambiguities. Both lecturers and students were asked to estimate roughly the L2 use of each party in percentage in one lesson. The estimated L2 use in class of speaking time by both lecturers and students could total less than 100%. The instructions of how to complete this questionnaire and an example were given to assist the lecturers and students in doing the questionnaire. In addition, the researcher explained how to do the questionnaire and answered the lecturers and students participants questions. The students participants were also given opportunities to write comments about the questionnaire in a space provided at the end, about the items covered or filling in the questionnaire. Students made no comments relating to the wording, ordering and ambiguities of the questionnaires. This was probably due to the pre- piloting phase. The modification after this phase helped the participants to understand the wording and respond to statements.

4.8.4 Lecturer interview and student focus-group schedules

Lecturer interview and student focus-group schedules were also piloted to find out whether the wording and meaning were understood by lecturers and students. One of the lecturers participating in the questionnaire and teaching a Speaking class was interviewed. This way of selecting the lecturer participant for the interview was chosen to ensure that the lecturer was aware of what the questions would be about and able to express MTS and L2 use in class. Then, at the end of the interview the lecturer was asked if she could

understand all the questions and whether she had something to ask about. The lecturer found no difficulties in answering these questions.

Then, 3 students involved in the focus group were selected by the lecturer, to present students with estimated high, medium and low motivation in learning English based on the lecturer's opinion i.e., engagement in the classroom activities and exam results. These students were from a Speaking class and did not participate in the questionnaire beforehand. The purpose was to find out if the students were able to answer the questions without being influenced by the questionnaire and to be able to explore the use of L2 in class. The students were interviewed and asked if they had difficulties in understanding the questions. They reported no difficulties and actively answered all the questions by taking turns. As a result, both lecturer interview and student focus-group schedules had no modification, nor any questions deleted for the main study.

4.8.5 Classroom observation schedules

Before conducting classroom observations, the classroom observation schedules were piloted in one classroom (*N*=30) of one Indonesian HE EFL context which was like that of the main study. This was to find out if the instruments were workable and would give data needed. In piloting the MTS use, 6 strategies (*Highlighting the role that the English plays in the world, Encouraging students to help one another, Offering reward (e.g. additional mark, less assignment, etc.), Giving opportunities to express the student's personal experiences, Encouraging self or peer correction: mistakes or work,* and *Praising (e.g. congratulations on your excellent results, you are so good, etc.)* were not applied by the lecturer during the class observations. The schedule for the main study was modified by deleting these strategies as they were not evident in the classroom practice. In other words, to investigate the actual use of MTS, only strategies that were found to be evident in the classroom practice were included in the schedule.

In addition, the L2 use classroom observation schedule was found not compatible enough to the L2 use questionnaires for both lecturers and students and was unable to gather data of how much lecturers and students use L2 precisely with the instrument. The schedule was only possible to be used to collect how much L2 was used in every minute by both lecturers and students altogether but not how much each party used L2 in every minute. It would be impossible to calculate L2 use by either lecturers and students, since the time

used to speak English by lecturers' was overlapped with the students or the exact time of L2 use of each group i.e., lecturers and students was unclear, and relate the amount of L2 use in the classroom observations to the lecturers' and students' views of it on the L2 questionnaires. Therefore, the schedule was modified for the main study to obtain lecturers' and students' use of L2 in every second rather than in every minute of one lesson. Table 4.8 shows a summary of instruments piloted, and modifications were applicable subsequently.

Table 4.8 Summary of instruments piloted

No	Instruments	Date	Participants	Results
1.	MTS, developed from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's MOLT, classroom observation schedule, (2008)	October 2017	Lecturers = 4; Students = 37	Six strategies were deleted following the results of classroom observations. No ambiguities.
2.	Student motivation dimensions, modified from Papi & Abdollahzadeh's questionnaire (2012) by focusing on Lanvers' argument of Other Self (2016) and using wording from Kubanyiouva's questionnaire (2006) for Learning Experience items group.	October 2017	Students = 37	Similar items were identified and only one matching item was retained. The number of items decreased from 60 to 42.
3.	L2 Use questionnaire, developed for the current study.	October 2017	Lecturers = 4; Students = 37	No ambiguities.
4.	Lecturer interview schedule, developed for the current study,	October 2017	Lecturer = 1	No ambiguities.
5.	Student Focus groups schedule, developed compatibly to the lecturer interview.	October 2017	Students = 3	No ambiguities.
6.	Classroom observation schedules: a. MTS, modified from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's MOLT (2008); b. L2 use, developed to record the degree of both lecturers' and students' L2 use per minute.	November 2017	1 class (N = 30)	Six strategies were deleted as being not applicable to the context of the study. L2 use schedule was altered to record L2 use either by lecturer or students every second per minute to be more compatible to the L2 questionnaire

4.9 Summary

This chapter has highlighted the research framework, what methods used to answer the research questions, the research setting, sample, instruments development, i.e.,

questionnaires, classroom observation schedules, interview and focus-group schedules and data analysis. The procedures conducted, including ethical considerations, were also discussed. The results of pilot study have been reported and discussed in the end. Further details and results of both quantitative and qualitative findings and analysis are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5
Results

5.1 Introduction

As explained in the previous chapter, this study applied a mixed method with concurrent triangulation. Therefore, this chapter triangulates the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data related to the four research questions. The presentation begins with factor analysis to validate the student motivation dimension questionnaire. Next, data are presented with descriptive analysis before using quantitative tools required and triangulated with qualitative data analysis to answer all (four) research questions . The results, then, were informed by data collected from both lecturers and students in HE EFL classrooms. Examining the questions from both lecturers and students is important as previous studies have revealed that there were significant mismatches between lecturers/teachers' and students' perceptions (e.g. Walker, 2016; Ruesch, et al., 2012) on MTS use.

The research investigated the relationships between (1) perceived frequency use of motivational teaching strategies (MTS) and student motivation, (2) perceived frequency use of MTS and foreign language (L2) use in HE EFL classrooms, and (3) perceived lecturers and students' L2 use. Data was collected between October and November 2017. MTS 6-item questionnaire explored the frequency use of MTS perceived both by lecturers and students, a 42-item questionnaire (before conducting factor analysis) was used to examine individual student's motivation, and a two-item questionnaire of L2 use aimed at investigating L2 use by both lecturers and student in the classroom perceived by both parties as well.

For qualitative data, thematic codes and descriptions of themes are presented. The analysis of findings is presented according to the results of the interviews for lecturers and student focus-groups of the questions (see section 4.4.2) used as a reference of themes covered. The perceptions on the most useful of MTS (to learn and to use L2) by lecturers and students based on the frequency mentioned of the themes are presented and analysed to establish how the degree of similarity between the groups in this respect. The students'

preferences of strategies based on their level of motivation, additional and related findings (themes) to MTS are also presented and analysed.

5.2 Factor analysis

To find how the population was motivated to learn English using the L2MSS comprising the four domains of self (Own ideal/ought-to and Other ideal/ought-to L2 selves), English learning experience and Linguistic self-confidence dimensions, factor analysis using Maximum Likehood method with direct oblique rotation (oblimin) was run to validate the questionnaire before checking the reliability and conducting statistical analysis to answer RQ1.

Exploratory factor analysis was used to identify factors or clusters of 42 item-questionnaire of L2 motivation. The items with 232 cases of sample size in the main study were analysed using SPSS version 24. After data screening for outliers, the matrix of correlation coefficients of all possible pairing variables was inspected i.e., variable which had no substantial correlation ($r < .3$) or possessed the highly undesirable property of multicollinearity/very high correlations ($r > .8$) with the other variable should be discarded (Field, 2014; Kinnear & Gray, 2009). Following the inspection, 6 items which fell into the former (none into the latter) were removed and the total items decreased to 36.

The results of factor analysis showed that Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was meritorious (.839) which supported the factorability of these data (Field, 2014). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 3177.860$; $p < .05$) indicated that there were sufficient correlations among the variables; therefore, these data were acceptable for factor analysis (Pallant, 2020). The factors extracted was based on eigenvalues greater than one, the scree plot, factor loadings above .30 and exclude cases with missing values. Items with cross-loadings or low communalities were removed. The results showed that all (six) dimensions of motivation emerged in *Figure 5.1* with eigenvalues greater than one and 63.77% of variance. Using the criteria of the factors extracted above, 15 items were removed from 36 items.
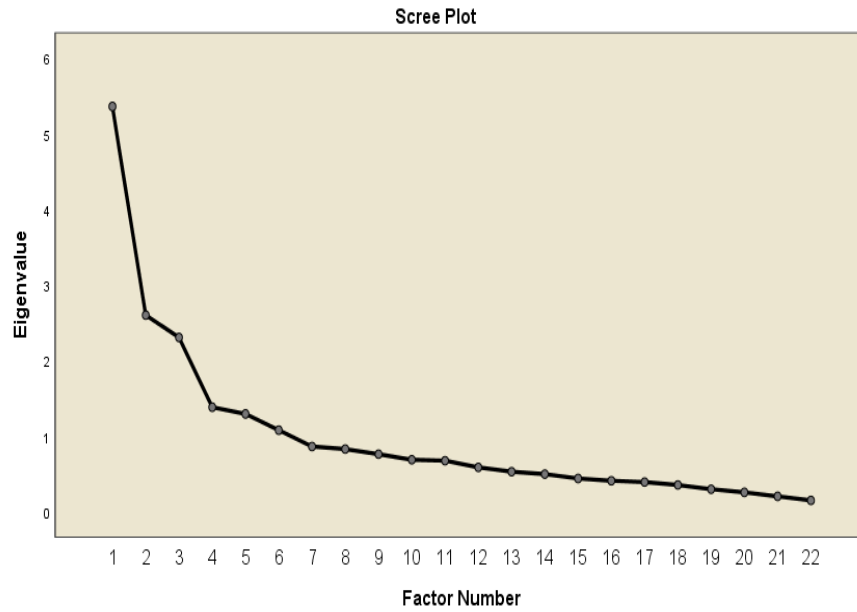
Figure 5.1 Scree plot for emerged factors of L2 motivation

The items for the six factors can be seen in the factor matrix presented in Table 5.1. Factor 1 represents Own Ideal L2 (English) self, (two items); factor 2, illustrates Other Ideal L2 self (four items); factor 3 English Learning Experience (seven items); factors 4 and 5 Other ought-to L2 self and Linguistic Self-confidence (three items for each dimension); and factor 6 Own ought-to L2 self (two items).

Table 5.1 Factor matrix of exploratory factor analysis results of L2 motivation

Item with its number	Factor Matrix					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Own Ideal English Self-13	1.017					
Own Ideal English Self-14	.453					
Other Ideal English Self-63		.958				
Other Ideal English Self-64		.838				
Other Ideal English Self-62		.788				
Other Ideal English Self-43		.404				
English Learning Experience-49			.786			
English Learning Experience -28			.701			
English Learning Experience -29			.663			
English Learning Experience -70			.562			
English Learning Experience -68			.520			
English Learning Experience-32			.515			
English Learning Experience-69			.447			
Other Ought-to English Self-38				-.859		
Other Ought-to English Self-37				-.844		
Other Ought-to English Self-56				-.559		
Linguistic Self-Confidence-71					.781	
Linguistic Self-Confidence-52					.439	
Linguistic Self-Confidence-72					.429	
Other Ideal English Self-44						
Own Ought-to English Self-41						.638
Own Ought-to English Self-34						.578
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.						
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.[a]						
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.						

Then, the internal consistency (α) of the questionnaire items of each factor or dimension above was calculated. Table 5.2 illustrates that the Cronbach's alpha in Other Ideal English Self, Other Ought-to English Self and English Learning Experience are .84, .82 and .80 respectively, and in Own Ideal English Self, Linguistic Self-confidence and Own Ought-to English Self are .66, .65 and .61 respectively indicating acceptable to a very good level of reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Table 5.2 Reliability internal consistency (α) of motivational dimensions questionnaire

Name of Dimensions	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha Score (α)
Own Ideal English Self	2	.66
Other Ideal English Self	4	.84
English Learning Experience	7	.80
Other Ought-to English Self	3	.82
Linguistic Self-confidence	3	.65
Own Ought-to English Self	2	.61

5.3 Research question 1

What is the motivational orientation in terms of L2MSS among Indonesian EFL students in the classroom?

5.3.1 Quantitative findings

Descriptive statistics and comparative analyses were used to analyse how all motivational dimensions contributed to students' motivation. The degree of importance of all motivational dimensions in relation to students' motivation was analysed by computing the mean scores and the standard deviations. The mean scores were computed to indicate how were students motivated and which motivational dimensions had high or low scores comparatively, suggesting important or less important.

The results of the mean scores and standard deviations are presented in Table 5.3. below. The mean scores and the standard deviations of all motivational dimensions were relatively equally high and low respectively; mean scores were between 5.49 and 4.71 while standard deviations were between 1.04 and .56 suggesting that all motivation dimensions were important to motivate students in learning English and there was no significant variation among the participants regarding their self-reported scores of motivational dimensions.

All motivational dimensions, Own and Other Ideal/Ought-to L2 (English) Self, English Learning Experience and Linguistics Self-Confidence motivational dimensions were important and had high mean scores (between 5.49 and 4.53). The Own Ought-to L2 self

had the highest mean score (5.49) followed by Linguistics Self-Confidence (5.21) suggesting that the students seem to be most highly motivated by their own perceptions towards L2 (English) and skills that they need to possess that allow them to achieve their goals in the future and by their confidence to learn English. English Learning Experience's relatively high mean score suggests that the students seemed to be similarly highly motivated by conditions of their classroom environment. Overall, the 6 dimensions of motivation show that students seem to have relatively high motivation to learn English. The means suggest that the students appear relatively similarly influenced by Self-motivation and Others. This also may indicate that the students' motivation is generally affected by their learning experience and confidence.

Table 5.3 Mean scores and *std. deviation* of motivational dimensions

Motivational Dimensions	*M*	*SD*
Own Ideal English Self	4.86	.85
Other Ideal English Self	4.83	.81
English Learning Experience	4.53	.70
Other Ought-to English Self	4.71	1.04
Linguistic Self-Confidence	5.21	.56
Own Ought-to English Self	5.49	.65

5.3.2 Qualitative findings

This section presents the themes related to student motivation i.e. MTS to learn and usefulness of English. The student preferences of MTS to learn based on the level of motivation was reviewed to find how the students were motivated to learn in the classroom learning experience. The notion of usefulness of English was included to investigate the students' learning goals and student self vision relating to their L2 ideal and ought-to selves of motivation. The section also includes perceptions of lecturers and students on the usefulness of English as lectures and peers or friends are significant *others* influencing student motivation in the classroom. Obviously, the qualitative findings relate to the *L2 classroom experience* dimension on L2 motivation where MTSs were practiced motivating students to learn. However, the findings on MTS and usefulness of English also relate the other components of L2 motivation in this study i.e. Own/Other Ideal/Ought-to selves and Linguistic self-confidence.

The themes found from qualitative data, thematic codes for MTS, motivation and L2 use (topic) are given in Tables 2 and 3 (see Appendix D). Coding for *MTS to learn* primarily based on the macro strategies and strategies for both themes and sub-themes in the language classroom (Dörnyei, 2001a, pp. 137-144 see Appendix C). This coding system used the concepts followed in this study meaning that the themes found were related to the concepts.

The main themes for MTS to learn are under the dimensions of motivational teaching practice in the classroom: *Creating basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation* and *encouraging positive self-evaluation* (Dörnyei, 2001a) with strategies covered and revealed in the study. The main themes were put into groups under the teaching strategy dimensions and their sections/macro strategies, they belong to Table 2 (Appendix D) showing that some macro strategies are numbered (if more than one) under the dimensions and so are the strategies corresponding to them on the right. However, *MTS to use L2* and the rest of the topic not related to the concepts were coded inductively. Sub-themes and examples mentioned by students, lecturers and both lecturers and students are coloured.

5.3.2.1 Themes of MTS to learn English

MTS to learn English refers to teaching strategies used by lecturers to motivate students to learn English at Indonesian HE EFL classrooms. There are seven main themes and their sub-themes described perceived either by each or both groups: lecturers and students. Themes are underlined in the examples below.

- **Theme 1: Creating Supportive Atmosphere: *Humour* and *Accepting Mistakes***

Creating supportive atmosphere is the macro strategy of the first motivational dimension found in the study which includes *humour* and *accepting mistakes*. The students and the lecturer said:

> Yes, lecturer can have humour while teaching so the students would not feel anxious. (FG04/S10)(HUM)

> Lecturer should also encourage humour, so the students will be interested in the lesson taught. (FG04/S11)(HUM)

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[…] The lecturer says: 'You come here to waste your money if you do not speak in English. You should say something in English <u>whether it is wrong grammatically or in the other way</u>. It is important if you speak in English'. (FG01/S2)(MIS)

-

I think <u>we should not underestimate the students if they make mistakes</u> but encourage them by saying: 'It's okay if you make mistakes in English'. (L04)(MIS)

- **Theme 2: Promoting Group Cohesiveness:** *Pair* or *Group Work*

The second part of the theme in motivating students relating to conditions of the learning process included in the *promoting and group cohesiveness* macro-strategy is *pair* or *group work*. A lecturer mentioned that putting learners in pair or group work would generate their interest in participation. He pointed out that learners would interact and motivate each other when working as a group. He responded:

> I hope that <u>students learn not only individually but also in a team.</u> They can learn and practise together. Good students would influence those with lower skills and motivation to better themselves in such areas (L02)(GW).

A student also mentioned that:

> […] <u>working in a group</u>, having a debate in English, (or) an English club is an option. The students can practise speaking English. If one wants to borrow something, for example, s/he needs to use English to practise the language. (FG03/S8)(GW)

- **Theme 3: Demonstrating behavioural example:** *Rapport*, *Enthusiasm in Teaching & Valuing L2 Learning*

The lecturers' behaviours were also viewed motivating in learning English pertaining to *rapport, enthusiasm in teaching* and *valuing L2 learning*. *Rapport* refers to good relationships between lecturers and students; *enthusiasm in teaching* indicates lecturer's good performance in teaching; and *valuing L2 learning* deals with lecturer's positive attitude and experience of learning L2. The responses include:

[…] If they have questions and are reluctant to ask in the classroom, they can approach the lecturer outside the classroom. That is possible if there is good communication between the lecturer and the students (L04)(RAP).

I think, a lecturer should be energetic. For example, a lecturer should not sit all the time when teaching, that is not motivating enough, the lecturer should move actively in class instead. (FG04/S11)(ENTH)

I think, a lecturer should start off with a good presence, being energetic and a smile. (FG04/S12(ENTH)

I think, the lecturer often motivates us with motivating words and proverbs and share the experiences of success from being a student to becoming a lecturer today (FG04/S12)(VLU)

- **Theme 4: Promoting L2 Values:** *Contact with L2 Cultural Products and Speakers*, *Encouragement to Use L2, Importance of L2, L2 Use* **and** *Presenting Models*

Promoting L2 values is the main theme which belongs to the second phase of motivational teaching practice dimension(framework) i.e. generating initial motivation. This theme comprises the target language or L2 related values strategies including integrative and instrumental values. *Contact with cultural products* and *speakers* refer to the former and *encouragement to use L2, importance of L2* and *L2 use* refer to the latter. In addition, *presenting models* refers to a strategy that promotes the learner's language related values by presenting people that succeed in L2 learning. The claims include:

First, I encourage them to read texts in English such as English newspapers or magazines to improve their vocabulary. I also encourage them to practise their pronunciation skills by singing and listening to English songs as well as watching English movies on DVDs or You Tube. In this way, they need to learn and understand the movies without looking at the subtitles but focusing on the actions to improve their listening and pronunciation skills (L02)(PRO).

Secondly, I often encourage them (the students) <u>to interact with foreigners in this case native speakers of English</u> either on Facebook or face to face, meeting on the streets. I ask them <u>to speak with them in English</u> unreluctantly (L03)(SPK).

What motivates me to learn English first is that I think <u>if I can speak English well, I will have more opportunities to get a scholarship to study abroad</u> (FG04/S10)(IMP)

<u>The lecturers speak English in any course</u>. But some students cannot understand so the lecturers still use Indonesian. I think <u>it is better to speak English more than Indonesian to motivate the students to speak English</u> (FG03/S9)(USE)

<u>The lecturer gives examples of people: how they live, what they believe</u>. The lecturer motivates us asking 'Aren't you learning? Why is your English not good enough?' (FG01/S1)(MOD)

- **Theme 5: Building Students' Confidence:** *Attention to Abilities*

Attention to abilities refers to a strategy that builds a student's confidence by raising the student's awareness of their strength and abilities. This theme, and the next one, is under the third phase of the motivational dimension of teaching practice, macro-strategy *protecting and maintaining motivation*. The views include:

Then, I motivate them by saying that actually <u>English is not difficult to learn. It's easy. I said that to make the students have a concept that learning English is not difficult</u>. Then, I explained what it meant by that. After explanations, the students usually understand the concept (L03)(ABL)

- **Theme 6: Making Learning Enjoyable:** *Varying Tasks*

Varying tasks refers to teaching strategy that makes learning stimulating and enjoyable by designing various tasks as well as using different tools as possible. The response includes:

I often use a projector showing a video clip or videos for learning materials. The students are <u>enthusiastic about having such English materials which</u>

are then used for tasks. <u>Interesting activities also stimulate their enthusiasm to learn like discussions</u> (L02)(VTSK).

- **Theme 7: Encouraging Positive Self-Evaluation:** *Importance of Self-Evaluation* **and** *Offering Rewards*

Importance of self-evaluation and *offering rewards* are two strategies that belong to the last dimension of classroom motivational teaching dimension, macro-strategy *encouraging positive self-evaluation. Importance of self-evaluation* refers to strategy which encourage students to assess their learning themselves while *offering rewards* refers to strategy that rewards students for participation in the classroom activities or good learning performance. The claims include:

> Perhaps, there are many things to motivate us to learn. <u>When we are lazy (do not want to learn), we need to find out (the ways to learn). We can practise our pronunciation or revise the lesson. We can learn grammar, try to memorize new words every day, write them on a notebook and revise at home</u> (FG03/S7)(EVA).

It's the same with us. <u>The more we participate the better marks we get</u>. (FG02/S5)(RWD)

- **Usefulness of English**

Generally, lecturers and students perceived that English has an important role particularly as *a global language, language for work* and *language that is used in many fields*. They claimed:

> It's very important. We know that <u>English is a global language</u>. […] (L02)(GLO).

> […] <u>English is very important for work</u>, social life, education and many more. […] <u>In a country, where the majority of its people (at least 75%) can speak English, it is more possible to develop and get jobs compared to the one where the people cannot speak English</u> (FG04/12)(WORK).

> English is used in Education, Law and other fields which are very important (FG02/S4)(FLD)

5.3.2.2 Students' preferences of MTS in respect to their level of motivation

Students' preferences of MTS to learn English is shown in Table 5.4. The preferences of MTS were evaluated based on how many students mentioned them regardless of level of motivation, i.e., the top preferred MTS indicated by the greatest number of students coming first followed the second and so on. The student's number, referring to who mentioned the MTS and their level of motivation, high, moderate and low, was referred as H, M and L respectively. This reference also applies to MTS to use English in the next section.

It can be seen in Table 5.4 that six out of fourteen MTS preferred by students at any level of motivation: *contact with L2 cultural products* is on the top favoured by nine students followed by *L2 use* by eight students. Then*, varying tasks* and *importance of self-evaluation* were liked by four students each; and *humour* and *offering rewards* were favoured by three students each with high, moderate and low levels of motivation. Similarly, *presenting models* strategy was also preferred by three students but at high and moderate motivation level. This strategy was motivating the students to learn English. The response includes:

> […] What motivates me is that my classmates' (good) grades and ability to speak English in the classroom: why they can (achieve such things). If they can, I can. (Those) classmates motivate me to learn and to speak English (FG03/S9)(MOD).

This suggests that the students with high and moderate motivation perhaps needed models or people who succeeded in learning English and lives to lift up their motivation. The students might perceive that real models of successful people in English such as peers/friends and life with English such as thinking about the reason for learning English for their future would motivate them to use the language more be inspired to be like the models. This shows that the students seemed to be motivated by others (Other Ideal and Ought-to) to boost their own motivation (Own Ideal and Ought-to) to learn the language. By looking at the people, the students with high and moderate motivation would perhaps be self-motivated and able to use the language either spontaneously or independently.

Next, *enthusiasm in teaching, importance of L2, valuing L2 learning*, and *attention to abilities* were favoured by two students each at various levels of motivation. High and

low motivation students were also motivated to learn English by the performance or *enthusiasm of teaching* of their lecturers. Then, the *importance of L2* and *attention to abilities* relating to Own Ideal and Linguistic self-confidence respectively were described as motivating by moderately and low motivated students. The views include:

> (What motivates me to learn English) Thinking about the cause (reason), why we want to learn English. Is it relevant to the future goal? Is it useful for the future? (FG02/S4)(IMP).

> We need <u>to participate more, ask questions or give suggestions</u> to the lecturers or classmates in a presentation (FG01/S02)(ABL).

Table 5.4 Students' preferences of MTS to learn English based on level of motivation

No.	MTS to learn English	Students	
		Number of students who mentioned the MTS	Students and level of motivation
1.	*Contact with L2 cultural products*	9	S1H, S3M, S6M, S7M, S8M, S9H, S10M, S11L, S12H
2.	*L2 use*	8	S1H, S3M, S6M, S7L, S8M, S9H, S10M, S11M
3.	*Varying tasks*	4	S1H, S3M, S4L, S6M
4.	*Importance of self-evaluation*	4	S1H, S4L, S6M, S7L
5.	*Humour*	3	S10M, S11L, S12H
6.	*Presenting role models*	3	S1H, S9H, S10M
7.	*Offering rewards*	3	S4L, S5H, S6M
8.	*Enthusiasm in teaching*	2	S11L, S12H
9.	*Importance of learning L2*	2	S4L, S10M
10.	*ValuingL2 learning*	2	S5H, S12H
11.	*Attention to abilities*	2	S2L, S8M
12.	*Pair or group work*	1	S8M
13.	*Encouragement to use L2*	1	S2L
14.	*Accepting mistakes*	1	S2L

The students with moderate and low motivation found that *importance of L2* in the future boosting their motivation to learn as this perhaps would give them clear directions or purposes to learn the language. Focusing on what they can do (to build self-confidence) also might help them to participate more in the classroom activities. Therefore, lecturers are expected to remind the students about their future goals and give opportunities for the students to explore their abilities in learning through questions and comments when learning to lift up their motivation. In relation to future goals, the students also claimed that English was useful for future employment. They also said that English was used in many professions and workplace. Therefore, it is important to know English in the midst of competition in the workforce. English is demanding in international trade, for example, according to the responses. The students mentioned:

> […] And one more thing, when applying for a job, preference will be for those who know English rather than those who don't. I believe this (FG04/S10)(WORK).

In contrast, the students with high levels of motivation were more interested in the process of learning the language rather than the goals. They claimed that *valuing L2 learning* (related to Other Ideal/Ought-to selves) was motivating for them to learn. They, for example, responded:

> […] The lecturer shares the experiences telling how he becomes smart (fluent in English) ma'am. It is not straightforward but there is a process. (FG02/S5)(VLU)

Thus, the lecturers could help the high motivation students to understand that success takes time and requires hard work. Support from lecturers, however, was needed by low motivation students to boost their motivation to learn English by using *encouragement to use L2* and *accepting mistakes* strategies in teaching. The low motivation students would perhaps feel motivated when their lecturers show their understanding of student language anxiety (*accepting mistakes*) and their *encouragement to use L2*. These strategies may boost the students with low degrees of motivation more effectively, as discussed by these groups of students, rather than those with high and moderate motivation. The students possibly were also more dependent on the lecturers' support to bring about the students' learning of L2 and sustain their use of the language, compared to those with high and moderate motivation, leading to success. These strategies were the least important

strategies for the students together with *pair or group work* preferred by one moderate motivation student, too.

5.3.2.3 Lecturers' and students' perceptions on usefulness of English

The four lecturers claimed that English is very useful in many aspects of our lives as the language of technology, social media, business and so on. Lecturers 01, 02 and 04 said that the use of English as global language and low proficiency in the language would also limit our capacity to explore places respectively. L01 further claimed that English was especially useful for work as many companies require its staff to be able to speak English. There would be, L02 gave examples, more opportunities to work in many different companies like in Embassies, NGOs (Non-profit Organizations), CSOs (Civil Society Organisations) and translators or interpreters if the students have competency and skills in English. The responses were:

> […] English is an international language (L01)(GLO). Many companies require the staff to use English either in speaking or writing (WORK).

> English is used to communicate when working overseas like in Asian regions. […] In short, English is required for communication when working overseas (L04)(WORK).

Similar to the lecturers' perceptions, most students viewed that English was useful as a global language which is used to communicate internationally. The students stated that English was very important to bring people together and to explore the other countries; connections become possible when people understand English. They also viewed that this language was useful for work. The responses were:

> I think English is a language to communicate with people from other countries. People learn English very much everywhere. If we go to Malaysia, for example, we need to speak English. So, I think, English is used for communication (FG03/S7)(GLO).

> The thing is ma'am, wherever we go English is required. We study overseas, excellent English is required. Working in hotels, banks, offices, as doctors and nurses in hospitals and so forth requires English. So, like it or not we have to learn English. If not, we will stay behind (FG01/2)(WORK).

Finally, some other students responded that English is useful as a language in many fields i.e., getting information, education, law, work, tourism, healthcare, food and so on. The students claimed that English is used widely, and they should be able to use the language otherwise they will lose good opportunities. The perceptions were:

> Communication. English is useful now for communication in many fields. For example, language for education, work in offices, banks, government or hospitals. Equipment, books and things related to those mentioned are in English. Especially in ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) these days, people from overseas come to Indonesia for medical care or tours using English. So, English is used widely in many fields (FG01/S1)(FLD).

The findings indicate that both lecturers and students understood that English was very useful particularly for the students' future career and success. In relation to this, the students' self vision of learning the language (L2 Own/Other Ideal/Ought-to selves) seemed to be relatively strong. However, the students' motivation to learn the language may have fluctuated depending on what happened in the classroom; for example, how frequently the lecturers had used the motivational strategies would have influenced the students' motivation and their engagement in learning in the classroom.

5.4 Research question 2

A. Which motivational teaching strategies do (a) lecturers and (b) students perceive to be most useful and frequently used in EFL classrooms? How do they compare?

B. How do lecturers' actual use of MTS in class compare to self-report of MTS (a) by themselves, and (b) by the students' in EFL classrooms?

5.4.1 Quantitative findings

The question relating to strategies perceived to be the most useful would be answered by using qualitative data while those concerning frequently used would be answered by both quantitative and qualitative data. The most useful strategies were only investigated qualitatively because qualitative data were expected to give more insights and relevant answers to this question in the context of the study. For the latter reason, it was hoped that the participants would relate the answers to their experiences. This would enrich

findings on the quantitative data which listed only certain strategies constructed in the questionnaire and evident in the classroom observations. Therefore, data relating to frequent use of strategies are discussed first. Then, the reported frequency of strategies is compared to their actual use collected by classroom observations before looking at the most useful strategies.

5.4.1.1 Descriptive statistics of reported MTS use

As discussed in Methodology Chapter, in the main study only 6 reported MTS frequency use were measured as only these strategies found in the pilot study to be evident in the classroom observations in the context of the study i.e., *having an informal chat, using humour, connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life, promoting contact with English and cultural products, pair work and group work*. Descriptive statistics for reported MTS use of all items and mean items were calculated and presented below.

- **Items of reported MTS use**

Descriptive statistics of the six MTS by lecturers and students can be seen in Table 5.5. There were 30 lecturers (teaching experience between 3 to 40 years, with a mean of 20.06), and 232 students (learning English in life between 6 to 19 years, M=12.32; SD=2.85) with 2 and 8 missing data for lecturers and students respectively (shown in Table 1, Case Processing Summary, Appendix B). Overall, the *Variance*, *SD, Minimum, Maximum* and *Range* for each group of items of reported MTS use show that there was more variability in the students' data than in the lecturers'.

The skewness and kurtosis of all items of reported MTS by lecturers and students use were reasonably close to zero, and z_s and z_k were within ± 1.96 for both lecturers and students, except for strategy *connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life,* assuming that data are normally distributed (Allen, et al., 2014). Table 5.5 below shows that lecturers and students have the largest and smallest difference at *group work* and c*onnecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life* strategies respectively.

Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics of reported frequency use of MTS

Lecturers/Students		Having an informal chat	Using humour	Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life	Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Pair work	Group work
Lecturers (N=28)	M	4.00	3.93	3.96	4.18	3.71	4.04
	SD	.82	.66	.92	.61	1.01	.79
	Minimum	2.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	1.00	3.00
	Maximum	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
	Range	3.00	2.00	4.00	2.00	4.00	2.00
	Variance	.64	.439	.85	.37	1.03	.63
	Kurtosis	-.24	-.535	3.21	-.25	.58	-1.37
	Skewness	-.44	.076	-1.45	-.10	-.75	-.066
Students (N=224)	M	3.58	3.29	3.55	3.68	3.13	3.97
	SD	.85	.74	.91	.89	1.05	.93
	Minimum	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Maximum	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
	Range	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
	Variance	.73	.541	.82	.79	1.10	.86
	Kurtosis	.31	-.019	-.38	-.11	-.49	.30
	Skewness	-.30	.361	-.34	-.47	.03	-.76

- **Mean reported of MTS use**

Like descriptive statistics of all items of reported MTS use above, the *Variance*, *SD, Minimum, Maximum* and *Range* for each group of mean reported MTS us in Table 5.6 show that in the students' data indicated more variability than that in the lecturers'. There was no missing data for each group. The skewness and kurtosis of mean reported MTS by lecturers and students were also reasonably close to zero, and z_s and z_k were within ± 1.96 for both lecturers and students assuming that data are normally distributed (Allen, Bennett & Heritage, 2014).

Table 5.6 Descriptive statistics of mean reported MTS use

Mean Reported MTS Use	Lecturers (N=30)	Students (N=232)
M	4.00	3.52
Variance	.25	.244
SD	.50	.49
Minimum	3.33	2.17
Maximum	5.00	5.00
Range	1.67	2.83
Skewness	.58	.03
Kurtosis	-.68	-.24

5.4.1.2 Normality tests

In order to make sure the correct tests are applied to the data, data was tested for normality of distribution (Leech, Barret & Morgan, 2012). The normality of the 6 reported MTS by the two groups (lecturers and students) were calculated first by using parametric tests in SPSS. Both normality tests of all items of reported MTS use and mean reported MTS use are included below.

- **Items of reported MTS use**

Preliminary assumption testing indicated in Table 5.7 that *p* value for each teaching strategy by either lecturers' or students' responses was below .05, confirming that data were not reasonably normally distributed. The histograms, Q-Q plots and boxplots of teaching strategies revealed that some of data were normally distributed and some were not (*Figure 1* in Appendix B), the summary of both lecturers' and students' data distribution according to histograms, normal Q-Q plots and boxplots are shown in Table 5.8 indicating the normality test results for the data.

Table 5.7 Normality tests of reported MTS use

Motivational Teaching Strategies	Lecturers/ Students	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	*df*	*Sig.*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
Having an informal chat	Lecturers	.250	28	.000	.851	28	.001
	Students	.224	224	.000	.868	224	.000
Using humour	Lecturers	.293	28	.000	.795	28	.000
	Students	.312	224	.000	.830	224	.000
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	Lecturers	.337	28	.000	.778	28	.000
	Students	.260	224	.000	.880	224	.000
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Lecturers	.329	28	.000	.767	28	.000
	Students	.275	224	.000	.871	224	.000
Pair work	Lecturers	.254	28	.000	.878	28	.004
	Students	.210	224	.000	.918	224	.000
Group work	Lecturers	.214	28	.002	.812	28	.000
	Students	.244	224	.000	.847	224	.000

Furthermore, *Figure 1*. (Appendix B) shows that lecturers and students data of items of reported MTS frequency by histograms, normal Q-Q plots and boxplots shows that some of data were not normally distributed e.g. data of *having informal chat* by lecturers were normally distributed by the two figures, however, data of the strategy by students was not

normally distributed by boxplot or the boxplot does not look symmetric. All data of strategies by both lecturers and students were normally distributed by normal Q-Q plots, while by histograms only data of *connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life* strategy by student were not normally distributed.

- **Mean reported MTS use**

The visual inspection on histograms, normal Q-Q plots and boxplots (*Figure 2*, Appendix B) show that data of "Lecturers" mean data of reported MTS use and "Students" mean data were approximately normally distributed. However, Test of normality (Table 5.8), the *Shapiro-Wilk*, below shows that *W* is .924 (*Sig* = .034) for the "Lecturers" mean data of reported MTS use, and .989 (*Sig* = .068) for the "Students" mean data, meaning that the "Lecturers" mean data was not normally distributed while the "Students" data was normally distributed. Therefore, non-parametric significance tests are used for both groups of data shown in section 5.4.1.5.

Table 5.8 Normality tests of mean reported MTS use

Lecturers/Students	*Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]*			*Shapiro-Wilk*		
	Statistic	*df*	*Sig.*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
Lecturers	.180	30	.014	.924	30	.034
Students	.073	232	.005	.989	232	.068

5.4.1.3 Means comparison of reported MTS use

To compare the frequency use of MTS reported by lecturers and students, an independent sample *t* test was used. Summary of descriptive statistics was also calculated simultaneously to find out how the groups differ. The results were shown in Tables 5.9. and 5.10. for items of reported MTS use below. In both Tables, it can be seen that there are significant differences between means for all the reported MTS use except for *group work*. In addition, *p* value for each of the reported MTS use were all >.001 (2 tailed), except for *using humour* and *pair work* (p<.001). This means that the working hypothesis stating that Lecturers' and students' appreciation of MTS will differ from lecturers and students' perceptions on MTS frequency use is accepted. This is also confirmed by another *t* test which measures the means between all means MTS use reported by the lecturers and the students. The results are shown in Tables 5.11 and 5.12 indicating that

p value of means of reported MTS use by lectures and students is <.001, two tailed. In other words, there are significant differences between lecturers and students on their perceptions of frequency use of MTS. Levene's test for mean reported MTS use (Table 5.12) was also significant, thus non equal variances can be assumed. The *t* test was statistically significant (Table 5.11), with the lecturers reported MTS use (*M*=4.00, *SD*=.50) more relatively frequent, 95% CI[.28, .66] than the students (*M*=3.52, *SD*=.49), *t*(260)=4.92, *p*<.001, two tailed.

Table 5.9 Means comparison of reported MTS use

| | *Group Statistics* | | | | |
	Lecturers/ Students	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*SE*
Having an informal chat	Lecturers	29	4.00	.80	.15
	Students	230	3.57	.85	.06
Using humour	Lecturers	30	3.97	.67	.12
	Students	230	3.29	.74	.05
Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life	Lecturers	30	4.00	.91	.17
	Students	232	3.53	.91	.06
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Lecturers	30	4.16	.65	.12
	Students	230	3.68	.89	.06
Pair work	Lecturers	30	3.77	1.01	.18
	Students	231	3.11	1.05	.07
Group work	Lecturers	29	4.07	.80	.15
	Students	231	3.98	.93	.06

Table 5.10 Independent sample *t* test of items of reported MTS use

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		T	*df*	*Sig. (2-tailed)*	*Mean Difference*	*Std. Error Difference*	*95% Confidence Interval of the Difference*	
							Lower	*Upper*
Having an informal chat	Equal variances assumed	2.55	257	.011	.43	.17	.10	.75
	Equal variances not assumed	2.68	36.45	.011	.43	.16	.10	.75
Using humour	Equal variances assumed	4.79	258	.000	.68	.14	.40	.96
	Equal variances not assumed	5.17	38.85	.000	.68	.13	.41	.95
Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life	Equal variances assumed	2.63	260	.009	.47	.18	.11	.81
	Equal variances not assumed	2.64	36.93	.012	.47	.18	.11	.82
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Equal variances assumed	2.90	258	.004	.48	.18	.15	.81
	Equal variances not assumed	3.67	44.55	.001	.48	.13	.22	.75
Pair work	Equal variances assumed	3.22	259	.001	.65	.20	.25	1.05
	Equal variances not assumed	3.33	37.74	.002	.65	.20	.26	1.05
Group work	Equal variances assumed	.50	258	.616	.09	.18	-.26	.45
	Equal variances not assumed	.57	38.21	.576	.09	.16	-.23	.42

Table 5.11 Group statistics of means of mean reported MTS use

	Lecturers/Students	N	Mean	SD	SE
Mean MTS	Lecturers	30	4.00	.50	.09
Use	Students	232	3.52	.50	.03

Table 5.12 Independent sample *t* test of mean reported MTS use

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.066	.798	4.92	260	.000	.47	.10	.28	.66
Equal variances not assumed			4.88	36.71	.000	.47	.10	.28	.67

5.4.1.4 Effect size

Cohen's *d* was used to measure the differences of the size sample (Allen, et al., 2014) of lecturers and students with the formula below:

$$d = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{S_p} \quad \text{where } S_p = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1-1)s_1^2 + (n_2-1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}$$

So:

$$S_p = \sqrt{\frac{(30-1)0.24946 + (232-1).24371}{30 + 232 - 2}}$$

$$S_p = \sqrt{\frac{7.23434 + 56.29701}{260}}$$

$$S_p = \sqrt{\frac{63.53135}{260}}$$

$$S_p = .49432$$

Then:

$$d = \frac{3.9989 - 3.5270}{.49432}$$

$$d = \frac{3.9989 - 3.5270}{.49432}$$

$$d = .95464$$

Cohen's d for the *t* test was 0.95, which can be described as large. According to Cohen (1988) "an effect size of *d* = .20 is considered small, d = .50 is medium, and d = .80 is large" (Allen, et al., 2014, p. 56). The difference is "large enough and consistent enough to be important" (Walker, 2008). Thus, the result suggests and confirms that there is a difference

between the reported frequency use of MTS of the lecturers and the students in HE EFL classrooms. Similarly, the effect size for each MTS use was calculated and the results were: .56 (Having an informal chat), .96 (Using humour), .51 (Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life), .62 (Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products), .63 (Pair work) and .63 (group work). The results also show that the effect size for each MTS was more than .5 meaning that there is difference between the reported frequency use of the MTS of the lecturers and the students in the study.

5.4.1.5 Reported frequency use of MTS according to lecturers and students

Since some data normally distributed and some other not as analysed above, Mann-Whitney Test, a Non-Parametric Test of MTS by lecturers and students, was run. The results in Table 2 (Appendix B) show that there are significant differences between lecturers' and students' responses on *having an informal chat* ($p < .010$)*, using humour* ($p < .001$)*, connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life* ($p = .003$)*, promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products* ($p = .004$)*, and *pair work* ($p = .001$); however, there is no significant difference only in one strategy i.e., *group work* ($p = .996$) perceived by the two groups. Lecturers had higher mean ranks than students on all teaching strategies, but very similar rank in teaching strategy 6 (Group work) (Table 3, Appendix B).

It was found, all the six motivational lecturer's strategies were rated as *often used* according to lecturers. *Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural contacts* was mentioned as the first strategy on the top (Mean score was 4.18), followed by *having an informal chat, group work* (Mean scores were 4.00 each), *connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life, using humour* (Mean scores were 3.96, and 3.93 respectively) and finally *pair work* (mean score was 3.71).

Similarly, students' responses (*N*=232) on the 6 teaching strategies were found motivating them in learning English in terms of the order of frequency use and this is similar to those perceived by the lecturers. However, g*roup work* was chosen to be the first on top the list of frequencies (mean was 3.97) followed by the rest of the strategies exactly in the same order as they were according to the lecturers' responses. In addition, the students rated the frequency use of these strategies as slightly different from the lecturers': lower, with mean

scores between 3.12 and 3.97. This may suggest that the students' perceptions of the frequency use of strategies were not as frequent as those by the lecturers. The lecturers might also view that the use of some strategies was quite frequent while the students did not think so. Perceptions of each group of participants on the frequency use of the MTSs were also ranked from the most frequent to the least shown in Table 5.13 below.

Table 5.13 Lecturer and student perceptions on MTS frequency use ranked from the most frequently used to the least.

Rank	Lecturer	Mean (*SD*)	Student	Mean (*SD*)
1	Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	4.18 (.61)	Group work	3.97 (.93)
2	Group work	4.04 (.79)	Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	3.68 (.89)
3	Having an informal chat	4.00 (.82)	Having an informal chat	3.58 (.85)
4	Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	3.96 (.92)	Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	3.55 (.91)
5	Using humour	3.93 (.66)	Using humour	3.29 (.74)
6	Pair work	3.71 (1.01)	Pair work	3.13 (1.05)

We can see in the table that most strategies were ranked similarly at the same places based on both groups' perceptions on their frequency use in the classroom. *Having informal chat, connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life, using humour* and *pair work* strategies were ordered from the 3rd to the 6th places according to the perceptions of both groups. However, *promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products* and *group work* strategies were ranked at the 1st and 2nd respectively according to the lecturers' perceptions while they were placed at the 2nd and the 1st respectively based on the students' opinions. The similar rank orders show that both lecturers and student had relatively similar perceptions on the frequency use of the strategies, however, the mismatch of perceptions between the two parties is important to take into considerations because if a practice of teaching strategy for the students was not sufficient to support students in learning, it might

have an impact on the students e.g. students' motivation, learning experience and their learning outcomes.

5.4.1.6 Comparison of lecturer's actual use of MTS in the classroom to self-report of MTS by themselves and by the students

Three classroom observations and lecturers' questionnaire of the use of MTS were used to answer research question 2 B. Data were collected after two to three times of the researcher's and her assistant's sitting in the classroom. The purpose was to gain as natural data as possible by making the lecturers and the students aware of the presence of the observer and her assistant. Three classes lasted for 90 minutes. The MTS use was recorded following the original classroom observation schedule (see MOLT in Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). The percentages use of MTS and L2 in one lesson were calculated on the basis of how may minutes and seconds they were used respectively divided by how long the class lasted and multiplied by 100%. Descriptive statistics was used to compare the actual use of MTS and L2 to the lecturers' opinion of their use of MTS and L2 use (analysis regarding the actual use of L2 is discussed in the final RQ).

The results of the actual MTS use, data regarding every lecturer's and student's self report of the use of MTS are presented in tables below. The presentations are first per classroom observations and second as per total of all participants, lecturers and students, in the classroom observations. As a reminder the frequency use of MTS was measured on a 5-scale rating: 1 = *never/not used* (0%-20%), 2 = *occasionally used* (21%-40%), 3 = *sometimes used* (41%-60%), 4 = *frequently used* (61%-80%) and 5 = *very frequently used* (81%-100%). The actual use of MTS was compared to the student perception use of the MTS per class, which was calculated by descriptive statistics with the mean scores for each lecturer. Descriptive statistics of MTS frequency use perceived students (N=13) in the classroom observation 1 is shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Descriptive statistics of MTS perceived by students in the classroom Observation 1

MTS	Students (N)	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Having an informal chat	13	3.00	5.00	3.85	.55
Using humour	13	3.00	5.00	3.85	.55
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	13	3.00	5.00	3.92	.64
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	13	3.00	5.00	4.00	.41
Pair work	13	1.00	5.00	3.40	1.12
Group work	13	3.00	5.00	3.70	.75
Valid N (listwise)	13				

The mean scores of the MTS use reported by students were, then, converted into the 5-scale rating using percentages as mentioned above to be compared to the lecturer self-report of his use of MTS and the actual use of the strategies in the class. The students reported that the MTS use was rated between *sometimes used* with means scores 3.40 (*pair work*) and *frequently used* with mean scores 3.60 above for the rest of MTS.

As a reminder the actual use of MTS was calculated by every minute each of strategy use or practice in the classroom. Then, the percentage of total time (minutes) of the teaching practice used in one lesson was calculated by the time the lesson lasted. Then the results were converted into scale of strategy use compatible to those in the questionnaire ranging as explained above to compare the reported use of such strategy to the actual one. The comparisons of observation in the classroom 1 are shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15 Comparisons of students' self report, lecturer's self report and the actual use of MTS by (Mean) scores: Lecturer 1, Classroom Observation 1

MTS	Student Self-Report	Lecturer's Self Report	Actual Use
Having an informal chat	3.85	4	1
Using humour	3.85	3	1
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	3.92	2	1
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	4.00	5	1
Pair work	3.40	4	1
Group work	3.70	4	1

In the classroom observation 1 (*N*=13), all the MTS actual use was below 20%, the lowest was *group work* at 0% and the highest was *pair work* at 17%, while the students reported that the use of MTS were *sometimes used* and *frequently used*. This suggests that this particular lecturer did not practise the MTS according to the frequency use perceived by the students or the observation in this class was unrepresentative. The result was different from that of the survey. Then, the lecturer personally rated that the use of MTS was between *occasionally used* and *very frequently used*. This also means that the lecturer had not been able to practise what he intended to probably to several issues such as inappropriate support from the institution or inadequate training pertaining to the implementation of the teaching strategy or practice.

Similarly, in the classroom observation 2, the students (*N* = 22) reported that the use of MTS was between *sometimes used* and *frequently used* as shown in Table 5.16. The mean scores were 2.86 (*pair work*), 3.18 (*connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life)* and 3.45 (*using humour*) rated as *sometimes used* and the rest of MTS had mean scores above 3.5 and above rated as *frequently used.* The difference with classroom 1 with the highest mean scores (3.96) is the *group work* strategy.

Table 5.16 Descriptive statistics of MTS perceived by students in the classroom Observation 2

MTS	Students (N)	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Having an informal chat	22	3.00	5.00	3.73	.63
Using humour	22	2.00	5.00	3.46	.67
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	22	2.00	5.00	3.18	.85
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	21	2.00	5.00	3.52	1.08
Pair work	22	1.00	5.00	2.86	.94
Group work	22	3.00	5.00	3.96	.65
Valid N (listwise)	21				

Like in the classroom observation 1, the actual use of MTS was mostly below 20% with the lowest at 0% (*having an informal chat, connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life, promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products* and *group work*) and the highest 2% (using humour). However, *pair work* was rated *sometimes used* at 52%. The comparisons of these findings with the lecturer's report can be seen in Table 5.17. In this table, the lecturer did not practice what both the students and she perceived for almost all strategies. The lecturer perceived that she practised the MTS as *sometimes used* (*connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life*) and *frequently used* (*using humour, promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products, pair work* and *group work*), *very frequently used (having an informal chat)*. For strategy *pair work*, what the student perceived *sometimes used* at mean scores 2.86 was practised, at score 3. This suggests that the lecturer did not have consistent perception on MTS use with the actual practice of the strategies while the student had low consistency on them.

Table 5.17 Comparisons of students' self report, lecturer's self report and the actual use of MTS by (Mean) scores: Lecturer 2, Classroom Observation 2

MTS	Student Self-Report	Lecturer's Self Report	Actual Use
Having an informal chat	3.73	5	1
Using humour	3.46	4	1
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	3.18	3	1
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	3.52	4	1
Pair work	2.86	4	3
Group work	3.96	4	1

Students ($N = 27$) in the classroom 3, viewed similarly with those in the classroom observations 1 and 2 above that the MTS use was between *sometimes used* with mean scores = 3.18: *using humour,* 3.37: *pair work* and 3.42: *promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products* and *pair work*; *frequently used*; with mean scores= 3.56: *having an informal chat*, 3.67 : *connecting what has to be learned to the student' everyday life* and 3.89: *group work* presented in Table 5.18. In this classroom observation, *group work* was reported as the most used, similarly to that in the classroom observation 2 with mean scores = 3.96 while the least used was *using humour*. These findings show that all students participants in the three classroom observations had very similar and relatively consistent perceptions on the frequency use of MTS in three different institutions. The comparisons of the lecturer's self report and the actual use of MTS in the classroom observation 3 can be seen further in Table 5.19.

Table 5.18 Descriptive statistics of MTS perceived by students in the classroom Observation 3

MTS	Students (N)	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Having an informal chat	27	2.00	5.00	3.56	.75
Using humour	27	2.00	5.00	3.18	.79
Connecting what has to be learned to the student' everyday life	27	2.00	5.00	3.67	.83
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	26	2.00	5.00	3.42	.86
Pair work	27	2.00	5.00	3.37	1.04
Group work	27	2.00	5.00	3.89	.97
Valid *N* (listwise)	26				

Table 5.19 Comparisons of students' self report, lecturer's self report and the actual use of MTS by (Mean) scores: Lecturer 3, Classroom Observation 3

MTS	Student Self-Report	Lecturer's Self Report	Actual Use
Having an informal chat	3.6	5	1
Using humour	3.2	3	1
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	3.7	4	1
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	3.4	5	1
Pair work	3.4	5	2
Group work	3.9	5	1

For overall comparisons between MTS use perceived by lecturers and students in three classroom observations and the actual use of the strategies, the means scores of each variable over three classroom observations and perceived strategy use by both groups are calculated and presented in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20 Comparison of MTS use according to overall actual use, lecturers' and students self-report of 3 classroom observations by (Mean) scores

MTS	Overall Lecturers' Actual Use	Overall Lecturers' Self-Report	Overall Students' Self-Report
Having an informal chat	1	4.7	3.7
Using humour	1	3.3	3.4
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	1	3.0	3.5
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	1	4.7	3.6
Pair work	2	4.3	3.2
Group work	1	4.3	3.9
Valid N (listwise)	3 classroom observations	3 lecturers	60 students

Thus, the MTS uses indicated in the table above reveal differences in terms of actual use and perceptions according to both lecturers and students like those found in each classroom observation. The results indeed highlight that it was difficult for the lecturers to report what they practiced, and students did not experience the teaching practice that they perceived.

5.4.2 Qualitative findings

5.4.2.1 The most useful MTS to learn according to lecturers and students

To find out the most useful MTS to learn perceived by both groups of participants, the frequency mentioned strategies by lecturers and students was calculated to rank-order the strategies. The frequency of themes was calculated for every time there was a word, a phrase or a sentence indicating a relevant theme. Therefore, a theme can be mentioned a few times by a participant. For example, the theme, *accepting mistakes* mentioned six times by a lecturer and two times by a student. The strategies were ranked at different places when frequency mentioned were different and at similar places when mentioned similarly frequently. For example, *pair or group work* and *attention to abilities*, both were ranked at 6th according to the lecturer data because they were mentioned equally five times by the group.

The findings in Table 5.21 show that both groups, the lecturers and the students, had similar perceptions on six strategies of the top seven rankings out of 16 strategies motivating the students to learn L2 by both groups i.e., *varying tasks, presenting models, contact with cultural products, attention to abilities, L2 use* and *importance of L2*. According to frequency mentioned by both groups, *varying tasks, presenting models* and *contact with L2 cultural products* were placed at the top four rankings.

However, there are mismatches between the lecturers and the students on their perceptions on MTS. Based on frequency mentioned by the lecturers, *contact with L2 cultural products* and *L2 use* were ranked 1st and 2nd respectively according to the student data while they were placed at 4th and 7th by the lecturers'. Furthermore, the rankings of *accepting mistakes* and *pair or group work* were at 5th and 6th respectively by the lecturers' while by the students', they were at 9th and 10th respectively. This shows an MTS viewed motivating the students to learn English by the lecturers would not be similarly perceived by the students. Therefore, lecturers should be aware of such differences between them and the students, so they would be able to view and be expected to practise appropriate strategies to fulfil the student's needs and motivate them to learn.

In addition, *contact with L2* (native) *speakers* was ranked at 3rd according to the lecturer data as motivating for students to learn English. The lecturers reported that speaking or practising using English with speakers of English especially native speakers would boost the students' motivation to learn the language. They said that integrative values were motivating students in learning by encouraging the students to have a contact with L2 speakers. The claims include:

> Then, I always encourage my students not to feel shy if they meet foreigners
> or native speakers of English outside the university. They can build confidence
> when communicating with them in English as long as they try to (L02)(SPK).

Surprisingly, this was not the case on the students' views as they did not mention this strategy motivating them to learn. This suggests that the students would, perhaps, be motivated to learn the language as long as they could use the language in the classroom either between

them or with the lectures. The students did not mention that speaking with the users of the language particularly the native speakers would boost their motivation to learn English.

Table 5. 21 Lecturer and student perceptions on the most useful MTS (to learn English) ranked from the most mentioned to the least

Rank	Lecturer perception	FM*	Rank	Student perception	FM
1	Varying tasks	34	1	Contact with L2 cultural products	45
2	Presenting models	27	2	L2 use	38
3	Contact with L2 speakers	14	3	Varying tasks	12
4	Contact with L2 cultural products	12	4	Presenting models	10
5	Accepting mistakes	6		Importance of self-evaluation	10
6	Pair or group work	5	5	Attention to abilities	7
	Attention to abilities	5	6	Enthusiasm in teaching	6
7	Rapport	1	7	Valuing L2 learning	4
	L2 use	1		Importance of L2	4
	Importance of L2	1	8	Humour	3
	Encouragement to use L2	1		Offering rewards	3
			9	Encouragement to use L2	2
				Accepting mistakes	2
			10	Pair of group work	1

*FM: Frequency mentioned (times)

Rapport ranked 7th also was viewed as motivating by a lecturer while students did not mention it at all. Then, *importance self-evaluation* (ranked 4th), *enthusiasm in teaching (6th), valuing L2 learning (4th), humour (8th)* and *offering rewards* (8th) were mentioned as motivating by the students while the lecturers never mentioned them at all. The findings indicate that the students did not think that *contact with L2 speakers* and *rapport* motivated them to learn English as the lecturers did so. Instead, they were motivated by the teaching quality of the lecturers in terms of performance (enthusiasm in teaching), the process of learning and their own evaluation on their learning.

5.4.2.2 Lecturers' and students' perceptions on frequency use of strategies

To find out how frequently the lecturers used the strategies they said to motivate the students in learning was also questioned. The theme is:

- **Frequency use of MTS**

The frequency use of MTS was different according to lecturers and students (see Table 3 Appendix D). They said that some strategies were frequently used while others were sometimes or occasionally used as shown below:

> Every time we have a class. (L01)(FRE)
>
> Not frequently. (FG03/S08)(SOM)
>
> […], I occasionally use the strategy particularly for Structure. I tend to use code switching when speaking to the students (L04)(OCC).

All the lecturers responded that they used their strategies in the classroom frequently and only one also stated that she used certain strategies occasionally for particular courses. Lecturer 03 stated that she used English when speaking to students in Speaking course 'more frequently' compared to in the other courses like Structure and Micro Teaching in Second Language Acquisition courses. The lecturer was likely to use English on the basis of courses meaning she consciously had limited the use of the language in class. She said:

> It depends on the course. I use the strategy (L2 use) for Speaking course more frequently (FRE). But for courses such as Structure and Micro Teaching in Second Language Acquisition, I occasionally use the strategy particularly for Structure. I tend to use code switching when speaking to the students (L03)(OCC).

Lecturer 01, however, believed that she used the teaching strategies: *presenting models* strategy to practise and speak English by comparing to children who are capable of speaking English, 'every time we have a class.' Lecturer 01 claimed her strategy, to challenge the students to be able to speak English by comparing them to children being fluent in English, was used in 'every lesson'. Similarly, Lecturers 02 and 04 stated the use of their teaching strategies, motivating the students to have *contact with native speakers and cultural product* and using stories of people who were successful in English respectively were practised 'very

often'. This indicates that the lecturers' self-perceptions on the use o teaching strategies to boost the students' motivation in learning are mostly consistent with their views on them as motivating strategies.

Most of the students had similar perceptions with the lecturers on the frequency use of strategies. They perceived that the lecturers used the strategies frequently. Students mentioned that the strategy use of lecturers of *presenting models*, *contact with cultural products* and *L2 use* as:

> Frequently. Every time we have the class, it is his strategy of teaching (FG01/S1)(FRE).
>
> Every week the lecturer uses the same strategy (FG02/S6)(FRE).
>
> Every time we have a class, the lecturer always tries to use English about 70% (FG03/S7)(FRE).
>
> English is used more than Indonesian (FG03/S9)(FRE).

Two students also responded the use of strategy: *valuing L2 learning* as:

> Frequently. Quite frequently ma'am. Every time the students do not respond to the lecturer, the lecturer says: 'you have to try'. So, it is quite frequent (FG02/S5)(FRE).
>
> If it is in percentage, it is about 80% (FG04/S12)(FRE).

While almost all lecturers had perceived that they used the strategies frequently, some students felt the lecturers used the strategies sometimes or even occasionally. The responses were:

> Not frequently (FG03/S8)(SOM)
>
> Occasionally, in the beginning of semester and later when it is needed. (FG04/S10)(OCC)

5.5 Research question 3

How does student motivation relate to students' self-report of (a) the lecturers' MTS use (b) the amount of students' L2 use (c) lecturers' L2 use in EFL classrooms.

5.5.1 Quantitative findings

To answer this question, students (N = 232), learning English between Semester 3 and 7 (M=4.77), were asked to complete a 42-item student motivation dimension questionnaire, six-item lecturers' MTS questionnaire and two-item L2 use questionnaire. The student motivation was calculated using the 21 items, the results of factor analysis (see Appendix A). The lecturers' MTS and L2 use questionnaires explored perceptions of frequency use and the amount of use respectively.

5.5.1.1 Relationship between student motivation and the reported MTS use

The full sample (N = *232*) was used for the statistical analyses to gain generalization and more reliable results. First, the mean scores of student motivation and reported MTS use were computed to run correlation assessment after calculating descriptive statistics of the valid sample (N = 215) for students' motivation (M = 4.94, SD = 4.99) and reported MTS use (M = 3.54, SD = .49) shown in Table 4 (Appendix B). The mean scores of the former were obtained from mean scores of all dimensions of student motivation questionnaire by using SPSS version 24. The mean of all dimensions referring to student motivation scores was computed and correlated to the mean of reported MTS use frequency.

A normality test was run to check normal distribution of mean scores of student motivation and reported MTS frequency use before assessing the relationships between the two variables. The assumption of normality of student motivation and reported MTS use were shown in Table 5.22. The p values for mean score of student motivation was below .05 (p = .025, *Shapiro-Wilk*), suggesting that the normality assumption was violated, or data of the variables were not normally distributed. However, the p value for mean score of reported MTS use was above .05 (p = .069, *Shapiro-Wilk*) meaning that data of this variable was approximately normally distributed. Histograms, Q-Q plots and boxplots of all the means scores of student motivation and reported MTS use also displayed in *Figure* 3 (Appendix B) to check normality of the data. The results show that data of mean scores of student motivation and reported MTS use were approximately normally distributed.

Table 5.22 Test of normality of student motivation and reported MTS use mean scores

	Tests of Normality					
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Student Motivation Mean Scores	.070	215	.012	.985	215	.025
Reported MTS Mean Scores	.072	215	.009	.988	215	.069

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Thus, to assess the size and direction of the linear relationship between to assess correlation between students' motivation and reported MTS use, a non-parametric *Spearman's rho* was used to calculate the correlation between these variables. *Spearman's rho* shows (Table 5.23) that there was a positive correlation between student's motivation and reported MTS use, $r_{s=}$ 345, $p < .001$, two-tailed, *N*= 215.

Table 5.23 Correlations between student motivation and reported MTS use

			Reported MTS use mean score
Spearman's rho	Student motivation mean Score	*Correlation Coefficient*	.345[**]
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	215
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*			

Then, linearity and homoscedasticity were assessed, and the results are shown by scatterplots, in *Figure 5.2.* A scatterplot is a graph which shows visual assessment of the strength and direction of the association between two variables (Allen, Bennett & Heritage, 2014). The scatterplots confirmed that the relationship between students' motivation and the frequency of reported MTS use was linear. This suggests that the relationships between variables were homoscedastic.
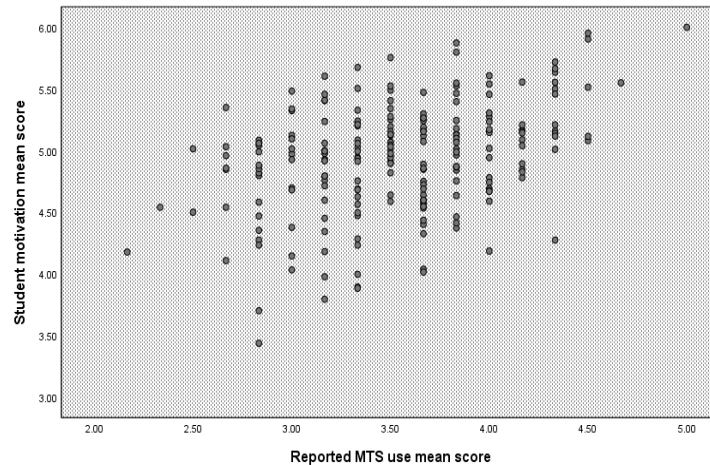
Figure 5.2 Linearity and homoscedasticity of student motivation and reported MTS frequency use

The findings show that MTS use has positive associations with students' motivation. Lecturers' strategies in teaching and the frequency use of such strategies would motivate the students to learn English.

5.5.1.2 Relationship between student motivation and the reported students' L2 use

As a reminder, L2 (English) use questionnaires had 2 items to complete: (1) Lecturers' L2 use and (2) Students' L2 use. The students were asked to give roughly the comparison proportion of L2 use in the classroom between lecturers and students in one lesson in percentages. The total percentages of both lecturers' and students' L2 use in such duration were minimum 0% and maximum in 100% of time of one lesson or session (see the questionnaire students). For example, if the students had reported that the lecturers' use of English in class of time (e.g. 100 minutes) in one session was 60% and the students' 30%, the total of English use in one session would be 90%. In this case, the L2 use by either lecturers or students also shows the proportion of talk time in L2 of each group. This was explained to students before data collection by the researcher and also stated in the questionnaire.

Descriptive statistics of the reported (lecturers' and students') L2 use is shown in Table 5 (Appendix B). Table 5 shows that there were 168 valid samples from 232 participants. This was due to incomplete questionnaires. The section on L2 use appeared in part 3 of student

questionnaire after MTS use and student motivation numbered as questions 55 and 56 of the questionnaire; therefore, some participants might have lost enthusiasm in completing it. In addition, some students did not complete it right i.e., the total use of L2 between lecturers and students was more than 100%. Incomplete questionnaire and wrong data were not included in the analyses.

To identify the relationship between student motivation and their reported English use in the classroom, the normality test of the amount of reported students' English use (M= 54.52, SD= 14.66) was assessed. Table 5.24 below also shows the p value is under .005 (p = .000), suggesting that the assumption of normality was violated, or data was not normally distributed. Similarly, *Figure 4* (Appendix B) presents histogram, Q-Q plot and Boxplots of students' English use confirming that the data were not normally distributed.

Table 5.24 Tests of normality of reported students' L2 use

L2 Use	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	*df*	*Sig.*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
Reported Students' English Use	.210	168	.000	.956	168	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

As students' English use data were not normally distributed, a non-parametric *Spearman's Rho* was used to assess correlations between student motivation and their use of English. Table 5.25 shows that *Spearman's rho* indicated the absence or very weak and negative associations between student's motivation and the amount of their English use in class r_s = -.074, p >.001 two-tailed, N = 161.

Table 5.25 Correlations between student motivation and their reported use of L2

	Correlation		Reported students' L2 use
Spearman's rho	Student motivation mean score	*Correlation Coefficient*	-.074
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.352
		N	161

Then, linearity and homoscedasticity were assessed i.e., the direction and relationships between the two variables, and the results are shown by scatterplots in *Figure 5.3*. The scatterplots confirmed that the relationship between students' motivation and their reported English use was rather linear and low negative correlation.
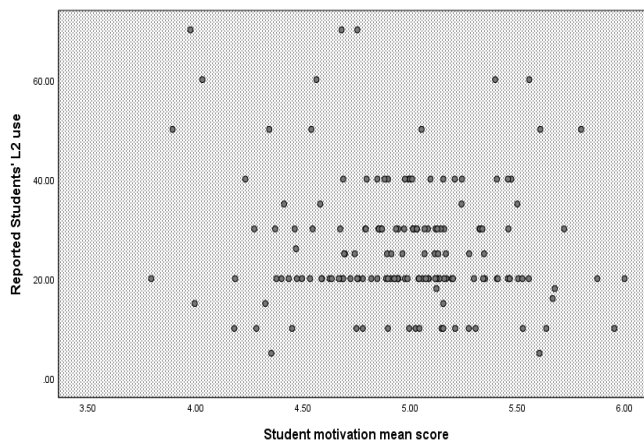
Figure 5.3 Linearity and homoscedasticity of student motivation and students' L2 use

The findings suggest that students' motivation have little or no associations with their reported use of L2. Students who were more motivated in learning English would not necessarily report to speak English more than others. This is very important to highlight that there should be other aspects affecting motivated students in speaking English in HE EFL classrooms or students speaking English in the classroom were not undoubtedly influenced by their motivation in learning English. Proficiency (Lee & Lo, 2017), and interaction (Hernández, 2010), for example, influence L2 use. In this cohort, it was found that student motivation by itself might not have strong relations on the students' speaking English (L2) in the classrooms. In other words, students with stronger motivation might not use or speak English more.

5.5.1.3 Relationship between student motivation and the reported lecturers' L2 use

The normality test of reported lecturers' English use (M= 26.15, SD= 12.66) was assessed to run correlation analysis between the variable and student motivation. The results in Table 5.26 shows that p value was below .05 (p = .000), confirming that the assumption of normality was violated, or data of lecturers' English use were not normally distributed. Like students' motivation data, the histogram, Q-Q plots and box plots show in *Figure 5* in Appendix B that the assumption of normality was not violated, or data were normally distributed.

Table 5.26 The normality tests of reported lecturers' L2 use

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Lecturers' English use	.140	168	.000	.956	168	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Since reported lecturers' English use data was not normally distributed, to assess the size and direction of the linear relationships between the variables of students' motivation and reported lecturers' English use, Spearman rho was used to compute the correlations between the two variables. The bivariate correlations between these variables were shown in Table 5.27, negative and very low, p >.001, two-tailed.

Table 5.27 Correlations between student motivation and reported lecturers' L2 use

Correlations			Reported Lecturers' L2 use
Spearman's rho	Student Motivation Mean Scores	*Correlation Coefficient*	-.009
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.914
		N	161

Linearity and homoscedasticity, then, were assessed, and the results are shown by scatterplots in *Figure 5.4*. The scatterplots confirmed that the relationships between the student motivation variable and lecturers' L2 use were rather linear and had very weak negative

correlation. This indicated that there were no relationships between student motivation and lecturers' L2 use.
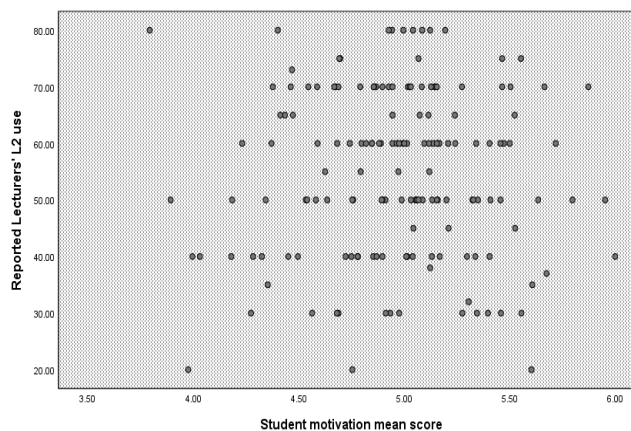
Figure 5.4 Linearity and homoscedasticity of student motivation and reported lecturers' L2 use

The results highlighted that there was no association between the degree of reported lecturers' L2 use and student motivation ($r_s = -.009$; $p = .914$), indicating that lecturers' L2 use might not relate to students' motivation in learning English in HE EFL classrooms. The relationship between reported lecturers' English use and reported students' English use might be able to be explained further in the investigation of RQ 4.

5.5.2 Qualitative findings

This section presents the qualitative findings to give insights to answer the research questions particularly in looking at the relation between student motivation and MTS use, in this case MTS to use L2. The findings were also expected to explain how student motivation was related to the students' and lecturers' use of the language. The themes of MTS to use L2 (English) and other themes related (see Tables 2 & 3 Appendix D) were reviewed first. Lecturers' and students' preferences of MTS to use L2 was also included to find how the two groups were similar and differed in perceptions on the strategies. Then, additional findings which were relevant to the studies were also reviewed: the perceptions of both groups on the relations between grade and motivation.

5.5.2.1 Themes of MTS to use L2

Strategies of teaching that motivate students to speak English, as mentioned earlier, were coded thematically by using inductive approach. In other words, the themes do not refer to the concepts of MTS to learn as presented previously. The themes, however, link to the target language or L2 use related values of MTS to learn i.e. the integrative values (one of the macro strategies). One example of what participants said about each theme is provided. The strategies are:

- **Theme 1:** *Becoming a Role Model*

This theme refers to lecturer's capability in using English when teaching viewed motivating the students to use the language as well. The response includes:

> I believe <u>lecturer's speaking English in the classroom</u> and knowing that some lecturers pursued further studies abroad, meaning that they should be capable of speaking the language in order to study overseas, <u>motivates me to speak the language</u>. I want to be able to speak English like the lecturers do. (FG03/S9)(ROL)

- **Theme 2:** *Commitment for Success*

Student's desire to succeed in using English was claimed motivating the student to use the language. This shows the *commitment for success* to speak English. One of the students responded:

> I think I can't forget the (lecturer's) words saying: '<u>It's only you who can make you speak English well</u>. Our job is to guide you. The study time in this university is limited, you've got more time outside the classroom, so it depends on you not us' (the lecturers). (FG04/S10)(COM).

- **Theme 3:** *L2 Use on Tasks*

Tasks that require students to use English would motivate and make the students to use or speak the language. *L2 use on tasks* refers to lecturer's strategy to design English tasks as claimed by a student:

> […] after watching a movie, <u>we are assigned to speak about the movie.</u> This encourages us to speak English. The lecturer also assigns us to take a summary

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(in English). Thus, we automatically have to speak English, like it or not. (FG02/S6)(L2TSK)

- **Theme 3:** *L2 Use with Peers*

Speaking English with peers or classmates motivated students to speak the language as well. Lecturer's teaching practice that allows students use the language, *L2 use with peers*, motivated the students to speak as claimed below:

> I want to say that <u>the motivation that makes me speak English in class is</u> <u>conversations among students. When we, the students, speak English between</u> <u>ourselves, I will be motivated to use the language</u>. I will feel ashamed of myself when looking at my friends speaking English and I do not speak the language. It simply starts from the students not the lecturers to actively speak English. (FG03/S7)(L2P)

- **Theme 4:** *Reducing Language Anxiety*

Helping students to feel not anxious like when making mistakes would motivate students to speak the language. Lecturer's strategy in *reducing language anxiety* was one of teaching strategies claimed motivating as responded below:

> I usually advise straight away by saying that <u>they should use English and if they</u> <u>make mistakes, we can fix them</u>. I am still learning, and they are practising their English skills. So, every time the student responds in Indonesian, I will encourage them to use English.
> (L03)(ANX).

- **Theme 5:** *Reward and Punishment*

Reward and punishment strategy refers to teaching practice that motivates students to speak English as they are offered rewards if they speak the language and received punishment or penalty if they do not use the language when speaking. This is claimed below:

> It may be worth trying to do or just to plan to <u>make a reward and punishment</u> <u>strategy in the classroom</u>. It sounds like this is not to motivate but <u>if there is</u> <u>reward and punishment, I believe, the students will be forced to speak</u> <u>English. If they speak English continuously, for example, in one lesson; they</u>

will be given a reward. […] When they speak Indonesian or discuss things in the language in the classroom, they might be given punishment. It is good to discuss first what reward and punishment will be given. I think (L04)(RNP).

- **Theme 6:** *Using Authentic Materials*

Teaching materials which are in English was claimed to be motivating students to speak the language. This refers to lecturer's *using authentic materials* strategy was responded as follows:

[…] to get close to things that use English. Though students may have received many things in English from their lecturers in the classroom like materials from television, those displayed on the projector, listening materials on audio visual equipment and so on. It is not wrong to try (i.e., displaying things/announcements/proverbs in English on the wall) because we can't find many such things. As you can see, there are not many English words displayed in this classroom […] (L02)(AUT).

- **Theme 7:** *Pleasant Learning Environment*

Supportive learning situations or *pleasant circumstances* were responded as motivating for students to use or speak the language. One lecturer said:

[…] I saw that the students could speak and learn English better in less formal situations since they could think and speak more relaxingly. It improves their English.[…] (L03)(PLS)

5.5.2.2 The most useful MTS to use L2 according to lecturers and students

Before looking at lecturers' and students' perceptions of the MTS to speak by both lecturers and students, it is crucial to present whether the lecturers motivated the students to speak the language. The four lecturers claimed that they strongly encouraged their students to use English in the classroom. All lecturers claimed that they encouraged the students to use or speak English. They stated:

Yes, I always ask them to try not to speak Indonesian (L01)(YES).

Yes. I encourage them very much, though not all students can do it (L02)(YES).

I often encourage them to speak English […] (L03)(YES).

[…] I really support and encourage the students to speak English in the classroom. (L04)(YES)

Like lecturers, most (8) students claimed that their lecturers motivated them to speak English from three different institutions. S1 and S3 said that their lecturers "always" motivated the to use English when speaking; S5 and S7 answered: "yes". Other responses include:

Mostly, almost all lecturers encourage us to speak English to be fluent in the language. (FG02/S6)(YES)

When the lecturers speak English, we should respond to them in English. (FG02/S04)(YES)

Certainly. (FG03/S8)(YES)

Yes, the lecturers absolutely encourage us to speak English. (SFG03/S9)(YES)

This shows that there is a consistency between the lecturers' responses and the students' on whether the lecturers motivate or encourage the students to use/speak L2/English. However, some students said that the lecturers did not really encourage them to use English in speaking since the lecturers spoke more Indonesian than the English either when saying words of encouragement to use English or while teaching.

During my studies at this university, the lecturers gave motivating words in Indonesian, they used only little English. (FG04/S11)(NO)

It was about 40% English use by the students. Yes, because the lecturers speak Indonesian, they even speak ethnic group languages like Batak [one of local languages in Indonesia] in motivating us. The mixture of languages [codeswitching] is necessary, but English should be used more, minimally up to 80% in class. (FG04/S10)(NO)

Remembering that many lecturers are Batak and Indonesian or locals, I can understand they speak Indonesian. But it is not good. Why? The students will find it difficult and even impossible [for them to speak English]. (FG04/S12)(NO)

Thus, this suggests that the lecturers have a slight inconsistency in their perceptions of motivating or encouraging students to use English. Like MTS to learn, lecturers' and students' perceptions on the most useful MTS to use L2 were ordered from the most useful to the least. Table 5.28 shows the rankings of themes of MTS to use L2 claimed by the lecturers and the students. Similar to the rankings of MTS to learn explained earlier, the rankings of MTS to use L2 was also based on the frequency mentioned of the strategies by each group of participants.

Table 5.28 Lecturer and student perceived MTS to use L2 (English) ranked from the most useful to the least

Rank	Lecturer perception (ranked)	Frequency mentioned	Student perception (ranked)	Frequency mentioned
1	Reward and punishment	26	L2 use with peers	27
2	Using authentic materials	17	L2 use on tasks	15
3	Reducing language anxiety	9	Commitment to success	14
4	Becoming a role model	4	Becoming a role model	13
5	Pleasant circumstances	2	Reward and punishment	6

The lecturers and the students had both similarities and discrepancies on eight MTS to speak English in the classroom. Both these groups included *reward and punishment* and *becoming a role model* as MTS to speak English for the students in the classroom and they viewed these teaching strategies as relatively effective motivating for students to use English in the classroom. *Reward and punishment* was ranked at 1st and 5th on 5 rankings according to data by the lecturers and students respectively, the most mentioned strategies of all the sub-themes: 32 times (26 and 6 times respectively).

From the lecturers' perspective, the findings seem to suggest that the lecturers understood that they needed to make the students speak English in the classroom by giving a penalty. Lecturer 01 claimed that if students do not speak English, they should be punished by paying some money. For example, Lecturer 04 claimed she used to charge a student 1000 IRD

(equals around 5p GBP) for not speaking English. In this way the students would be 'forced' to use English in speaking. In addition, Lecturer 03 suggested that students should be rewarded when speaking English actively and be punished if they use L1 or Bahasa Indonesia instead of English. The lecturers said:

> I sometimes tend not to motivate the students but to punish. […] I told the students that they will pay some money for every single word they do not say in English. I believe they will remember it; they will count how much they will pay. […] It is more effective. […] If there is punishment, they will speak English. (L01)(RNP)

> I used to make students pay 1.000 IDR every time they didn't speak English or forgot to use the language. In this way, they would remember to speak English especially in Speaking class. They had to speak English so that their skills would be improved. […] In the beginning they had to pay, but later they didn't because they realized that they had to speak English. (L03)(RNP)

Becoming a role model was placed at 4th according to frequency mentioned by each group suggesting that both groups responded that when the lecturers spoke English in the classroom, the students were motivated as they could see that their lecturer's ability in the language and they would try to respond to them in English as well. However, some strategies were perceived motivating to use L2 by the lecturers were never mentioned by the students and vice versa.

Based on the frequency mentioned by the lecturers, *using authentic materials, reducing anxiety* and *pleasant circumstances* strategies were ranked 2nd, 3rd and 5th respectively while the students did not mention any of them as motivating for them to use L2. The lecturers, for example, would perhaps be concerned about the student's language anxiety in this case reluctance in using the language so they would try to reduce their anxiety to speak by encouraging them to accept mistakes or not underestimating the students' ability. They said:

> You [students] have to be capable of speaking English. It does not matter whether the grammar is right or wrong but practice first. You will fix it eventually. (L01)(ANX)

On the other hand, *L2 use with peers* was ranked 1st followed by *L2 use on tasks* at 2nd, and *commitment for success* at 3rd according to the students data while there was no such data by the lecturers. The students responded that they would be motivated to use L2, speak English in the classroom, when they used English with peers and if they had been assigned to use the language on tasks (*L2 use on tasks*). The students were also motivated to use English in the classroom if they had commitment to use the language with peers and the language had been assigned on tasks.

The strategies motivating to use L2 mentioned by the students above suggest, first, the students might have perceived that their and peer's enthusiasm to speak the language would motivate them and speak the language more. These students might also feel that if they had more opportunities and felt more at ease speaking English with their peers. Therefore, the lecturers should have paid more attention to their students' L2 use by providing group or pair work discussion or assignments on L2 use, for example, or encourage the students to exchange information in English while working in the classroom. Second, lecturers' use of L2 in the classroom would always encourage students to speak the language as lecturers may become an important source of L2 and immediate role models to the students to use the language themselves.

The findings have provided relationships between student motivation and L2 use or the effect of MTS on L2 use that help lecturers to address the needs of the students to motivate them to speak English. Furthermore, for the best pedagogical application of the finding, it is also relevant to investigate how students' preferences of MTS to speak L2 relate to their level of motivation i.e., low, moderate, and high. This is analysed later in section 5.6.1.2. and addresses RQ4.

5.5.2.3 Additional findings of relevance to the study

Students' motivation in L2 or success in learning or speaking the language is often related to their outcome i.e., grades. Though this is not the focus of the study, it is important to find out how lecturers and students related motivation and grades. Did the lecturers or the students have similar or different perceptions on how the students succeed in learning and using the

language? Would highly motivated students have good grades or high competence in the language as well?

- **Lecturers' and students' perceptions on student grades and motivation**

Student grades and their learner motivation are related according to all lecturers. The lecturers stated that high motivated students would have good grades and vice versa. Lecturer 02 particularly highlighted that student motivation has a relationship with student competence in the language skills. He claimed that the higher motivation the better skills competence students will gain. Therefore, they all claimed that student motivation is related with both their academic grades and skills competence. In other words, students having high grades or good English skills possibly like in Speaking might be strongly motivated to better their English. The responses include:

> They (grades and motivation) are correlated. When I motivate the students and they are motivated, the results of studies are also satisfactory (L01)(POS).

> In the context of this university, low motivation has a relationship with low grades. Basically, high motivation can be reflected on good grades. So, highly motivated students usually have high grades but those who are low motivated will also have low grades (L03)(POS).

Unlike lecturers' perceptions, most students responded that there was no relationship between their grades to their motivation: only two students had similar thoughts with the lecturers regarding this relationship. They were:

> If, for example, we had low motivation in Reading, the grades would also be low due to insufficient learning. So, motivation has a relationship with grades. (FG02/S5)(POS)

> They (grades) are related to motivation. (FG03/S7)(POS)

These findings may indicate that the lecturers and some students perceive that student achievement, in this case: grades, are influenced by their motivation in learning. On the other hand, students who are highly motivated may not have very good grades.

Eight out of twelve students claimed that their grades and motivation in learning have no relationships. The students argued that students who get good grader were not necessarily highly motivated for they may have cheated in the examinations or they were forced to do so by parents. The views include:

> Grades do not necessarily indicate the level of student motivation and good students because many students cheat in examinations. So good grades do not always mean the students are highly motivated. (FG04/S12)(NEG)

> I think grades or GPA cannot be used as an indicator that students are motivated or not in learning English and have good skills in the language because they have different priorities. Some students decided to study further to get certain results forced by parents, in fact, they may be not really interested in English. (FG/04/S11)(NEG)

The students also pointed out that students who were motivated but not made any sufficient efforts or were more interested in their future career would not get good grades. A student also claimed that intelligence has more relationship on her grades rather than motivation. The responses were:

> Though we are self-motivated, we do not make any efforts to get low grades. (FG001/S1)(NEG)

> Students could be more motivated for the future rather than for the grades. Grades can come second. They may be more interested in getting good jobs in the future than good grades. (FG02/S3)(NEG)

> Depending on the knowledge ma'am. For example, I say I am highly motivated but when the lecturers speak English fast, I can't catch what they say. I am, indeed, motivated, but I have low intelligence. (FG03/S9)(NEG)

Thus, these students' responses highlight the factors that explain why highly motivated students would not always get good grades. In this sense, the students perceived that grades do not relate to motivation in learning or speaking the language. In other words, if students

do not have sufficient support from the lecturers or the lecturers do not use appropriate strategies in teaching, the students may not have achieved good results.

5.6 Research question 4

A. What is the relationship between students' self report of lecturers' L2 use and the students' L2 use,

B. How does actual L2 use by (a) lecturers and (b) students in EFL classrooms compare to (a) lecturers' self report, and (b) students' self-report of L2 use for both groups?

RQ 4A investigated the relationships between lecturers' and students' L2 use according to the students' perceptions. Data used to answer this question were similar to those in the previous question.

5.6.1. Correlation between reported lecturers' and students' L2 use

5.6.1.1 Quantitative findings

As found previously, tests of normality on both reported lecturers' and students' L2 use were not normal. Thus, a non-parametric *Spearman's rho* was used to assess the presence of relationship between reported lecturers' and students' L2 use. *Spearman's rho* (Table 5.29) indicated the presence of negative correlation between reported lecturers' and students' L2 use, r_s (.04), $p > .001$, two-tailed, $N = 168$.

Table 5.29 Correlations between reported lecturers' and students' L2 use

			Students' L2 use
Spearman's rho	Lecturers' L2 use	*Correlation Coefficient*	-.043
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.580
		N	168

Then, linearity and homoscedasticity of the two variables were assessed. The results were shown on *Figure 5.5* below indicating that there was a negative relationship between lecturers' and students' L2 use.
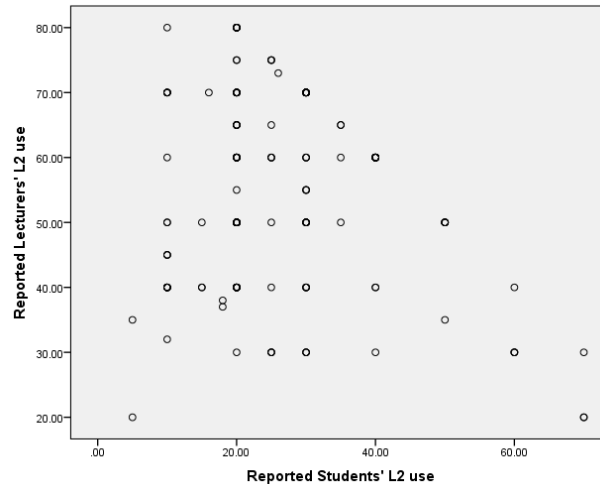
Figure 5.5 Linearity and homoscedasticity of reported lecturers' and students' L2 use

The findings suggest that the lecturers' L2 use correlated negatively with the students' L2 use: when lecturers used English more the students would do the opposite. In this regard, the measurement of L2 use in this study was looking at the percentage of L2 by lecturers versus students perceived by both rather than the use of L2 versus the L1. Generally, when the students speak English more, they will speak less native language and vice versa. Lecturers are also expected to promote L2 use by using the language to the students while at the same time, they can give more floor space to students to use L2.

5.6.1.2 Qualitative findings

This section presents students' preferences of MTS to use L2 based on their level of motivation to learn, how the MTS would be effective in motivating students in terms of degree of motivation. Thus, it looks at the relationship between lecturers' and student's L2 use. As reviewed earlier to answer RQ3, both groups considered this to be a MTS.

- **Students' preferences on MTS to use (speak) English**

Unlike MTS to learn English, students' preferences of MTS to use L2 according to their level of motivation were less in terms of number of strategies (five strategies) in the three groups of student motivation as shown in Table 5.30. *L2 use with peers* is the first top strategy motivating for the students to use L2 or to speak English responded by eight students at all levels of motivation. These students realized that speaking English between and among their

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peers or classmates made them speak English more in the classroom. They knew that it was themselves who needed to start speaking the language more importantly, however, if their classmates had not responded to them in English, they would have been discouraged from using the language and vice versa. It is important to recall (see Chapter 2) that students in Indonesia are not likely to use or speak English outside the classroom, this is quite rare. The responses include:

> If my friend suddenly speaks English to me, I will speak the language to him or her. If English is used by friends, I will respond to them totally in English so we can enjoy the conversation like a normal conversation (in Indonesian) (FG01/S01)(L2P).

> […] if, for example, my classmates do not care, they prefer speaking Indonesian to English, it discourages me to speak English to them. And when I speak English to my friends in the classroom some of them do not understand, then speaking Indonesian is better to them (FG04/S11)(L2P).

Table 5.30 Students' preferences of MTS to use L2 (English) based on level of motivation (high/H, moderate/M and low/L)

No.	MTS to use English	Students	
		Number of students who mentioned the MTS	Students and level of motivation
1.	*L2 use with peers*	8	S1H, S5H, S6M, S7L, S8M, S9H, S10M, S11L
2,	*Becoming a role model*	6	S2L, S4L, S6M, S7L, S9H, S11L
3.	*L2 use on tasks*	4	S1H, S6M, S7L, S8M
4.	*Reward and punishment*	4	S8M, S9H, S10M, S11L
5.	*Commitment for success*	2	S10M, S12H

However, the use of English to communicate orally between students would be more possible. This is particularly relevant with students with high and moderate motivation shown in Table 5.30 i.e., three students in each group of motivation mentioned these strategies while two

students with low motivation just mentioned this strategy. Low motivation students preferred their lecturers' use of English to motivate them to use the language, mentioned by four students against one and two high and moderate level motivation students respectively. The rest of the strategies were relatively the least preferred for students at each group of motivation (in terms of how many students) mentioned the strategies as discussed later.

Then, lecturers' use the language in the classroom, *becoming a role model* strategy, comes second as MTS to use English mentioned by six students at any level of motivation as well. The response includes:

> Motivation (to speak English) depends on the classroom situations, I think. If the lecturers, for example, often speak English, I will certainly be motivated to use the language. (FG04/S11)(ROL)

L2 use on tasks strategy was also found motivating by four students at all levels of motivation from three different universities. They admitted that their lecturers designed the tasks to use English.

> Our lecturer wants us to take part, so we take turns, like it or not, retelling a story in English. When it's difficult to say it in English, we can use Indonesian. But we have to speak even though we have to mix English and Indonesian. He said it's to practise the conversation. (FG01/S1)(L2TSK)

> Presentation is in English. (FG02/S6)(L2TSK)

> I think the lecturers motivate us to speak English by having English on tasks such as Presentations in English about culture, for example, expressing ourselves in English and Debate in English. (FG03/S7)(L2TSK)

The students highlighted that the use of English in speaking with the lecturers and on tasks motivates and makes them use the language.

The findings show that the use of L2 by both groups, lecturers and students, whether for a short time i.e. classroom instructions, questions and answers or a longer time i.e. tasks like storytelling and presentation were motivating for the three groups of students at all different

levels of motivation. In other words, the more L2 or English was used particularly by the students, the more motivating for the students to use the language. Therefore, lecturers obviously should have given more opportunities and assigned tasks for the students that used English to make them use the language more.

The next MTS on top that was responded to be motivating by four students at any level of motivation was *reward and punishment*. It suggests that it was important for the lecturers to offer reward when using the language and to penalise them for not using the language in order to generate or maintain their motivation to use the language at relatively high, moderate and low levels of motivation. Students said that they would get extra marks if they spoke English otherwise got punished by paying some money. The responses include:

> The lecturer mentioned at first class that he will observe students and those who speak English in class especially when he speaks to them will get extra marks. This will make us (the students) motivated to speak English more. (FG04/S11)(RNP)

> If we don't speak English, the person who is in charge will make a note and ask to pay some money. (FG03/S9)(RNP)

Unfortunately, it was not clear how the strategy was managed or organised. The strategy was mentioned by one lecturer as her way to motivate the students to speak the language, and others mentioned them as suggestions to make the students speak English discussed earlier. In this context, it seems 'forcing' might be necessary to boost the student motivation to speak English. In addition, at moderate and low levels of motivation, *commitment for success* (to use L2) was found motivating by the students to use the language, unlike the students with high motivation. This may indicate that both students at moderate and low levels of motivation needed to commit to use the language, thus boosting their motivation.

5.6.2 Comparison between actual L2 use by (a) lecturers and (b) students in EFL classrooms and (a) lecturers' self-report, and (b) students' self-report of L2 use

The lecturers' and students' actual use of L2 obtained by observing and recording L2 in three EFL classrooms were compared to the lecturers' and students' self-reported L2 use data. The presentation of data compared is per individual lecturer with the students in each classroom observation as shown below. Descriptive statistics were used to compare the lecturers' and students' self-reports of their L2 use. The mean scores and standard deviations of lecturers' and students' self-reported L2 use were calculated and compared shown in Table 5.31.

Table 5.31 Comparison of lecturers' and students' L2 use reported by both groups

	Lecturers' self-report		Student's self-report	
	Lecturers' L2 use	Students' L2 use	Lecturers' L2 use	Students' L2 use
N	28	28	168	168
Minimum	30%	10%	20%	5%
Maximum	85%	70%	80%	70%
M	53%	35%	55%	26%
SD	14.16	15.69	14.66	12.68

It can be seen that the mean percentages of the lecturers' and students' self-reported L2 use in the classrooms for lecturers were higher than the students' use (lecturers' was 53% versus 35% and students' were 55% versus 26%) showing that both groups had similar perceptions of English use by the two groups. However, the students felt they used English at 26% while the lecturers perceived they used more of the language at 35%. These findings suggest that both lecturers and students thought that the lecturers used more English than the students. Furthermore, students felt that lecturers used English far more than them (roughly twice as much as them). However, the actual use of L2 in three classroom observations was different from those reported by both lecturers and students. The actual use of L2 by both lecturers and the students collected by every second they used L2 in the classroom. The total seconds or time they used the language was divided by the class time in one lesson or session and multiplied by 100% highlighted in Table 5.32. The differences of the reported and actual use of L2 in all classroom observations were presented in Table 5.33.

Table 5.32 Calculation L2 use in the classroom observations

Class*	Speaking time		Total speaking time	L2 use based on speaking time		L2 use based on class time	
	Lecturer	Students		L**	S***	L	S
01	35'03" (2102")	24'35" (1461")	59'38" (3563")	59%	41%	39%	27%
02	25'31" (1519")	46'45" (2787")	71'76" (4306")	35%	65%	28%	52%
03	11'35" (681")	17'08" (1025")	28'43" (1706")	40%	60%	13%	19%

*Class time 90 minutes (5400 seconds)
**Lecturer
***Students

Table 5.33 Descriptive comparison of overall lecturers' and students' actual L2 use from all classroom observations

Actual L2 Use	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Lecturers' L2 Use	3	13%	39%	27%	13.05
Students' L2 Use	3	19%	52%	33%	17.21
Valid N (listwise)	3				

The findings suggest that overall, the students used more L2 use (19%) compared to the lecturers (13%) in the actual classroom. The results show that there are different perceptions of the lecturers and the students from their actual use of L2 use. This might be due to the fact, firstly, the students could reflect on their own L2 use compared to the lecturers' L2 use rather than the comparison between their use of L2 together with classmates and the lecturers'. Secondly, in fact, overall, the use of L2 in class by students was more than the lecturers; however, this does not mean that every student has the opportunity to use L2 in every lesson.

Though the students' actual use of L2 is higher than the lecturers' (*M*=33% and *M*=27% respectively) it can be seen that overall, the use of L2 by the students perceived by lecturers and students (reported by the lecturers: *M*= 35%, and the students: *M*= 26%) and the actual use in the classroom observations (*M*=33%) could be considered relatively very low against the time in one lesson. If the class time of one lesson was 100 minutes (which is the normal time duration in Indonesian EFL classrooms for 2 semester credits), the opportunities of all

students to use L2 reportedly were between 26% x 100 minutes and 35% x 100 minutes which were between 26 minutes and 35 minutes at average. Similarly, for the actual use of L2, the students' use of English was 33% x 100 minutes or 33 minutes on average. Therefore, the time used by an individual student to use or speak English could be even less as the use of English here was per class. Some students might not even use any time for speaking at all in the lesson if there were no opportunities to do so.

5.7 Summary

This chapter has presented and analysed data pertaining to the four RQs quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitatively, the findings show that:

- The students in the study were motivated in learning English and particularly by Own Ought-to English Self-motivation component. This might be due to the fact that these students were majoring in English, therefore, the students understood their own demands on themselves on the attributes they wanted to possess in the future as English speakers.

- There were discrepancies between the lecturers and the students' perceptions the MTS use. The effect size showed that the differences were significant. This finding is relevant to those found in previous research discussed in the Literature Review i.e., teachers and students have mismatches in their opinions of MTS use.

- The MTS use as reported by the students had positive correlations with their motivation in learning English. This confirms findings in previous research that MTS influenced student motivation in learning. However, the strength of the relationship found in this study was weak ($r_{s=}$ .345, $p < .001$, two-tailed) suggesting there were other factors influencing MTS perhaps such as students' preferences of MTS.

- There were very weak and negative relationships between student motivation and their L2 use, and the lecturers' L2 use as well. These findings suggest that students who were more motivated to learn did not necessarily speak English more and lecturers' use of English might not motivate students to use the language.

- The lecturers' and the students' L2 use had a negative correlation suggesting that if lecturers had not used English inappropriate amount or purpose, the students' use of the language might not have been increased.
- There were different perceptions on frequency use of MTS and L2 use revealed from the actual use of both variables found by the classroom observations. This suggests that the lecturers might not practice what they perceived, and the students might not have received what they thought.

In addition, qualitatively, there were 16 MTS to learn English mentioned by lecturers and students:

- *humour,*
- *accepting mistakes,*
- *pair or group work,*
- *rapport,*
- *enthusiasm in teaching,*
- *valuing L2 learning,*
- *contact with L2 cultural products,*
- *contact with L2 speakers,*
- *encouragement to use L2,*
- *importance of L2,*
- *L2 use,*
- *presenting models,*
- *attention to abilities,*
- *varying tasks,*
- *importance of self-evaluation and offering rewards.*

Furthermore, lecturers and students had similar perceptions of most strategies (9 MTSs); however, what lecturers perceived to be motivating the students to learn and use the language in learning were not found to be the same by the students and vice versa. The lecturers viewed that *rapport* and *contact with L2 speakers* motivated the students to learn while the students preferred *enthusiasm in teaching, valuing L2 learning, importance of self-evaluation* and

offering rewards as MTSs to learn English. In addition, *varying tasks* was the most motivating strategy based on the lecturer data while *contact with cultural products* was the most motivating one according to the student data.

However, lecturers and students in this study were more different in their answers in respect to MTS to use or speak English. The lecturers and students had similar perceptions only regarding two out of eight MTS, i.e., *reward and punishment* and *becoming a role model* MTSs. The lecturers perceived that *reducing language anxiety, using authentic materials* and *pleasant circumstances* strategies motivated the students to speak English while the students viewed *commitment for success, L2 use on tasks* and *with peers* teaching strategies more effective to motivate them to use the language. The discussion of findings of MTS, L2 and their relationships with student motivation in terms of frequency use and usefulness are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 6
Discussion

6.1 Introduction

Previous chapter presents the findings of quantitative and qualitative data collected from three Indonesian HE institutions. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from both lecturers' (*N*=30) and students' (*N*=232) perceptions by survey, lecturers' interviews (*N*=4) and students' focus-groups (*N*=12), and classroom observations (3 lecturers with their students in 3 classrooms) pertaining to MTS, student motivation and L2 use. The quantitative findings were primarily used to answer the research questions in this study while the qualitative ones were to give further insights to the quantitative findings. In other words, the qualitative findings were secondary to answer the research questions.

This chapter, therefore, presents the discussion of quantitative results and the key findings of the qualitative data. Findings from both groups of data are interpreted and discussed. The structure of discussion is per research question i.e. from RQ1 to RQ4. The discussion integrates the quantitative and qualitative results, as well as the reported and actual use of MTS and L2 use. The discussion of each RQ generally follows the presentations of findings in the previous chapter; however, the findings presented in one section in the previous chapter could be discussed across several RQs because they are related.

Links to the existing literature i.e., what the literature says about MTS, student motivation and L2 use is included throughout this chapter; MTS is interpreted according to Dörnyei's taxonomy (2001); The discussion of student motivation is mainly based on Dörnyei's L2MSS (2005) theory, the motivation model used in this study. The model of student motivation investigated quantitatively is both per component and as a complete model when looking at its relationship with the other two variables i.e., MTS and L2 use. The findings of previous research regarding the three variables are also compared to find out what the current research has contributed to the field of the knowledge as previewed in the introduction chapter.

Alternatively stated, this chapter highlights what is original or not in this study. The summary is provided at the end of the chapter.

6.2. RQ1: What is the motivational orientation in terms of L2MSS among Indonesian EFL students in the classroom?

As a reminder, the L2MSS model (modified from the instruments employed in Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012) was used to measure the reported student motivation in this study. The instrument was to investigate both the internal (i.e., Ideal and Ought to Selves) and external motivation (i.e., learning experience) of the students in Indonesian English Department at three institutions with four self guides i.e., Own Ideal, Own Ought to, Other Ideal and Other Ought to selves. The focus of the L2 motivation model on this study was on learning experience and the levels Others rather than the nature of focus and changes.

In this regard, the internal consistency (α) of Other Ideal/Ought-to selves constructs in the questionnaire shown in Table 5.2. were above .80 while for Own Ideal/Ought-to Selves were above .60. This suggests some students might interpret the items in the latter as more intrinsic while some others as more extrinsic. Therefore, the dimensions appear between intrinsic and extrinsic ultimately conceptualising the extrinsic-intrinsic as gradual rather than neat classification.

Furthermore, the findings show that the students were internally motivated and significantly influenced by external motivation i.e., learning experience which also had an impact on their linguistic confidence (see Table 5.3). The students' goals in English learning in the future i.e., Ought to and Ideal English selves were their strong motivation towards learning the language particularly in their Own Ought English self. In other words, the Own Ought to Self is more dominant than the Ideal Self corroborating the study of ESL university students in the United States (Papi et al., 2018).

The findings suggest that Indonesian students of HE EFL classrooms were highly motivated to learn English; they had particular interest and goals for learning English for themselves as well as for fulfilling other selves' expectation of their learning English. The findings are

relatively similar to previous studies revealing that the main predictor of efforts to learn L2 in many contexts (e.g. Alshahrani, 2016; Csizėr & Lukács, 2010; Islam, et al., 2013; Kormos, et. al, 2011; Li, 2014; Thomson & Erdil-Moody, 2016; Ueki & Takeuchi) including the Saudi Arabia, New Zealand, Turkey, Pakistan, China, Japan, Indonesia, Chile, and Hungary is a learner's self vision. This is also consistent with the previous study on L2 motivation in Indonesia particularly in the metropolitan city school students (Lamb, 2012). The findings of this study differ from the previous ones in the Own Ought to Self. In addition, the findings are also different from the Pakistani context (Islam, et. al, 2013) in which the learners' attitude towards learning and their Ideal L2 self determine their learning motivation.

In particular, Other Ideal and Other Ought-to English selves which includes *lecturers, parents, and friends* strongly influenced the students' motivation in this study. This is relevant because first the students in this context study English as their major. They decided to learn the language as their main programme in the first place probably due to their personal interest in the language and/or the others' (people around them) support and influence. Lecturers could be direct and real examples for the students to motivate them to learn the language as the students claimed in the focus groups that they motivated to learn the language by looking at how their lecturers valued their learning experiences to the students (i.e., S5 & S12).

Then, generally, *parents* predominantly support their children to learn English in Indonesia. People who are able to communicate in English in Indonesia could gain respect from others and have bright futures and careers. Those graduating from the English language would have various options for their career paths such as e.g. being English teachers for formal and informal education, officers in Foreign Affairs, NGOs, civil servants and working for international companies and organizations. The graduates will increase their chance to get good jobs if they have skills in the English language. In regard to this, *friends* and other *people* normally have positive attitudes towards students of English. Despite limited use of English, the usefulness of language is acknowledged by the nation.

In addition, the findings from quantitative data also revealed that the students' motivation is influenced by their confidence in learning the language (i.e., linguistic confidence dimension). One possible explanation to this is that the students could be confident with English since they learned the language as their 'main value' rather than 'added value' like for non-English programme students indicating that language is more strongly embodied for the students learning the language as their main programme. Furthermore, the students were motivated to learn English and had strong confidence in learning the language particularly due to the fact that English is the most popular foreign language in Indonesia. According to my personal and professional experience and observations, people generally have positive perceptions on this programme and even many are proud of learning the language in higher education particularly for the students coming out of town (the capital city), rural areas or villages. The students might see themselves as people who have the ability to understand and communicate in the most popular and used language in the world, English (i.e, Ideal Own).

The qualitative data also shows that the students understood and could recognize the importance or usefulness of English now and in the future either for their career or the world. Both the lecturers and the students mentioned the importance of English in the interviews and focus-groups discussion. They perceived English is useful first as an international language (i.e., L01, 02, 04, S1, S5, S6, S7, & S9), the language used to communicate between nations.

Another usefulness of English is that it is a language at work particularly at international level or requirements to get a job such as an interview according to both groups of participants (i.e., L01, 02, 04, S1, S6, S8, & S9). Then, the two groups (i.e., L03, 04, S1, S4, & S8) also perceived that English as useful because it is the language in many fields including education. Thus, the lecturers and the students in this study seem to be aware of the usefulness of English and this could explain why the students' vision of learning English was relatively strong.

Finally, the finding also suggests that the students' interactions with their learning experience positively influenced their motivation. In the classroom context, the lecturers and their teaching strategies has a strong influence on the students' motivation both in a positive way or to motivate and into a negative disposition (demotivate) (Song, 2005). The lecturers and

the students also validated the findings in the interview mentioning that teachers' behaviour (e.g. *enthusiasm in teaching* strategy) and working with classmates (i.e., *group work* strategy) were two examples of a learning environment motivating the students to learn English.

The finding corroborates that students' relationships with teachers (lecturers) and peers affect L2 motivation (e.g. Wesley, 2009); and motivation is evolved essentially through teachers and students interactions (Henry & Thorsen, 2018). Teachers' ability to create a positive classroom environment or a pleasant learning atmosphere (e.g. Chang, 2014) should motivate the students to learn English in this study. The lecturers' and the students' similar perceptions on most strategies (9 out of 16 strategies) analysed earlier might be an explanation for why the students' motivation was strongly influenced by the learning experience dimension of student motivation. In addition, the findings in quantitative data in Chapter 5 of this thesis have shown that there is a relationship between motivational teaching strategies with student motivation which is discussed later in this chapter.

6.3 RQ2:

A. Which motivational teaching strategies do (a) lecturers and (b) students perceive to be most useful and frequently used in EFL classrooms? How do they compare?
B. How do lecturers' actual use of MTS in class compare to self-report of MTS (a) by themselves, and (b) by the students' in EFL classrooms?

Usefulness and frequency use of MTS to learn English is discussed according to perceptions (of lecturers and students) and actual use of the MTS on quantitative and qualitative results respectively. The interpretation and discussion of usefulness of MTS are based on findings reported first by both lecturers and students, then by only lecturers and by only students respectively. The discussion also includes students' preferences of MTS in respect to their level of motivation.

6.3.1 MTS to learn English

Students need support to maintain their motivation in language learning in the classroom; accordingly, teachers (lecturers in this study) should be responsible to support the students'

motivation (Song, 2015) to ensure their success in learning. In this regard, research (e.g. Al-Sharief, 2013) has found that the integration of MTS in teaching is important to motivate and maintain student's motivation including those majoring in English as mentioned in the Literature Review Chapter. Students in this major or programme which are generally more motivated intrinsically compared to those in different majors (e.g. Ngo, et al., 2017) or studying in basic education since these students choose not learn English as their main studies or learn the language by reason of compulsory subject at school.

MTS to learn English is necessary and crucial as Pavelescu (2019) revealed that the feeling of love in English should be supported by teachers; otherwise, students who are initially motivated may eventually lose their interest in learning the language. Therefore, research looking at the importance of MTS in L2 learning has evidenced that student motivation has relations to the MTS (e.g. Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky, et. a., 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Some MTS, however, are effective in EFL classrooms (see Table 3.1) and culturally dependent (Dörnyei, 2001a; Ruesch et al., 2012), while others have no significant correlations or even no positive correlations with student's motivation (e,g., Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014).

In addition, what teachers perceive to be effective to motivate students in learning L2 may not view so by the students (Ruesch et al., 2012, Shousha, 2018) or what students perceive are important may not be implement by the teachers (Deniz, 2010; Kassing, 2011). Therefore, this section discusses not only the usefulness and frequency use of MTS as revealed themes in this study, but also the students' preferences of such strategies.

6.3.1.1 The most useful MTS

- **Lecturers' and students' perceptions**

Most research findings on MTS mentioned previously are consistent to the current study. First, all themes found in this study could be found in Dörnyei's (2001) framework of motivational teaching strategies. In other words, in general, none of MTS to learn found from qualitative data in this study are original including to what the research to date has revealed

either within or outside Indonesian cultural context. *Varying tasks*, for example, was coded as *tasks* in Saudi context (Alshehri, 2013) also mentioned by both teachers and students as motivating and rated as important by teachers in Hungary (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998). Students at any level of motivation in this study favoured various tasks to motivate them to learn English. Tasks in different formats should break monotonous activities leading to motivation increase.

Regarding tasks, the lecturers and most students at any level of motivation in this study viewed that *contact with L2 cultural products* strategy motivated the students to learn English. In regard to this, the lecturers should put priority to use materials for teaching and learning from sources in the English language including texts, audio and visual materials. This is quite understandable and relevant since these students study English as their major at the English Department where English learning and teaching materials should be as authentic as possible. This finding is in line with Kassing (2011) in which the students of English Education Department valued *giving challenging tasks* and *integrating fun activities* strategies which use electronic media such as television and CD players (tasks or activities using L2 cultural products related sources).

Other studies, however, ranked the strategy not important and not frequently used, for example, in Taiwan (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007) and underused in Indonesian EFL classrooms at various levels of education and institutions (Khasbani, 2018). This means, *contact with L2 cultural products* is viewed as useful and should be used more often in Indonesian EFL classrooms. This strategy might support the understanding of learners of the language use in this context for better sources of real and L2 culture related English use; and there is a lack of sources or models of English use in real life situations outside the classroom.

Unfortunately, for the participants of this study, it seems it is not common for lecturers or teachers in Indonesia teaching English in formal education using authentic materials or sources of English in the classrooms including texts, audio and visual materials such as newspapers, newsletters, brochures, documentary, or movies. This might be because such materials usually use English which is difficult to understand not only for the students but also for the teachers/lecturers. Apparently, many teachers or lecturers rely on materials from

textbooks (Rusmawaty, Atmowardoyo, Hamra & Noni, 2018) which are often outdated as new books are quite expensive and difficult to find.

In terms of audio and visual materials, classrooms generally do not support teaching as they are not well equipped with tools for such teaching materials. Most classrooms in this context of study appear to be 'old fashioned' or with minimum interactive teaching equipment such as ICT and many teachers are not competent in using ICT for teaching and learning (Relmasira, Thrupp, & Hunt, 2017). Therefore, the use of different types of teaching materials becomes limited. Appropriate technology installation and competence in using it, then, is necessary as lecturers would be able to integrate technology into teaching using authentic materials in English for effective teaching. Thus, *contact with L2 cultural products strategy* plausibly is perceived useful in Indonesian EFL classrooms.

One lecturer and most of the students at all levels of motivation in the interview also perceived that the lecturer's *L2 use* or English-speaking strategy motivated the students to learn. The finding corroborates the study in the Saudi context (Alshehri, 2013) which was coded under *pleasant classroom atmosphere*. Teachers from various institutions in Saudi also rated *L2 use* as one of important strategies to motivate students to learn English (Moskovsky, et. al, 2013). There is a slight disparity, however, in the preferences in which this strategy was viewed more motivating to learn English for the students at Intermediate level in the Saudi context (Alshehri, 2013). In this context neither the lecturers nor the students mentioned anything about it.

The strategy also confirms the findings of MTS in similar context, Indonesian HE EFL, English Department (Kassing, 2011). This means that all students in this context of study could be motivated to learn the language if the lecturers used or spoke English more in the classroom. This is probably due to the limited or low use of L2 in Asian EFL classrooms like that found in Thai context (Forman, 2013). Therefore, the lecturers in this study should use L2 more because the lecturer's quantity of L2 use could stimulate the students' L2 use (Frohm, 2009) and particularly the students at the English Department would possibly enjoy learning the language more in English rather than those in non-English majors.

Then, *attention to abilities* strategy was viewed as motivating by a lecturer and two students at moderate and low levels of motivation. This is particularly relevant for the students to build up their confidence as appearing in Dörnyei's framework of motivational strategies (2001a) included in *maintaining and protecting motivation* motivational teaching dimension under *build up confidence* macro strategy. Building up or *promoting student confidence* was found effective according to teachers' views across contexts e.g. Saudi context (Alqahtani, 2016; Alshehri, 2013), Western/North America, Hungary and Taiwan (Ruesch, et al., 2012).

Results from this study, therefore, suggest that the lecturers need to find ways to make students with moderate and low motivation aware that they are capable of using and improving their skills in the English language. Mentioning that English is not difficult to study to the students, making the students believe that they could master it, and (supporting) involvement in the classroom activities are two examples that the lecturer and the students claimed respectively on how to pay attention on the students' abilities to motivate them to learn English in this study .

Working in *pairs or group work* mentioned by both lecturers and students in this study is, furthermore, found in Saudi (e.g. Alshehri, 2013) and Indonesian EFL classrooms (Kassing, 2011; Lamb, et. al, 2016). This indicates that this strategy is useful in Indonesian EFL context particularly in higher institutions and secondary schools. However, in terms of degree of importance, *pair/group work* strategy was not considered as important as in the other studies (e.g. Guilloteaux, 2013; Alrabai, 2011), because this strategy was mentioned only by a lecturer and a student with moderate level of motivation. Students at the moderate level of motivation might find this strategy useful in particular as they could enjoy working with classmates more than the other students at low and high levels of motivation. In other words, based on qualitative data, most lecturers and students in this study did not find this strategy *very* useful to motivate students to learn English.

However, to a certain extent, it can be said that the lecturers and students perceived that all the above strategies discussed i.e., *varying tasks*, *contact with L2 cultural products, L2 use, attention to abilities, and pair/group work* were useful to motivate the students to learn English in this context. Obviously, these strategies require quite dynamic and interactive

learning activities in the classroom. This means, first, that the lecturers should be able to convince students that they are able to do or perform tasks assigned, emphasizing on their abilities.

To make the students interested in the tasks, the lecturers, then, should prepare relatively interesting tasks with various activities using sources preferred in English or authentic materials. It is important to note that the students would feel motivated to learn if the tasks or activities require interactions with peers in pairs or group work. To motivate the students to learn, the use of English by the lecturers should be the basis of the classroom instructions. The lecturers' use of English and pair or group work activities should not only motivate the students to learn but also use the language in their learning stimulating the students' use of the language and providing opportunities for each individual student to practise.

In addition, *accepting mistakes* strategy mentioned by both lecturers and students, is not against *correcting mistakes* strategy (e,g., Kassing, 2011); the lecturers and the students here referred to *accepting mistakes* strategy to encourage the students to learn English, to see mistakes as part of learning. This strategy in Saudi context, however, it was included in *learner confidence* strategy which is obviously used to build up the students' confidence (Alshehri, 2013).

Correcting mistakes is important in learning and the students should accept it positively for improvement if the lecturers correct their mistakes, rather than feeling 'not good enough' in English or 'embarrassed' of making mistakes. One lecturer and one student at a low level of motivation viewed that making mistakes should not discourage or stop the students from learning. Instead, the students (especially at a low level of motivation) should take part in learning more and learn from their mistakes; in other words, the students should not feel worried about making mistakes in learning. This strategy seems important at English Department as this strategy was also mentioned by teachers in Saudi EFL (Alrabai, 2011) as the second frequent use of strategy in similar departments like in this study.

Presenting models strategy in which the lecturers indicated the people who succeeded in learning English, was viewed as motivating for students to learn. This strategy is relatively

different from *comparison* found in Ruesch (2012) and *being a role model* coded and included in *teacher behaviour* strategy in Alshehri (2013. *Comparison* refers to strategy when lecturers avoid social comparison among students which were found motivating in Hungary and Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998) contexts particularly for 'weaker' students (Ruesch, 2012); while *being a role model* refers to being a good teacher or lecturer allows the students to have more interactions with the teachers or lecturers (Alshehri, 2013).

In this study context, according to some lecturers and students particularly with high and moderate levels of motivation, successful people in learning English may inspire the students to succeed in learning English and be like those presented by their lecturers. These people could be anybody such as (younger) students in other institutions, classmates or other people that the students may or not know personally. The lecturers' presenting real examples or models of people that succeed in their lives by learning English is important for the students.

Both the lecturers and the students then viewed that the lecturer's strategy to remind the students about their reason and vision of learning English for future goals or *importance of L2* strategy motivates the students to learn the language. The finding is in alignment with *Ideal L2 self* strategy in Saudi context (Alshehri, 2013) and mentioned by teachers and students as well; and *the importance of English* also viewed by teachers at provincial schools in Indonesia (Lamb et al, 2016) as motivating. The lecturers need to prompt the students with moderate and low motivation in this study about what they would like to do with their English in the future to motivate them to learn English.

The *importance of L2 strategy* is quite relevant as students opting learning English as their major, particularly at English Language and Literature programme, two institutions in this study, might feel less confident about what they would do after studying the language at university level compared to those at Teaching and Education Department, one institution included in this study. Careers for graduates from English Language and Literature programmes in Indonesia are often not straightforward. There are no direct specific professions for the graduates from this programme; however, they could work at various institutions or companies that require an undergraduate degree or English language expertise.

Therefore, the students at moderate and low level of motivation in this study need a 'reminder' or reassurance of the instrumental values of L2, the importance of learning English, to improve their motivation to learn the language (Dörnyei, 2001a).

Encouragement to use L2 was also viewed as motivating to learn in this study by a lecturer and a student probably for culturally contextual reasons. This strategy, however, is hardly found in the previous studies. In Indonesia, students should be encouraged to use spontaneous English in particular. However, spontaneous use of English in Indonesian EFL classrooms is often difficult due to many problems such as unsatisfactory language skills (i.e., pronunciation, fluency, grammar and vocabulary), anxiety (due to low confidence, being shy to speak, fear of making mistakes and being nervous); and lack of other skills like reading, participation in the classroom activities and speaking English practice inside and outside the classrooms (Sayuri, 2016). This is ingrained in the culture of pedagogy and leads to a vicious circle i.e., students starting learning English are not accustomed to free speech in English and their speaking does not improve as their language level improves, hence behaviours get ingrained.

The finding corroborates that there are some factors that make students reluctant to use the target language in the classroom as mentioned in the Literature Chapter e.g. foreign language anxiety (e.g. Rastegar & Karamer, 2015; Savaşçı, 2013; Alemi, Daftarifard, & Patrut, 2011), fear of making mistakes (Souriyavongsa, et al., 2013; Savaşçı, 2013), embarrassment and lack of confidence (Yalçın & İnceçay, 2014; Tokoz-Goktepe, 2014). Therefore, support and encouragement are necessary for students to speak or express him/herself particularly in L2 or English. This is especially important for students with low motivation in this study. These students may feel supported and become more motivated to learn English when they receive encouragement to use the language as discussed above.

- **Lecturers' perceptions**

Contact with L2 speaker was raised only by the lectures in this study (see Table 5.21) while in Alshehri's (2013) study, it was mentioned by the students as *communicating with L2 speakers* online or in person when going on holiday. *Contact with L2 speakers* was perceived

as motivating for students to learn English by the lecturers in this study because the lecturers may feel that the students become more motivated when they can have a conversation with a native speaker of English. Speakers of English especially natives or people from Western countries, are often regarded as 'better' people since they come from developed countries.

The lecturers may also think that having contact with these 'better' people in English could motivate the students to learn the language as the natives speak English 'better' compared even to the lecturers themselves. However, unlike in Saudi HE EFL context (Alshehri, 2013), the students in this study did not feel that having contact with a native speaker of English would boost their motivation to learn the language. The students in this context may feel that practising their English with their lecturers and peers was enough to motivate them to learn the language. This is probably because it is not common for the students in this context to have contact with native English speakers online or in person abroad as they cannot afford it particularly for the last reason.

Rapport was also mentioned motivating students to learn English only by the lecturer in this study. A good relationship between teachers and students is essential in L2 motivation (e.g. Henry & Thorsen, 2018; Wesley, 2009.) This teaching strategy has been one of the most popular MTS and transferable across contexts as indicated in the previous studies such as Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998), Indonesia (Kassing, 2011; Khasbani, 2018; Lamb, et.al, 2016), and ranked as important strategy in in Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), Korea (Guilloteaux; 2013), the USA (Ruesch, et, al.,2012), and Saudi (Shousha, 2018).

Different from the studies in similar contexts (Kassing, 2011), students in this study did not consider good relationships with lecturers would motivate them to learn English. This shows that MTS preference by students may be different in similar context i.e., Indonesian HE EFL, private institutions. The previous study (Kassing, 2011) involved lecturers and students in Eastern HE context while the present study had participants of similar groups in Western, HE EFL context.

Regarding location, the preferences of MTS might be due to socio-economic conditions. Socio-economic condition is one of aspects that contributes to disparity of education between

Eastern and Western Indonesia (Azzizah, 2015); Students in eastern provinces of Indonesia may be more dependent on their lecturers in learning than those in the western parts of the country who experience more development particularly in educational facilities and opportunities. Therefore, good relationships with lecturers at English Department might be more favoured by the students in the Eastern educational institution of Indonesia compared to the West which is the setting of the current study.

- **Students' perceptions**

Though both lecturers and students in this study have similar perceptions on most strategies to motivate the students to learn English, there are distinct preferences by the two groups. The findings corroborate that teachers and students have different perceptions on strategies as found in previous studies (e.g. Kassing, 2011; Ruesch et al., 2012; Wong, 2013). The strategies perceived motivating only by the students in this study are discussed next.

Humour, the first strategy that students at all levels of motivation in this study favoured, is found in Saudi (Moskovsky, et al., 2013), China (Wong, 2013) and Indonesian (Lamb, et. al, 2016) EFL classrooms. The strategy is also one important selected in a control group experiment in the former and coded under *rapport* (Lamb, et al., 2016) together with *being friendly* and *being serious* revealed from teacher interviews, learners' responses in surveys and focus groups, and class observations in the latter. The strategy is also rated as one of characteristics of best teacher in Indonesian EFL classroom (Liando, 2010) and included in Saudi university context (Alrabai, 2011) in *creating a pleasant climate* (Shousha, 2018). This may be understandable as (HE EFL) classroom situations in the context of this study is often very formal and controlled more by the lecturers (Tanjung, 2018).

Students in this study also generally come from middle to low socioeconomic background and move from villages or rural areas/suburb staying in the city for further education. This means that these students may have relatively low self confidence in the classroom which is found as one of the factors contributing to anxiety of students learning English in higher education classroom in Indonesia (Weda & Sakti, 2018). Lecturers, therefore, could reduce

students' anxiety and boost their motivation to learn English (Tahernezhad, Behjat & Kargar, 2014) by using *humour* when teaching.

Enthusiasm in teaching mentioned by students with high and low motivation appears in Indonesian context (Khasbani, 2018) and on the top rank of the important MTS in Korean (Guilloteaux; 2013) setting under *teacher behaviour* strategy. The finding validates that teacher enthusiasm towards teaching is crucial to the motivating L2 classroom environment (Chang, 2014). Students with high motivation may lose their interest or experience motivation decrease and those with low motivation might not increase their motivation to learn English if the lecturers are not enthusiastic in teaching. Actively moving in the class rather than sitting at the desk most of the time, having a good presence, being energetic and smiling are some examples of being enthusiastic about teaching that students mentioned in this study.

V*aluing L2 learning* strategy is particularly motivating with the high motivation students in this study. The students may feel motivated when they could see their lecturers' appreciation of their own English learning and how the learning has impact on their lecturers' lives in a positive way. In the context of Saudi (Alshehri, 2013), however, this strategy was mentioned by both the teachers and the students as *sharing teachers' L2 experiences* and coded *as teacher behaviour* in Saudi EFL classroom.

Finally, unlike the lecturers in this study, the students claimed some strategies included in the fourth dimension of MTS i.e., *encouraging positive-self- evaluation* (Dörnyei, 2001a) motivating them to learn English. The disparity in preferences between the lecturers and the students in this study validates the findings in previous studies (e.g. Deniz, 2010; Kassing, 2011) that MTS perceived to be important by students were not frequently used or not employed by the teachers/lecturers.

In regard to this, *importance of self-evaluation* and *offering rewards* are two strategies included in the MTS dimension that the students claimed as motivating in this study. Interestingly, the students favoured these two strategies to learn English were at all levels i.e., high, moderate and low of motivation. This suggests that the students at all levels of

motivation regarded self-evaluation on their learning through the evaluation itself and rewards given by the lecturers was useful to motivate them to learn English. Previous studies also revealed that the strategies were useful to motivate students to learn English; for example, *importance of self-evaluation* was ranked as the second important strategy by teachers in Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013), while *offering rewards* was found important in Saudi context (e.g. Alrabai, 2011; Alshehri, 2013) and effective in China (e.g. Wong, 2013).

The students in this study mentioned that they needed to evaluate their learning and find ways to keep learning independently; extra marks, as rewards, are also appreciated by the students and increase their level of motivation. The latter is one strategy that motivates the students directly to participate more and could improve their results or achievement. The students, in fact, mentioned that their lecturers did implement *offering rewards* in their teaching while the lecturers did not mention them. This might be because the lectures did not realize that this strategy was favoured and effective to increase the students' motivation to learn English.

The qualitative findings in the study revealed that the MTS favoured by the students generally relate to most classroom motivational components for learning i.e., lecturer (teacher), tasks, participation and self-evaluation. Therefore, the lectures should consider their students' perceptions of their teaching techniques preferences by having feedback from the students on their teaching performance, for instance. To understand how frequently the MTS is used in the classroom according to both lecturers and students' perceptions in this study, the frequency use of the strategies based on the quantitative and qualitative results is discussed next, after providing a summary of this section. The perceived and actual use of the strategies are also encompassed.

6.3.1.2 Frequency use of MTS

The frequency use of MTS is discussed according to the survey, qualitative and classroom observations results. The lecturers' and the students' perceptions are triangulated with the actual use in the classrooms with referring to the Literature Review Chapter and previous research.

- **Perceived frequency use of MTS by the lecturers and the students**

According to the survey, there are six MTS, which are compatible with the classroom observations (see the instrument in Appendix G), i.e., *having an informal chat, using humour, connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life, promoting contact with English and cultural products, pair work and group work.* Most (4) of these strategies were mentioned in the findings of qualitative data as discussed above. This suggests that the (observable) strategies are generally consistent with those of the perceptions in the survey, lecturer interviews and student focus-groups. The relevancy of the MTS across the data highlights that the MTS are culturally specific and contextually relevant to the current study.

As a reminder, the MTS instrument for survey and classroom observation was modified from the Motivational Language Teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's study (2008) in Korean context. Thus, this confirms that there is no universal MTS possibly applied to all EFL classrooms (Wong, 2014). In addition, based on the mean scores of the reported MTS use (see Table 5.13) the lecturers perceived the frequency use of *all* the MTS was more frequent than the students thought.

The perceived frequency use of MTS quantitatively, survey based, is also in a line with the findings in the qualitative data. Conforming with the interviews and focus-groups results, all lecturers claimed that they used the strategies such as *L2 use*, *presenting models,* and *contact with L2 cultural products and speakers* strategies as *frequently*. Only one lecturer said that she used English to motivate the students to learn *occasionally* in courses in which language is less used (see section 5.4.2.2).

Similarly, most the students perceived that their lecturers used *presenting models*, *contact with cultural products* and *L2 use* strategies *frequently*, while some others claimed the frequency use of the strategies was *sometimes* or *occasionally*. Thus, the pertinent results of the frequency use of MTS according to perceptions of the lecturers and the students both in the survey and qualitative data highlight that the lecturers generally believe that they had used MTS frequently while the students could expect more frequency use of such strategies than what their lecturers had practiced.

6.3.2 Comparison of actual and reported frequency use of MTS

In accordance with 3 classroom observations, the overall use of MTS viewed by the lecturers and the students in the survey are generally relevant to the findings of perceptions by both groups by all participants i.e., the lecturers viewed that they used all MTS (in the survey) more than what the students thought except for *humour* and *connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life* in which the students perceived ($M = 3.4$ & $M=3.5$ respectively) that the lecturers used the strategies (slightly) more often than what the lecturers claimed ($M = 3.3$ & $M=3.0$ respectively), indicated by mean scores (see Table 5.20).

However, there are significant differences between overall reported MTS use by both groups of participants and the actual use of the MTS indicated by mean scores. All actual use of MTS (mean scores between 1 and 2) were practised far less frequent compared to the perceived MTS by both the lecturers (mean scores between 3.0 and 4.7) and the students (mean scores between 3.2 and 3.9). In other words, the actual use and the use of perceived MTS according to the lecturers was *never* to *occasionally used* and *frequently/very frequently used* respectively. This suggests that the lecturers might need more support in practicing the MTS to practice the MTS more frequently than what they could have thought and to meet the expectations of the students. Regarding this, the institutions have an important role to support the lecturers in practicing their MTS by several means such as provision of relevant training, workshops or teaching equipment and learning facilities including IT in the classroom.

In addition, the lecturers might not have an evaluation on the strategies in their teaching practice which included the students' perspectives. While it is true that lecturers or teachers should know better what teaching practice, they would implement in their teaching to motivate the students to learn, students' views should be considered thoughtfully particularly for adult students like in this study because these students are independent and should know which MTS work best for them to increase their motivation not only to learn English but also to speak the language as subsequently discussed below.

6.4 RQ3: How does student motivation relate to students' self-report of (a) the lecturers' MTS use (b) the amount of students' L2 use (c) lecturers' L2 use in EFL classrooms?

Students majoring in English would be mostly motivated to learn the language though some may perceive it otherwise (i.e., Al-Sharief, 2013). Therefore, this research measured the student motivation in relations to the MTS practised by their lecturers after one year of study in the English programme at three different institutions. The students participated from years 2 to 4 (first degree in Indonesia lasts for 4 years). Before discussing the relations between student motivation and L2 use, the MTS to use L2 was discussed by comparing and contrasting the lecturers' and the students' perceptions on the motivational strategies. This is to support the discussion of the relations between (1) student motivation and their use of L2 and (2) student motivation and lecturers' L2 use.

6.4.1 MTS to use L2 (English)

The goal of learning a language is often to be fluent and able to communicate in the language (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010) including learning English like those, student participants in this study, learning English as their major. However, in the EFL context like in Indonesia, this is not always easy and straightforward. Broadly speaking, in the EFL learning context, using and speaking the language is influenced by many factors either at individual levels such as anxiety or classroom situations such as lecturer's strategies in teaching. Regarding motivation, according to the findings in this study, lecturers at the English Department should be able to find the right teaching strategies to motivate the students to use and speak the language in the classroom. Results in this study, therefore, has highlighted some strategies motivating for the students to speak English in the classroom. The discussion is to compare and to contrast the perceptions of the two groups of participants in this study, the lecturers and the students, on MTS to use (speak) L2 (English).

- **Comparison of lecturers' and students' perceptions**

The findings reveal that both lecturers and students in this study viewed that *reward and punishment* and *becoming a role model* strategies were motivating for the students to speak English (see Table 5.28). Specifically, most lecturers and students at all levels of motivation

viewed that *reward and punishment* motivated the students to speak English. This finding suggests that the lecturers and the students tend to expect the lecturers to control their motivational strategies to make the students speak the language as Hornstra et. al (2015) says that "When perceiving a lack of intrinsic motivation from students, teachers might tell students what to do or motivate them by grades or other forms of rewards or punishments" (p. 366).

While the group of students in this study should be intrinsically motivated compared to those majoring in the other programme (e.g. Ngo, et al., 2017), they might find it rather difficult to speak English spontaneously as the language is not used outside the classroom. In addition, the language could be not practised enough in the previous level of education, secondary schools, despite much effort in learning the language outside the classroom (Lamb, 2004b). Thus, as the findings show speaking English while learning is likely to be conditioned or 'forced' by the lecturers if the students are to speak English more. The reward and punishment mentioned by lecturers 01 and 03, for example, that the students had to pay some money if they had not used English in Speaking but lecturer 04 only suggested that this would be an effective strategy to make the students speak English. Student S9 also confirms punishment i.e., paying some money while the other student i.e., S11 perceived reward by means of extra marks to motivate the students to speak English.

The findings also indicate that the lecturers' *becoming a role model* or the lecturers' (capability of) speaking English was motivating for the students to speak the language which validates that students' L2 communication is better if teachers'/lecturers' L2 use is evident to the students, exposure to L2 use is important to improve students' proficiency (e.g. Thompson, 2006) and significant use of L2 would decrease L1 use (Mayo & Hidalgo, 2017) in the classroom which is necessary to gain the students' fluency.

The lecturer i.e., L3 mentioned that it depended on the lecturers if they wanted to see the students use the language, some lecturers still use L1 in teaching even the Module was in English. The students, however, more precisely mentioned that if they witnessed the lecturers spoke English in the classroom, they would like to be like their lecturers, capable of using the language (i.e., S9) and if their lecturers spoke English to them they would have responded

them in English as well (i.e., S11). Thus, the lecturers' use of L2 here is a model for the students to motivate the students to speak the language in the English Department where the lecturers normally have ability and high proficiency in using the language. Both groups of participants confirmed this. However, some differences on other strategies were also revealed in this study which is discussed in the following section.

- **Contrasts of lecturers and students' perceptions**

Like MTS to learn English, the results show that the lectures and the students in this study also had contradictions on MTS to use the language in the classroom (see Table 5.28). The only lecturers' preferences to motivate the students to speak English revealed in this study were quite similar to those of motivating the students to learn the language i.e., *using authentic materials, reducing language anxiety* and *pleasant circumstances* suggesting that the lecturers might use similar strategies on MTS to motivate the students to learn and to use English. *Using authentic materials* is like *contact with L2 cultural products*; *reducing language anxiety* is relatively close to *building the students' confidence* ;and *pleasant circumstances* is almost identical to *creating supportive atmosphere*. In other words, the lecturers' strategies to motivate students for two purposes i.e., to learn and to speak L2 were overlapped or interchangeable.

However, the findings suggest that the only students' preferences on MTS to speak English emphasise the use of the language itself i.e., *L2 use with peers, L2 use on tasks* for the students at all level of motivation, and *commitment for success* (in using the language) for the students with moderate and low levels of motivation. The findings reveal 'a continuum process' of strategy to use L2 i.e., the students in this study perceived, through learning experiences, that the more they used English (with peers and on tasks) the higher the motivation they had to speak the language; the stronger commitment for success, reminded and supported by the lecturers, the more likely the students to use or speak English.

The students' L2 use with peers and on tasks strategies found in the study suggest that more opportunities are required to use or speak (practise) the language. Thus, the strategies have relevance to the previous study in similar context (Kassing, 2011) in which the students

mentioned that *giving a chance to perform* (speaking skills) motivated them to learn the language. However, the findings indicate that it is not apparent if the lecturers realized that the L2 use related strategies, which is the real L2 use itself, preferred by the students. For this reason, it is important to look at what strategies the students' favoured to learn and to use (speak) the language to bring about their success in learning the language.

Like MTS to learn, students' preferences of strategies motivating them to use the language is also important to take into account. To speak L2, according to the students revealed in the findings, lecturers should use effective teaching strategies to motivate the students to speak the language with strategies meeting their expectation i.e., encourage them to use English, use materials in English, assign tasks in English and provide L2 use with peers or classmates. Students' participation in planning their learning activities meeting their needs and motivating them to speak has been revealed in speaking literature (e.g. Zhang & Head, 2010). Students perform significant speaking progress in China after their teacher gets them involved in designing their learning activities (Zhang & Head, 2010). Therefore, relevant strategies to motivate the students to learn and to use the English should be effective to allow the students to use L2 more.

6.4.2 Relationships between student motivation and MTS

L2 motivation in the classroom is dynamic and related to the context of learning (e.g. Waninge, Dörnyei & De Bot, 2014). In this regard, teachers or lecturers facilitating the learning have an important role in influencing the student motivation. Teaching strategies to motivate the students to learn and to use L2 in this context have been discussed above and now this section will discuss the student motivation and its relationship with the lecturers' teaching strategies based on findings from quantitative and qualitative data. How students are motivated i.e., which motivation dimension determines student motivation in this context is included and subsequently followed by the relationship between the MTS and student motivation.

The quantitative data showed that there is a positive relationship between reported frequency use of MTS and student motivation $r_{s=}$ .345, $p < .001$, two-tailed, $N = 215$ (see Table 5.23). This suggests that (frequent) lecturers' use of strategies in teaching would enhance student

motivation as previously indicated in other research either based on the students' self perceptions on both variables (e.g. Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Walker, 2016) or classroom observations by looking at MTS (frequency) use and the students' motivated behaviour (e.g. Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014). The findings furthermore endorse that the student motivation in the English Department in this study is generally influenced by their lecturers' MTS use. This is also relevant to what the lecturers and students said in the interviews and focus-group discussions respectively on MTS use.

The fact that the relationship between the MTS and student motivation was not very strong or significant ($r_{s=}$ .345) could be explained by the qualitative findings. Based on qualitative findings, the relationships of MTS perceived by the two groups of participants are comparable in some ways and incomparable in other ways (see Table 5.21). Lecturers and students from all institutions, for example, mainly perceived that *varying tasks* and *contact with L2 cultural products* strategies motivated the students to learn English. However, the lecturers mentioned some strategies (i.e., *contact with L2 speakers* and *rapport*) motivated the students to learn English while the students did not mention them at all. The students also favoured some MTSs (i.e., *offering rewards, importance of self-evaluation, valuing L2 learning* and *humour*) that the lecturers did not bring them up at any time in the interview.

In addition, from three classroom observations, discussed in section 6.3.1.2 above, the findings showed that the lecturers' frequency use of MTS were different from what the lecturers and the students reported (see Table 5.20). The study found that the actual use of most strategies was *not used* i.e. calculated up to 20% of one lesson time (in minutes) and only *pair work* strategy observed was rated *occasionally used* (i.e., up to 40 % of the lesson time).

However, the lecturers rated most strategies were as *frequently used,* and the students *sometimes used* or *frequently*. The findings suggest that both lecturers and students had perceived the strategy use as *frequent* according to their experience in teaching and learning respectively, while the classroom observations found that the frequency use based on the one lesson time *was almost not used*. These might suggest that the lecturers and the students perceive use of strategies as adequate, at least in the case of most strategies, particularly the

lecturers. Some strategies were judged to enhance the student motivation particularly well. The findings might also suggest that the use of MTS observed here might be unrepresentative due to one time of data collection across three classroom observations.

Enhancement of student motivation, however, might be better if the lecturers could also recognise and employ appropriate MTS which are favoured by the students. This is important since the students themselves experience the learning and the effectiveness MTS use in their learning. Lee (2017) argues that ineffective use of motivational strategies could give an explanation why some students experience static L2 motivation and their learning performance appears to be poor or less successful. Lee's research (2017), which focuses on students' perceptions rather than on the teachers' views on teaching strategies, collected student's feedback on how to implement MTS better to meet the students' expectations and enhance their motivation.

In the qualitative study, 32 regularly used L2 motivational strategies were selected in nine English classes (based on the teachers' reported use of the strategies); feedback on the implementation of the strategies was collected from 26 students using reflective journals and interviews during a semester in a tertiary institution in Hong Kong. The study has revealed that students complained about ineffective strategies use due to several characteristics such as uninteresting, irrelevant and undesirable materials (Lee, 2017). In addition, the study found that some students appeared unmotivated by strategies generating interest and supporting enhancement of L2 performance which invalidated the prevalent ideas of internal-external concept; the students, however, preferred L2 mastery rather than the performance.

The study also gathered useful comments to ameliorate ineffectiveness of strategy use. The students claimed that interventions of teachers, tasks, amount of work, difficulty, variety, and familiarity of materials would enhance effectiveness of strategy use (Lee. 2017); this suggests that the students valued strategies benefitting them and supporting their learning in practice. In the study, for instance, the students mentioned that they would learn and participate more if the teachers stimulate individual contribution by offering extra marks. Another example, the students also claimed that the teachers' frequent support during group work or teachers' demonstrating their skills in pronunciation and presentations boosted their motivation. In

other words, the students are more motivated in learning if the lecturers employ 'beneficial' strategies for the students to learn better and promote significant improvement in their skills. The lecturers, then, could observe and evaluate the students' enthusiasm and/or participation in learning as an indicator of the effectiveness and appropriateness and the frequency use of MTS.

6.4.3 Relationship between students' motivation and their use of L2

L2 use or speaking in the target language is one of the skills that students need to learn and acquire for the L2 mastery particularly in oral communication. Yet, many students appear to encounter challenges to use the language when learning. Accordingly, teachers need to employ appropriate strategies to support the students to use L2 and develop their proficiency and fluency in the language. In the context of Indonesia, limited use of English or L2 use outside the classroom challenges the teachers to implement the right strategies and any aspects necessary to promote the students' L2 use.

In spite of many factors influencing students to use L2 in the classroom as mentioned in the Literature Chapter, student motivation to use the L2 (Levine, 3003) and teachers' use of the language (Sešek, 2005) are some important aspects contributing to the students L2 use. Teachers' provision of L2 (instructions) would be a model for the students to participate in using L2 (Levine, 2003; Sešek, 2005). However, teachers' teaching strategies and their L2 use to promote the students' L2 use are various depending on many aspects including the teachers' proficiency (e.g. Kang. 2013; Reynolds-case, 2012) and the learning contexts (e.g. Liu, 2006). In short, the teachers and what they do in class determine the students' L2 use.

Student motivation might have a relationship with L2 achievement (e.g. Bernaus & Gardner, 2008) or have no relationship with L2 learning outcomes e.g. grammatical skills (Binalet & Guerra, 2014). With the reports from the students on their motivation and L2 use in the classroom, it was found that there is a negative relationship between the two variables (see *Figure 5.3*) suggesting students who were motivated to learn English would not necessarily speak English more than others. Then, this is very important to highlight that there should be other aspects affecting motivated students in speaking English in HE EFL classrooms or students speaking English in the classroom was not undoubtedly influenced by their

motivation in learning English. Proficiency (Lee & Lo, 2017), and interaction (Hernández, 2010), for example, influence motivated students in using L2.

Thus, student motivation by itself might not have strong affection on their speaking English (L2) in the classrooms. Lack of opportunities to speak in L2 is also one problem found in speaking L2 in an English Education programme at a tertiary teacher training institution in Hong Kong (Gan, 2012). The teacher students in the programme had insufficient opportunities to speak English and develop their communication skills orally because the teaching style of all lecturers was 'didactic' and 'transmissional' in lectures and tutorials mass classes (Gan, 2012, p.51) indicating that the lecturers dominantly talked (in English) in the classroom.

Despite different factors influencing motivated students to use L2, ample opportunities to speak the language is possibly quite relevant for students in Indonesia EFL classrooms allowing their use of L2 since there are very limited opportunities to use the language outside the classrooms. The appropriate setting and environment become very essential for the students (of English) to practise speaking the language. It becomes sensible when recalling my personal and professional experiences, meeting students majoring in English and a graduate from English programme in my conversational classes at different English institutions providing (informal) English courses. They said that the reasons for them to join the class was to practise speaking English with others (classmates). This means that these motivated students seek more opportunities to use L2 because they probably did not have enough opportunity to use the language in their programme of study i.e., English.

Lecturers and students claimed that *reward and punishment* strategy motivated the students to speak English. One lecturer and students from all institutions also mentioned that *becoming a role model* or lecturers' L2 use strategy motivated the students to speak English. Lecturers' L2 use and 'forcing strategy' i.e., rewards and punishment were important to motivate the students to motivate the students to speak the language. This corroborates with Klimova's study (2011) suggesting that students at higher education preferred activities and learning materials stimulating English use more and they also expected teachers or lecturers to 'push' them to speak the language. This might indicate that the young adult students are

more motivated to use the language as they are able to take more responsibility or 'pressure' on their studies compared to those at lower level of education.

The qualitative findings in this study (section 5.5.2.3) also revealed that all lecturers and some students perceived that there is a relationship between student motivation and learning achievement which is grades. The two groups of participants mentioned that the students who are highly motivated to learn will have good grades. However, most students claimed that there is *no* relationship between student motivation and grades. This suggests that students who are highly motivated to learn will not necessarily have good grades or there might be other aspects that influence their learning achievement other than their motivation e.g. efforts (i.e. S1), low interest (i.e., S3) and intelligence (i.e., S1). Though this study has measured the relationship between student motivation and students' L2 achievement i.e., students' L2 use, this is not the purpose of this study. As a reminder, the purpose of this study was not to measure motivation and L2 achievement or outcomes directly rather to improve outcomes i.e., the students' use of L2, in relation to their motivation.

In relations to qualitative findings, according to the students in all institutions, lecturers should use efficient teaching strategies to motivate the students to speak the language e.g., encourage them to use English, use materials in English and assign tasks in English. The strategies motivating and supporting them in using the language pertaining to *promotion target language (L2)* strategy in the classroom included in *generating initial motivation* dimension of MTS (Dörnyei; 2001a). The strategies fall under macro strategies in the taxonomy i.e., *promote integrative values* and *increase the students' expectancy of success*. Students in the English programme valued the L2 use in any aspects of their learning to bring about their success. Lecturers' L2 use, students' L2 use, tasks using L2 use and commitment to success in using L2 were all relevant strategies to motivate the students to learn and to speak the language (see section 6.4.1).

While it is important to boost motivation to learn, it is also necessary for the lecturers to use the language by themselves and to provide opportunities for the students to use the language. Motivated students might not be fluent in the language if there is *not* enough practice or use of the language particularly in the classroom. Appropriate strategies motivated students to

learn English without opportunities for the students to speak the language would not be enough to make the students use L2. Thus, the relationships between MTS to learn, MTS to speak L2 and L2 use in the classroom can be described as a pyramid with opportunities alongside pointing the direction of practising MTS to learn from the base, to MTS to speak in the middle structure, and L2 use on the top, shown in *Figure 6.1* below.
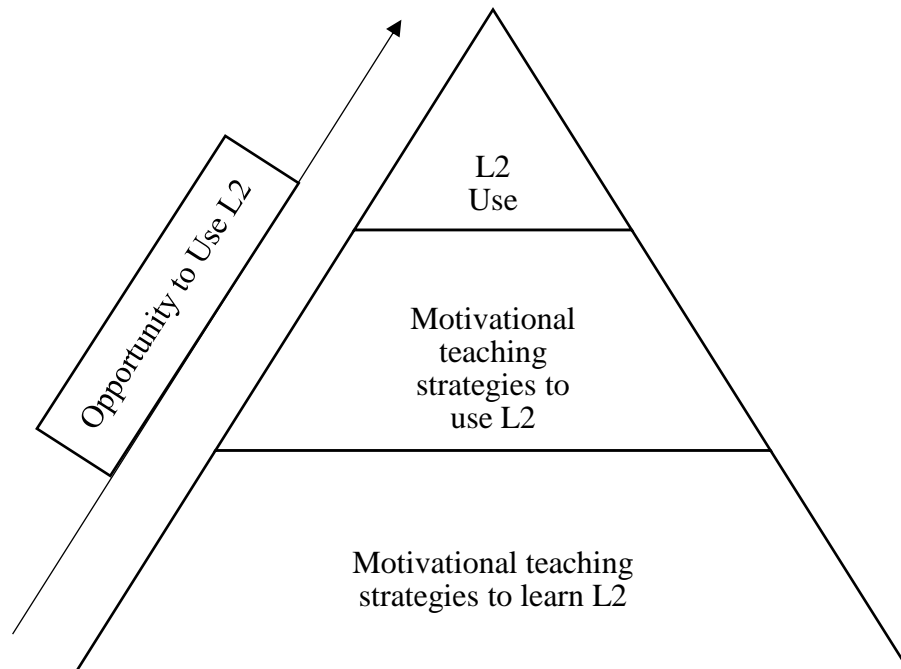

Figure 6.1 Motivational teaching strategies and L2 use pyramid

The figure above suggests that MTS to learn should encourage the students to use L2; motivational strategies using L2 motivates the students to learn and to use the language simultaneously. Therefore, in Indonesian HE EFL classroom the use of L2 is extremely important as it serves as MTS to learn and to use the language as well. The lecturers and especially the students' speaking English in the classroom is motivating the students to learn English and to speak the language. In other words, L2 use as motivational strategies increase student motivation and allow them to use L2 which is often the ultimate goal of L2 learning. Thus, the relationships of MTS to learn English and to speak the language are so dynamic in this study.

What motivates the students to learn i.e., lecturer's L2 use, would motivate the students to speak the L2 as the students see their lecturers as a model for them to use the language. Being a model of using the language motivates the students to use the language. Then, the students' L2 use of the language also boosts their motivation to speak the language. The quantitative and qualitative findings are supporting and interrelated in revealing the relationship between student motivation and their use of L2. To conclude, MTS to learn and to speak English in this study particularly in the area of the promotion of target language use stimulates the students L2 use.

6.4.4 Relationship between student motivation and lecturers' L2 use

Mentioned in the Literature Chapter of this study, research has revealed that teachers relate to students in L2 motivation (Wesley, 2009). Good teachers influence student motivation to learn not only by good relationships between them (Henry & Thorsen, 2018; Washo & Memon, 2016) but also through good interactions between the teachers and the students creating a motivating classroom environment (Chang, 2014). In L2 classroom, encouragement from teachers to their students motivates the students to learn (Pavelescu, 2019); teachers' provision of L2 is highlighted contributing to the student motivation to learn the language (Christie, 2016). Therefore, this study has measured the relationships between the student motivation and the teachers or lecturers' L2 use.

Based on the quantitative results, student motivation and the lecturers' use L2 use reported by the students was not related. The findings show that there is a negative and very low relationship between student motivation and the lecturers' L2 use (see *Figure 5.4*). However, this is not relevant to the qualitative findings. The qualitative findings on the relationship between student motivation and lecturers' L2 use has been discussed in sections 6.4.1 and 6.4.2 above. The results suggest that there is a positive relationship between student motivation and the lecturers' L2 use according to both lecturers and students. The positive relationship between the two variables corroborates with research on motivation and L2 use. (Christie, 2016, Levine, 2003). Students' motivation is influenced by teachers' L2 use (Christie, 2016) and strategies instructions about L2 use (Levine, 2003).

In this study, lecturers speaking English in class when teaching correlates with student motivation to learn English positively according to the lecturers' and students' views in the interviews and focus-group, suggesting that students of English still view their lecturers as models and source of L2 use for them during their studies. Unlike quantitative results of the relationship between reported lecturers' use of English and student motivation, and their use of L2 above, the findings also suggest that lecturers should be aware of their use of English when teaching as this might have negative relations to student motivation and the students' L2 use. Appropriate amount and quality of lecturers' use of L2 might have positive and strong relationships with the students' motivation and their L2 use and vice versa.

6.5 RQ 4:

A. What is the relationship between students' self report of lecturers' L2 use and the students' L2 use,

B. How does actual L2 use by (a) lecturers and (b) students in EFL classrooms compare to (a) lecturers' self report, and (b) students' self-report of L2 use for both groups?

6.5.1 Relationship between lecturers' and students' L2 use

One important factor that influences students' L2 use in learning is their teachers' use of L2 in the classroom (e.g. Thompson, 2006); teachers' L2 use should encourage and inspire their students to use the language (e.g. Frohm, 2009). In the current study, lecturers at English Department are expected to be capable of using English in oral communication during the learning process and interactions with the students. Apparently, the amount and the quality of their English use in the programme should also be adequate and good enough since they have backgrounds in English, or they might be the experts in the language compared to the other lecturers in non-English backgrounds. Frequent use of English by the lecturers in the classroom might help students to communicate in English naturally (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Therefore, the current study investigated the amount of L2 or English use in the classroom rather than the quality of the language use stated earlier in this thesis.

To measure the L2 use in this study, the lecturers and the students were asked to complete questionnaires assessing how much each group (i.e., the lectures and the students) use or

speak English in one lesson. For instance, the participants could say that the lecturers used 55% and the students 25 % of the time of one lesson using English when speaking in the classrooms; so, if the lesson lasts 1 hour, the lecturers' and the students' L2 use were 33 and 15 minutes respectively. To find out how the lecturers' and the students' L2 use were related, the relationship between the two variables was measured. The quantitative findings revealed that there was a negative relationship between the lecturers' and students' English use in three universities' EFL classrooms (see *Figure 5.5*). The relationship suggests that the more the lecturers use English in the classroom the less the students use the language. *Figure 6.2*. shows the relationship between the lecturers' and the students' L2 use in the classroom.
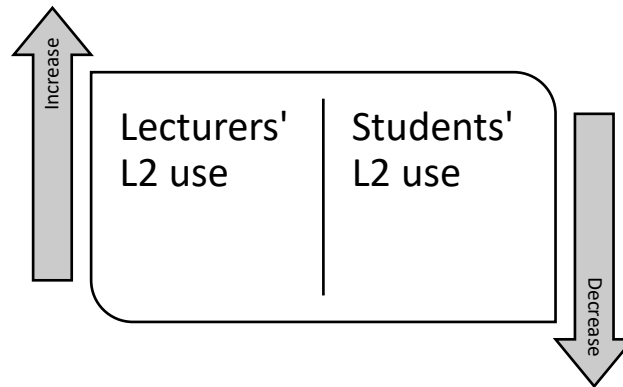

Figure 6.2 Reported lecturers' and students' L2 use relationship

A negative relationship between the lecturers' and the students' L2 use shown in *Figure 6.2* above could indicate several things. One interpretation of the findings would be that lecturers should create more opportunities for their students to speak English in order to increase the students' use of the language in the classrooms or when lecturers speak less, the students will do more. The results might also reveal the typical teaching method or practice in Indonesian HE which generally employs teacher-centred rather than student-centred learning approach (Ameliana, 2017). With the teacher-centred learning approach, lecturers generally speak (and use English) more than the students; the dominant lecturers' English use (speaking) plausibly hampers the students' use of the language (Xiao-yan, 2006).

However, the qualitative findings discussed in the previous sections (6.4.1- 6.4.2) show that there is a positive relationship between lecturers' L2 use, in this case *becoming a role model*

strategy, and students' L2 use. All students at any level of motivation mentioned that they were motivated to speak English when their lecturers spoke English to them (see Table 5.30). English use in higher education particularly at English Department is however problematic in Indonesia when there is no regulation to date on how much the language is used during the learning process or interactions in the classrooms. It is the individual lecturers' decision on the English use in the classroom that determines how much the language is used by either themselves or their students.

On one hand, the students might benefit the lecturers' use of English in the classroom as an example and encouragement of how to use the language (Frohm, 2009; Tsagari & Diakou, 2015) as discussed earlier, however, using or speaking English in the classroom becomes onerous for the students in this context particularly for the 'weak', those with low confidence and/or motivation to use or speak the language in the classroom. Much or more use of English by the lecturers could discourage such students with low motivation to use the language. They would lose their confidence in L2 use and use L1 instead.

Though the use of L1 is important in L2 learning, it could impede the L2 use (Rolin-Ianziti &Varshney, 2008) in this study. Many students at universities in cities in Indonesia like the one in this study come from out of town, villages or small cities, suggesting they might even use their local or ethnic group language to communicate one another (or perhaps in the classroom) alongside Indonesian (L1). Contrast to English, the use of local languages in communication is popular in Indonesia, especially in the villages or small cities. When the students coming from these places live in the city for further study, they will bring and use their local languages among them. Students with low proficiency in English might be 'forced' to use L1 (Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014) to gain meaning immediately (Zhao & Macaro, 2014). Hence, the lecturers' encouragement and creating more opportunities to speak L2 particularly benefit the students in this study.

For students with confidence in speaking English (or self-determined motivation), using English with classmates might also be an issue since speaking English is not common or peculiar in Indonesia; speaking English in class might have an impact on their identity. These students might feel that they would be considered as 'others' if they use English in the

classroom without instructions (or outside the classroom in an unacceptable or unfriendly environment for using/speaking English) to communicate with friends or classmates. For this reason, the students might be reluctant to use the L2.

To avoid othering perceptions on the L2 use from classmates or other students, creating English 'community' in the class or within the Department would allow motivated students to speak English voluntarily and at ease. Though the students did not explicitly mention this, one of the student participants (i.e., S8) mentioned that a relevant setting for the students to practise English speaking among themselves in the classroom was an English club. This is coded in the qualitative findings referring to *L2 use with peers* strategy, a strategy to speak English.

Thus, the lecturers should decrease their L2 use to increase the students' L2 use by creating more opportunities for them to speak or use the language through interactions between the lecturers, students and their peers. Activities and tasks assigned promoting the students' use of English either for individual or group work are hoped to increase the amount of English use for the students in the classroom. In this way, lecturers are to implement the preferred MTS by the students to maximize their motivation to learn and to speak the language. *Offering rewards* strategy, for example, was favoured by the group of students to learn English in this study. In addition, students' *L2 use with peers* and on *tasks* were two strategies to motivate them to speak English in the classroom found in the study. An English club suggested by one of the students is also one possibility related to these two strategies to increase the amount of students' use of English in the classroom.

6.5.2 Perceived and actual use of L2

Lecturers and students reported the use of L2 by lecturers and students using L2 survey instruments while the actual use of the language by both groups was collected by observations in three classrooms. The collection of reported L2 use was reminded again in the previous section, while the actual use of L2 was recorded by every single second the lecturers and the students used L2 in the classroom as explained in section 5.6.2. According to the quantitative data, the lecturers and the students reported that the lecturers used or spoke English more than the students (see Table 5.31). Both lectures and the students had quite similar perceptions on the amount of the lecturers' use of English (i.e., 53% and 55%

respectively). The students also perceived their English use was much lower (26%) than what the lecturers' reported (35%). The findings suggest that both the lecturers and the students believed that the lecturers' use of L2 was dominant in the classroom.

For the actual use of L2, the classroom observations results showed that the students used English more than the lecturers ($M = 33\%$ and $M = 27\%$ respectively). Though, the actual use of English by all students was higher than by the lecturers and lower (compared to the lecturers' use) according to the survey, the use of English by all students was still low in one lesson particularly in class where English was expected to be used more i.e., Speaking or Conversational Courses/Modules in which the classroom observations conducted. This could probably be much lower compared to individual use of the language especially in one large class and in the class where English was spoken very minimum e.g. Grammar and Reading Courses/Modules. Opportunities to speak the language could even nil for some students particularly for those with low motivation or proficiency. Therefore, lecturers are expected to design tasks that allow students to use English more both individually and as a group.

The lecturers should 'train' the students majoring in English to practise speaking English by themselves and develop their fluency and confidence during their studies. When they graduate, their proficiency in speaking the language will have been established or at least they have confidence to use the language. Their competence in using English during and after the studies are worth labelling or recognised as (once) students 'majoring in English'. As discussed throughout the thesis, particularly in the Contextual Study Chapter, students majoring in English in Indonesia are often not able to communicate in the language during and after the studies. It is hoped that this phenomenon will be changed and will bring the English major in Indonesia into good repute.

6.6 Summary

The students in this study were generally motivated and influenced strongly by all dimensions of L2MSS model used; therefore, all the motivation dimensions i.e., Own Ideal and Ought to selves, Other Ideal and Ought to selves, English Learning Experience and Linguistic Self-confidence were all important to motivate the students to learn in this study. The separations

or clear boundaries between Own and Other Selves indicated what motivated the students to learn the language i.e., the students were relatively strongly motivated by their Own Selves and the Other ones particularly by Own Ought-to English Self.

This is relevant since the students learn English as their major indicating their foremost interest and motivation to learn the language was their Own vision of English. Other selves i.e., the lecturers, parents, and friends also contributed to the students' strong motivation in learning English. Thus, the four divisions of Selves make sense. The students' motivation was also influenced by their linguistic confidence resulting in their high motivation; their confidence in learning the language might be due to their interest in learning the language as their major and realization of usefulness of the English for them now and in the future. Learning experience, in the end, referring to classroom situations, the lecturers and L2 use also strongly motivated the students in this study to learn English. Qualitative findings, furthermore, have given insightful explanations how the lecturers and their teaching strategies motivated the students to learn indicated by the lecturers' and students' similar perceptions on most MTS and their use.

The positive relationships between MTS use and motivation found in this study confirms that MTS is related with student motivation. Student motivation could be enhanced by the frequent use of strategies and the implementation of students' preferences of the MTS. Time management and learning scheme for each classroom activities should be planned and organised well to ensure adequate MTS practice in every single lesson, semester or year of academic particularly for modules or subjects using certain strategies necessary. This is to ensure not only the effectiveness of MTS use to motivate the students to learn English in this Department but also to allow the lecturers to assess the implementation of the MTS and evaluate the students' performance in learning. Thus, good lesson preparations and ongoing evaluation on MTS use become very important for the frequency and appropriateness use of MTS would lead to the learning success including L2 use (using the language).

Frequency of MTS perceived by the lecturers and students was *frequently* and consistent with the qualitative findings claimed by the two groups of participants in the lecturer interviews and student focus-groups. This was, nonetheless, different from actual use of the MTS

observed in the classrooms which was ranging from *never* to *occasionally* used. The findings suggest that the lecturers might need further support to implement the MTS expected and favoured by the students to motivate them to learn English. Despite mismatches between lecturers and students on MTS and their frequency use, the findings show that the lecturers in this study have paid attention to motivating students in their programme of study.

Quantitative findings show that motivation has a weak and negative relation with students' L2 use. However, the students claimed that they would be motivated to speak the L2 with strategies like *L2 use with peers* and *L2 use on tasks* as well as *commitment to use the L2*. Therefore, there is no data underpin the hypothesis that more motivated students might use the L2 more. Instead, results in this study suggest that L2 use in the classroom is subject for further MTS, in particular the *reward and punishment* strategy; this was confirmed by both the lecturers and the students. The two groups of participants also mentioned that the lecturers' L2 use, *becoming a role model* strategy, was useful to motivate the students to use L2. Once more, this contradicts with the quantitative findings revealing that lecturers' L2 use is correlated negatively with students' motivation and their L2 use.

Finally, the lecturers and the students perceived that the lecturers used L2 more than the students while according to the classroom observations the students' L2 use was slightly higher than the lecturers'. Despite the differences between the reported and actual use of L2, the students' L2 use overall was still low in one lesson by considering the type of classrooms observed. Students' use of English in the classroom could be lower and nil in the classrooms of courses not using English much. Therefore, lecturers might need to give opportunities for students to use the language more if they want students to strengthen their ideal self and their confidence in English.

Chapter 7
Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This study investigated motivational teaching strategies and student motivation in relations to their L2 use in Indonesian HE EFL classrooms, English programme. The low proficiency of English graduates in Indonesia has motivated the researcher to conduct this study. To address dearth of research on motivational teaching strategies, student motivation in relations to L2 use is the first purpose of this study. This study also aims to find the best ways to motivate students to learn English and to speak the language in Indonesian HE EFL classrooms. Finally, the purpose of this study was to improve teaching strategies at Indonesian tertiary institutions. This chapter outlines the important findings discussed in the previous chapter, draws general conclusions, indicates the contributions, recommends the implications of the study, reviews the limitations and suggests directions for future research.

This study examines MTS, student motivation and L2 use formulated in four research questions as shown below:

RQ1: What is the motivational orientation in terms of L2MSS among Indonesian EFL students in the classroom?

RQ2: A. Which motivational teaching strategies do (a) lecturers and (b) students perceive to be most useful and frequently used in EFL classrooms? How do they compare?

B. How do lecturers' actual use of MTS in class compare to self-report of MTS (a) by themselves, and (b) by the students' in EFL classrooms?

RQ3: How does student motivation relate to students' self-report of (a) the lecturers' MTS use (b) the amount of students' L2 use (c) lecturers' L2 use in EFL classrooms.

RQ4: A. What is the relationship between students' self report of lecturers' L2 use and the students' L2 use,

B. How does actual L2 use by (a) lecturers and (b) students in EFL classrooms compare to (a) lecturers' self report, and (b) students' self-report of L2 use for both groups?

7.2 Summary of the findings

All motivational dimensions i.e., Own Ideal, Own Ought to, Other Ideal, and Other Ought selves as well as English Learning Experience and Linguistic Self-confidence contributed strongly to the student motivation in this study, particularly Own Ought to self. This is not a surprise since the students majored in English suggesting that they had relatively high motivation to learn English and their demands and vision about their English learning and themselves in the future was strong. The qualitative findings also confirmed that the lecturers and the students had similar perceptions on most MTS highlighting that the students in the English Department enjoyed learning English.

Perceived MTS *to learn* English by lecturers and students were both similar and different in usefulness (qualitatively) and in the frequency use (quantitatively and qualitatively). Qualitative findings show that the lecturers and the students in this study had preferences on the usefulness of MTS to learn English that nurture dynamic classroom interactions. The frequency use of MTS to learn based on quantitative findings reported by lecturers and students was consistent with the qualitative ones claimed by the lecturers and the students in the interviews and focus-groups respectively i.e., *frequently used*. However, the actual use of MTS frequency was different from what the lecturers and the students perceived i.e., *never* to *occasionally used* suggesting that the lecturers might need support to practise the MTS. The two groups of participants also had similar and different preferences on MTS *to speak* or to *use L2* in the EFL classrooms. The two groups of participants claimed that students need to be 'pushed' with MTS to speak or use English in the classrooms.

Furthermore, a positive relationship between MTS and student motivation was revealed in the quantitative analysis. To enhance a strong relationship between the variables; however, the researcher argues that the lecturers in this study could implement more frequent MTS, evaluate the effectiveness of the implementation of the MTS and try to put the students' preferences of MTS into practice. In this way, the student motivation might increase, and the students would likely achieve success.

Quantitatively, the relationship between student motivation and their use of L2 did not exist or reveal a negative relationship. Similarly, the study found that there is an absence of a relationship between student motivation and lecturers' use of English and between lecturers' and students' English use. However, qualitatively, there is a positive relationship between MTS to speak or lecturers' use L2 and students' L2 (English) use. The findings, thus, indicated that lecturers' L2 use may influence the students' motivation and their L2 use, but further conditions (e.g. use of further MTS) also might need to be met to achieve the motivational effect.

The findings from survey and classroom observations on L2 use also revealed that there was a mismatch between the perceived and the actual use of L2 for both groups of participants, the lecturers and the students. Both groups perceived that the lecturers used English more than the students while in the classroom observations, the overall use of L2 reported by the students was slightly higher than the lecturers. Despite the difference, the student L2 use was still low in terms of class types (i.e., expected to use English more), only around a third of the time of one lesson on average.

7.3 General conclusions

The current study has investigated motivational teaching strategies (MTS), student motivation and L2 use in Indonesian HE English programme classrooms. A dearth of research on the three variables particularly in relations among them found in the literature discussed in Chapter Three and low proficiency of English graduates in Indonesia mentioned in Chapter One and Two impelled the investigation. Much research, however, has looked at each variable or between MTS and student motivation. This study, therefore, hypothesised that effective use of MTS motivated students to learn and to use or speak L2 would be worth being explored not only for contributions in the field of motivation and L2 literature but also for English teaching improvement in the context of the study.

The results in this study have supported the existing findings on L2 motivation and L2 use literature. They corroborate that there is a relationship between MTS and student motivation; effective MTS could motivate the student to learn. Some strategies are useful to motivate

students to learn and to use or speak L2 according to lecturers and students while others favoured only by lecturers and by students. Low frequency use or absence of students' preferences of MTS might explain why some students have moderate to low motivation even though they learn English as their major. Data on student motivation on L2MSS where in this study Own Ought to Self guide, learners' demands on what they should become in the future to satisfy themselves, is the strongest motivation in L2 learning. The data in this thesis makes an important finding on the L2MSS model particularly in separation between Own and Other of Ideal and Ought to selves.

The L2 Motivational Self System theory (Dörnyei, 2005) with emphasis on another person's wishes (Ideal Other) on a learner and the demands for the learner (Ought Other) (Lanvers, 2016) has revealed that the students' own demands on their learning and themselves influenced their motivation in English programme. Following their Own Ought to Self, Others' wishes (Other ideal self) and Others' demands (Other Ought to Self) on the students as well as their own image of their own ideal English users (Own Ideal Self) had relatively similar strength in their motivated behaviour confirming that self-motivation and others had similar significance in the student motivation in this context of study.

In relation to L2 use, qualitatively, the evidence also confirms that MTS was useful to motivate the students to use L2. Though lecturers' L2 use would motivate the students to learn, quantitatively the results show that it has a negative or an absence relationship with students' L2 use. The findings perhaps serve as a foremost evidence on the relationship between student motivation and their L2 use in the classroom. Furthermore, discrepancies on L2 use perceptions, according to lecturers and students, and actual use of L2, on the basis of classroom observations found in this study offer findings on L2 use literature.

To sum up, lecturers' motivational teaching strategies were closely related to the context particularly pertaining to promotion of target language strategies. The importance of English and the students' interest in the language influenced their learning. In addition, the learning experience i.e., lecturers, learning materials and classroom environment that create opportunities for them to use L2 also contributed to their motivation to learn and to use the language in the classroom.

7.4 Contribution and implications of the Study

The sections below present the contributions of the study to L2 motivation and L2 use literature followed by the implications for students, lecturers, institutions and Indonesian HE leaders.

7.4.1 Findings added to literature

The most important contributions of this study to L2 motivation and L2 use literature are its findings based on empirical data. The quantitative and qualitative findings show that the students are motivated to learn English in this programme. Lecturers' motivational strategies stimulating dynamic classroom interactions and L2 use motivate the students most. This is not only important for the English students at Indonesian HE EFL classrooms but also for those in similar contexts either EFL or ESL classrooms.

An invaluable contribution of the current study includes investigation on relationships between two variables in L2 motivation and the outcome of L2 learning in oral communication i.e., L2 speaking, filling the research gap. This study may be the first research on relating motivation and L2 use using empirical data. Previous studies, to date, looked at motivational teaching strategies alone (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux,2013; Maeng & Lee, 2015; Ruesch et al., 2012; Shousha, 2018) or related MTS to motivation or motivated behaviour (e.g. Sugita McEown & Takeuchi, 2014; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Moskoyske, et al., 2013) and related MTS and motivation to other variables such as language anxiety (e.g. Walker, 2016). In the context of Indonesia, studies have looked at MTS (e.g. Astuti, 2013, 2016; Hapsari, 2013; Kassing, 2011; Lamb et al., 2016; Khasbani, 2018; motivation (e.g. Bradford, 2007; Lamb, 2007, 2012) alone or on relationships between MTS and student motivation (e.g. Nichols, 2014). Other studies in Indonesia context have investigated student motivation relations on certain L2 skills such as reading (Salikin, Bin-Tahir, Kusumaningputri & Yuliandari, 2017) but not on their speaking L2, on the amount of L2 use. In short, this study is the first to investigate the relationships between student motivation and L2 use i.e., whether motivated students reported to speak L2, a significant contribution not only for the EFL classroom in Indonesia but also in the other contexts worldwide.

Comparisons and contrasts between perceptions and actual use of MTS and L2 have given data triangulation in three formats i.e., quantitatively versus qualitatively, lecturers versus students and views versus reality. The complexity of the research topic used mixed methods and data types, added findings into literature in L2 motivation (i.e., MTS) and L2 use. As yet, research in SLA has used mixed methods, integrated data from perceptions of different groups/types of participants and/or compared views and actual use, but very limited on the combination of all.

This study also offers empirical findings on MTS to speak or use L2. To date much research has investigated strategies of teaching that motivate learners to learn L2 in general. Such research also has related MTS to motivated behaviour in the classroom (e.g. Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskoyske, et al., 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012) but there is limited evidence if motivated behaviours lead to good performance in L2 use. Therefore, this study has bridged the gap of knowledge in L2 motivation and learning performance i.e., MTS, motivation and L2 use. The MTS specifically related to the promotion target language in Dörnyei's taxonomy (2001a) has been developed qualitatively in relation to MTS to speak L2 as discussed in section 6.4.1, the Discussion Chapter in this thesis.

Regarding motivation, the motivation model used in this study, Dörnyei's L2MSS, focusing on learning experience and Others has added empirical findings to the literature. The focus on the former includes learning materials, lecturers and classroom atmosphere connecting to the lecturers' motivational teaching strategies constructing as one variable in the study. The focus on Others distinguishing the four domains of self guides has contributed to the refinement of the concept of extrinsic-intrinsic in which Own Ought to Self sits. The clear-cut boundaries among self guides in this study are context specific to English students in Indonesian HE classroom nonetheless its relevance seems across contexts. The findings have endorsed the importance of clear boundaries of selves in motivation (Lanvers, 2016) and Own Ought to Self to be the strongest motivation of L2 learning effort among the four self-constructs. (Papi, et. al, 2018).

The students in this study are first motivated by Own selves with obligation to meet the expectation of the Other selves. They are aware of the goals and importance of learning

English however they expect lecturers to create a 'strong English atmosphere' in the classroom to motivate the students to learn and to speak the language. L2 use serves both as motivational teaching strategies, a tool to motivate the students to learn and to speak, and to improve outcomes of motivated behaviour in learning the language. Therefore, L2 use by lecturers and by students in particular is very important to motivate the students to learn to successfully gain proficiency in Indonesian HE classrooms. This study has identified sufficient *opportunities* for L2 use required to make motivated students speak the L2 alongside the MTS to speak L2 i.e., encouragement, appropriate amount of lecturers' use of the language and 'forcing' strategies (i.e. *rewards and punishment*) to speak L2 with lecturers, on tasks and more importantly with classmates.

Finally, this study has contributed to L1 and L2 literature looking at the amount of L2 use in the classroom. Studies on L2 previously researched on the importance of L1 and/or L2 use in L2 classrooms but how much the language is used particularly by the students is still under research. The instrument has been created and developed to collect the amount of L2 use by the lecturers and the students by survey and classroom observations.

7.4.2 Implications for Indonesian student, lecturer, institution, and educational leaders

The findings of this study possibly benefit Indonesian students learning English in the classroom. They might need to use any opportunities available or even create one among themselves to speak the English in the classroom and outside the classroom. In the classroom, the students should be able to seek opportunities by volunteering themselves to perform tasks requiring L2 use; alternatively, lecturers make L2 use as a normal lesson part. In this way, students would gain confidence and boost their motivation in learning and speaking English in the classroom. As young adults, they might also need to develop independent study skills using materials available outside the classroom e.g. online and using university learning resources to prepare themselves for classroom activities.

For an English group, the students might need to start group work or learning community to expand their English skills within campus or indeed undertake informal English use activities. A campus community would be an appropriate place for them to develop language

skills especially L2 use or English speaking for this is a safe space for English practice. They also could propose such groups for learning activities formally as part of their study programme designed into the courses or modules. Hence, the students have to get involved in the English learning community during their study.

Lecturers also might value the findings of this study for their Continuing Professional Development (CPD). They might need to design and develop their teaching and strategies to motivate the students to learn and speak L2 in the classrooms by supporting them, for example, with authentic materials and L2 use on tasks or involve the students to design their learning to support the students' MTS preferences and meet their expectations in learning and using the language. Embedding relevant resources into teaching, motivating the students to learn and speak English, would be necessary for the lecturers to support the students to enjoy their learning and participate in the classroom activities.

Encouragement for students with low motivation and 'pushing' students to speak English with rewards and punishment is also necessary found in this study. The implications of this study on lecturers also relate to their speaking English enhancing student motivation and their L2 use. The lecturers' perceptions on the importance of native speakers of English for motivation and L2 use enhancement are not important as revealed in the qualitative results. The students seem satisfied with their Indonesian lecturers speaking English in the classroom to support them to practise the language.

To support students and lecturers in learning and teaching English respectively, the role of institution and educational leaders is important. The classroom, for example, needs teaching equipment necessary facilitating learning and delivery of activities for L2 use enhancement. The institutions may also support the lecturers to improve their MTS continuously through periodical teaching evaluation, training, workshop or scholarship. This can be regulated internally or nationally by the institution or educational leaders in the country. For educational leaders at higher educational level, now is the right time to formulate a regulation for L2 use in the classroom particularly for an English programme; absence of consistent guidelines on target language or L2 use for teachers may lead to lower use of the language in the classroom (e.g. Riordan, 2015). English should be *used more* in the classroom at most for

courses or modules in English to improve the proficiency of (English) graduates in Indonesia including English teacher education. It is hoped, in the end, the proficiency of people in Indonesia will be improved, at least no longer sitting at the low level.

7.5 Limitations of the study

This study has limitations despite the efforts that have been put to follow high research quality in terms of validity and reliability using mixed methods to gather data. First, the study used convenience sampling due to limited time and resources. The number of institutional and individual participants is limited at three institutions, 30 lecturers and 232 students at private universities in one province of western Indonesia. In fact, Indonesia has 35 provinces in 2019[11] with around 3,000 higher education institutions. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised for all institutions and across parts of Indonesia. The gap between western and eastern Indonesia in terms of educational facilities and development exists as mentioned earlier. The participating institutions are only private institutions; therefore, the results might be not applicable for public universities.

This study has not investigated the effectiveness of MTS to motivate students to speak L2 in the classroom or to improve overall proficiency. Data gathered was cross-sectional, therefore, the effect of MTS on the amount of students' use of L2 in a certain period of time, e.g. in one semester or one year of study, has not been examined. This study has included lecturers and students' perspectives on MTS to speak L2, but it has not covered the effectiveness of lecturers' or students' MTS preferences to use L2 in the classroom.

The next limitation is the L2 use, focusing on the amount of the language use. The limitations on L2 use variable in the study include:

- L2 not specific, whether speaking spontaneously or reading or memorizing conversations from books,
- not looking at the amount of L1 versus L2, and

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[11] Administrative map of Indonesia on
https://www.nationsonline.org/oneworld/map/indonesia_admin_map.htm

- not looking at what activities the lecturers do to make students speak English in the classroom e.g. on tasks.

The researcher can only report on observable L2 use since it is unlikely to do unobservable use of the language, for example, on silent reading.

7.6 Future research directions

This research aimed to answer some specific research questions on MTS, student motivation and L2 use; following the findings and conclusions of the study, expansions of investigating the variables in Indonesia or elsewhere could be conducted in the future. First, in response to the number of participating institutions, lecturers and student participants, researchers can conduct studies involving a larger sample from private and public higher education institutions in similar locations or in the other parts of Indonesia. The findings might be or not relevant to them. Research in non-English programmes is also worth being investigated to gain further insight particularly in relation to L2 use, whether the students in the programme have similarities and differences on preferences of MTS to learn and to speak English as well as to the amount of English they speak in the classroom.

As this study is cross-sectional, the next expansion of research in the future can be made in a longitudinal study on the effectiveness of MTS to speak on the amount of L2 use in the classroom which has not been investigated in this study. This can be related to how significant the MTS to motivate students to speak the language. It is also important to investigate student preferences of MTS to speak to find out whether the students would speak English more if the lecturers put the students' preferences of MTS into practice.

Finally, future research can address the limitations of L2 use focus in this study; studies in the future can:

- specify the L2 use, whether speaking spontaneously or reading or memorizing conversations from books,
- investigate the amount of L1 versus L2, and
- include investigation on what activities the lecturers do to make students speak English in the classroom e.g. on tasks.

Appendices

Appendix A: The student motivation dimensions (items in the pilot study and those emerged from factor analysis in the main study)

Own Ideal L2 Self
I can imagine myself using English with foreigners*.
I imagine myself studying where all my courses are taught in English.
I imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.**
I imagine myself living and making friends in modern communities (in Indonesia, abroad or online), using English.

Other Ideal L2 Self
My parents would be happy if I had many international friends.
My lecturer would be happy if I had many international friends.*
My friends would be happy if I had many international friends. *
My lecturer would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English.
My friends would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English.*
My parents would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English.
My friends would like it if I used English a lot with other people.*
My parents would like it if I used English a lot with other people. (**REVERSED**)
My lecturer would like it if I used English a lot with other people.

Own Ought-to L2 Self
I would like to improve my English for future career purposes/opportunities.*
Being good at English is important for my(self) respect.
I feel I will get a better job if I can speak English well. (**REVERSED**)
I will have more opportunities for further studies if I am good at English.
I would like to use English with international friends or acquaintances.*
I think I will be a fluent speaker of English. (**REVERSED**)

Other Ought-to L2 Self
My parents will be disappointed if I fail to learn English.
My friends will be disappointed if I fail to learn English.
My lecturer will be disappointed if I fail to learn English. (**REVERSED**)
My parents think that English is important, so I learn English.*
My friends think that English is important, so I learn English. *
My lecturer thinks that English is important, so I learn English*.
My lecturer thinks that I will have a bright future if I study English.
My parents think that I will have a bright future if I study English. (**REVERSED**)
My friends think that I will have a bright future if I study English.

English Learning Experience (classroom, lecturer evaluation and L2 use)
I like the atmosphere of my English classes. *
I enjoy speaking English in class.*
I think the material we learn in the English classes will help me to use the language effectively.
My lecturer has good ways of teaching English. *
My lecturer is good at English. *
My lecturer makes English lessons interesting. (**REVERSED**)*
My lecturer encourages students to speak in English.*
I am satisfied with the work I do in English classes.*
I like it when we use English in the classroom.

Linguistic Self-Confidence
I feel I am making progress in English this semester.*
When I have to speak English in class, I often have confidence (**REVERSED**)
I am sure that I will be able to speak English well one day.*
I think I am good at learning English this semester.
I believe I will speak English better this semester**.** *

*Items retained/the results of exploratory factor analysis in the main study.

Appendix B: Descriptive statistics and (visual) normality results.

Table 1. Parametric Test of MTS Self-Reported by Teachers and Students

		Case Processing Summary					
		Cases					
MTS	Teacher or Student	Valid		Missing		Total	
		N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Having an informal chat	Teacher	28	93.3%	2	6.7%	30	100.0%
	Student	224	96.6%	8	3.4%	232	100.0%
Using humour	Teacher	28	93.3%	2	6.7%	30	100.0%
	Student	224	96.6%	8	3.4%	232	100.0%
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	Teacher	28	93.3%	2	6.7%	30	100.0%
	Student	224	96.6%	8	3.4%	232	100.0%
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Teacher	28	93.3%	2	6.7%	30	100.0%
	Student	224	96.6%	8	3.4%	232	100.0%
Pair work	Teacher	28	93.3%	2	6.7%	30	100.0%
	Student	224	96.6%	8	3.4%	232	100.0%
Group work	Teacher	28	93.3%	2	6.7%	30	100.0%
	Student	224	96.6%	8	3.4%	232	100.0%

Figure 1. Lecturers and students data of reported MTS frequency use shown by histograms, Q-Q blots and Boxplots
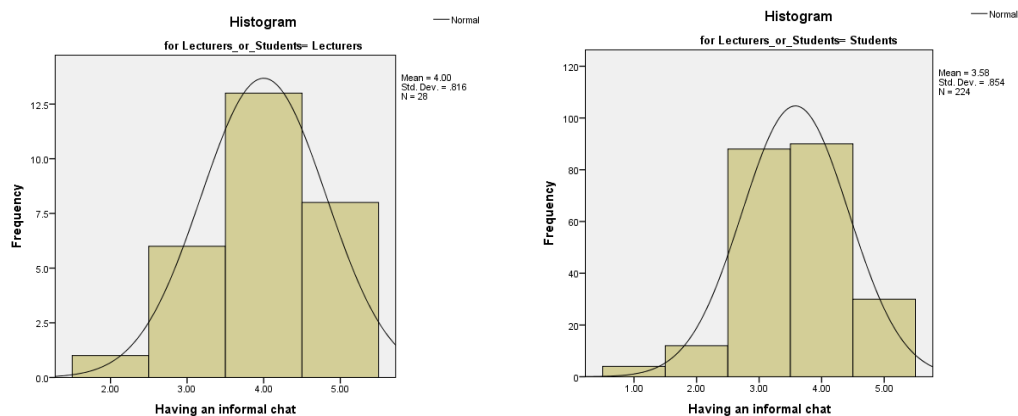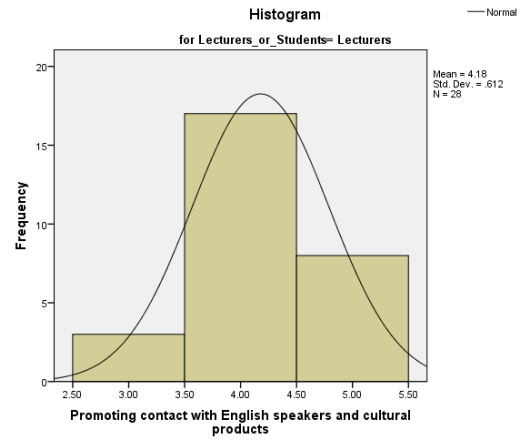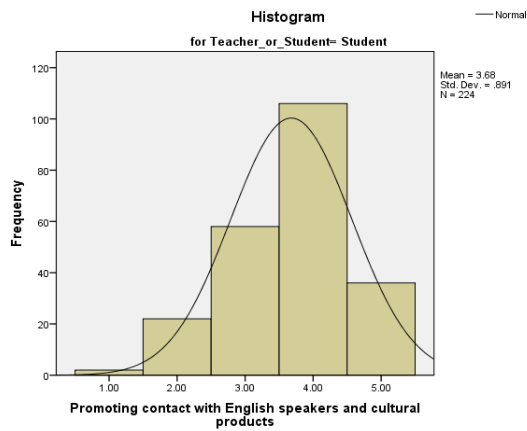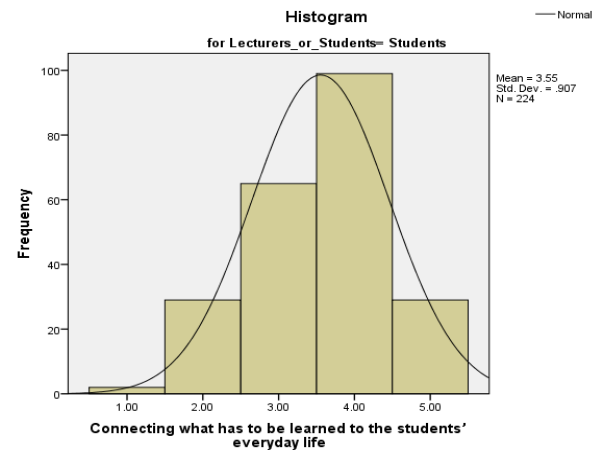
Figure 1. Cont.

Figure 1. Cont.

Figure 1. Cont.

Normal Q-Q Plot of Using humour
for Lecturers_or_Students= Lecturers

Normal Q-Q Plot of Using humour
for Lecturers_or_Students= Students

Normal Q-Q Plot of Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life
for Lecturers_or_Students= Students

Normal Q-Q Plot of Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life
for Lecturers_or_Students= Students

Normal Q-Q Plot of Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday life
for Lecturers_or_Students= Lecturers

Normal Q-Q Plot of Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products
for Lecturers_or_Students= Students

250

Figure 1. Cont.

Figure 1. Cont.

Figure 2. Lecturers and students data of mean reported MTS frequency use shown by histograms, Q-Q plots and boxplots
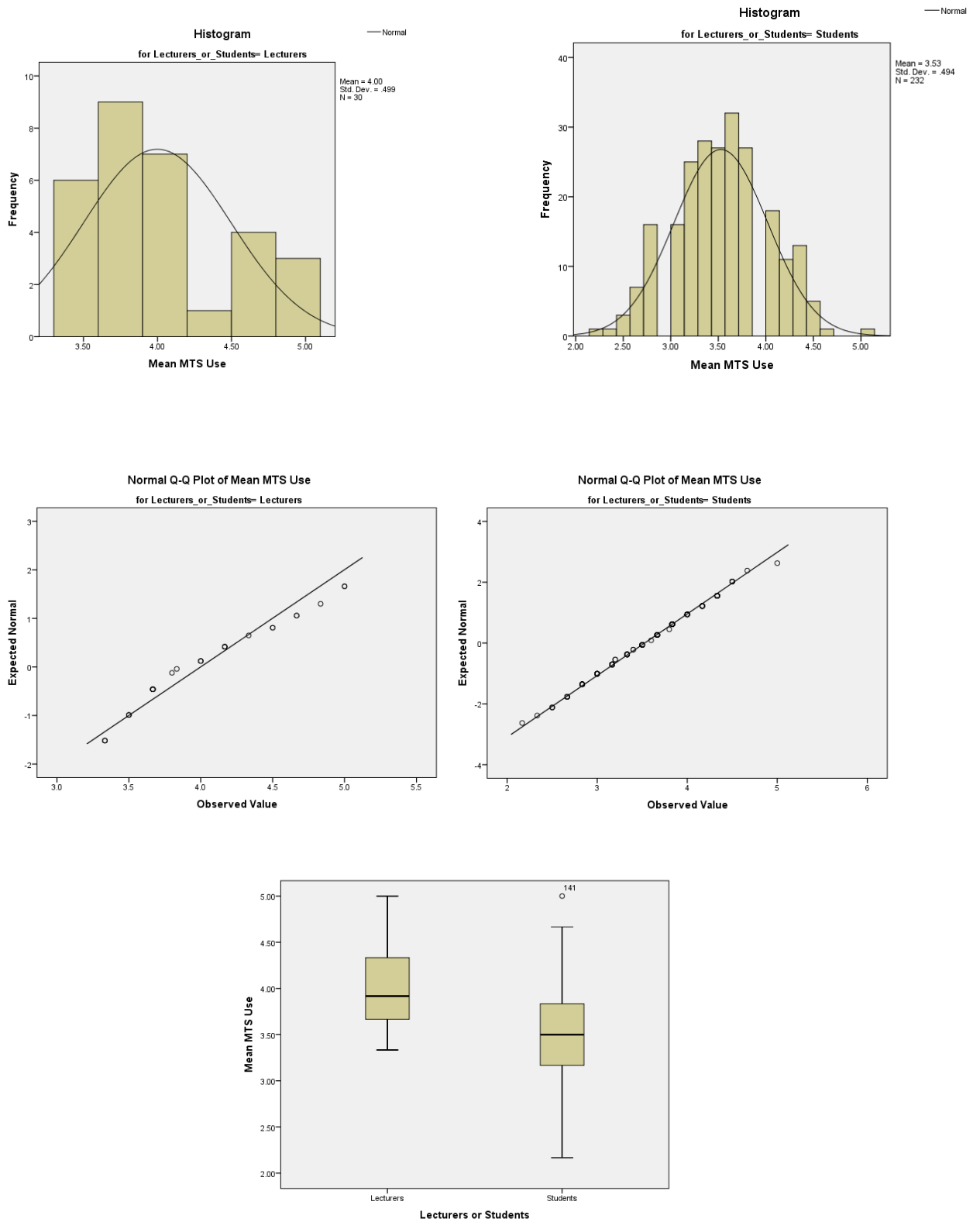
Table 2. Non-Parametric Tests of Reported MTS by Lectures and Students Mann-Whitney Test

Test Statistics[a]						
	Having an informal chat	Using humour	Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Pair work	Group work
Mann-Whitney U	2418.500	1811.500	2407.500	2426.000	2227.000	3347.500
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.000	.003	.004	.001	.996

a. Grouping Variable: Teacher or Student

Table 3. Mean Rank of Reported MTS by Lectures and Students

	Lecturers /Students	*N*	*Mean Rank*
Having an informal chat	Lecturers	29	161.60
	Students	230	126.02
	Total	259	
Using humour	Lecturers	30	185.12
	Students	230	123.38
	Total	260	
Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life	Lecturers	30	167.25
	Students	232	126.88
	Total	262	
Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural products	Lecturers	30	164.63
	Students	230	126.05
	Total	260	
Pair work	Lecturers	30	172.27
	Students	231	125.64
	Total	261	
Group work	Lecturers	29	130.57
	Students	231	130.49
	Total	260	

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Motivation and
Reported MTS Use Mean Scores

Descriptive		*Statistic*
Students' Motivation Mean Scores (*N*=215)	*Mean*	4.94
	Median	4.99
	Variance	.199
	Std. Deviation	.45
	Minimum	3.44
	Maximum	6.00
	Range	2.56
	Skewness	-.430
	Kurtosis	.425
Reported MTS Use Mean Scores (*N*=215)	*Mean*	3.54
	Median	3.50
	Variance	.25
	Std. Deviation	.49
	Minimum	2.17
	Maximum	5.00
	Range	2.83
	Skewness	.006
	Kurtosis	-.261

Figures 3. Histogram, Q-Q plots and boxplots of student motivation mean scores

- **Student's motivation mean scores**

Figure 3. Cont.

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Student motivation mean scores

Student motivation mean scores

- **Reported MTS use mean score**

Histogram

Normal Q-Q Plot of Reported MTS use mean scores

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of Reported MTS use mean scores
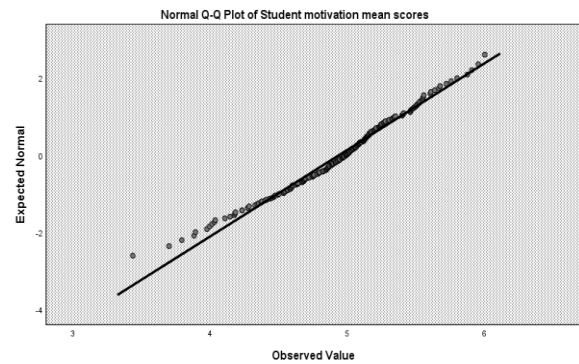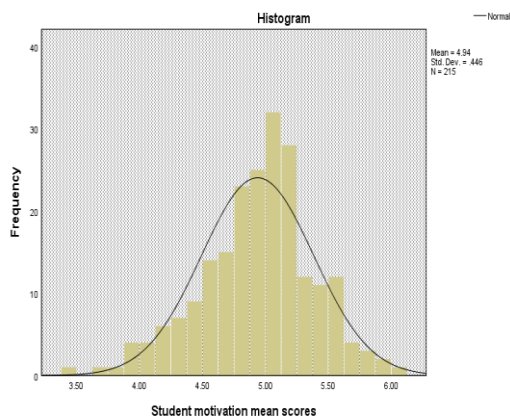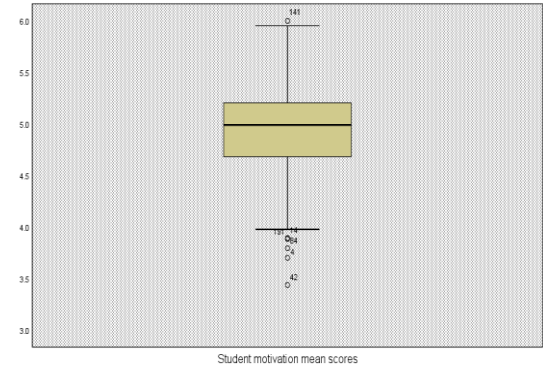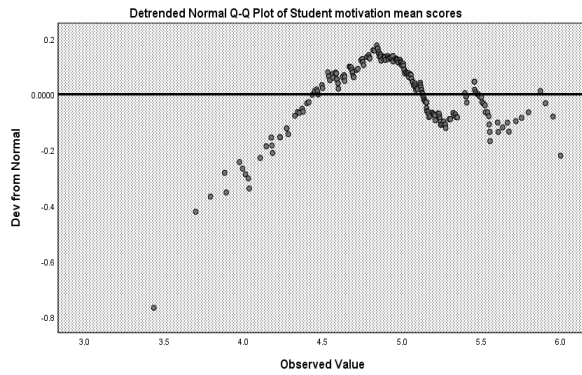
Reported MTS use mean scores
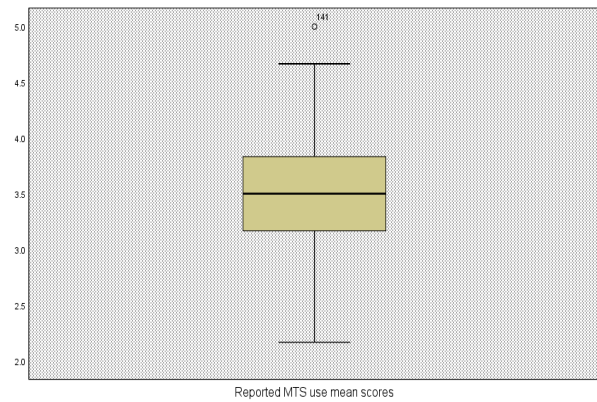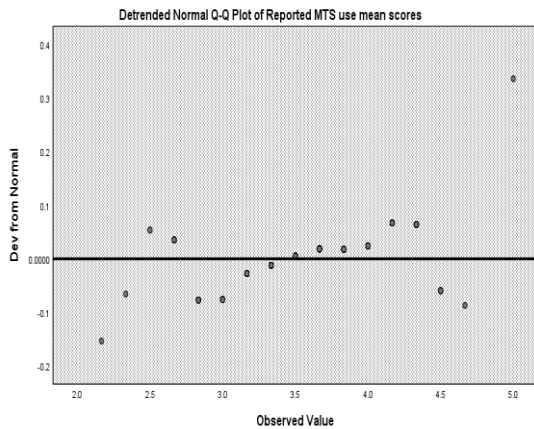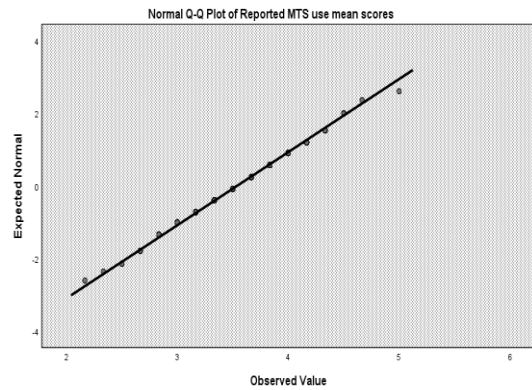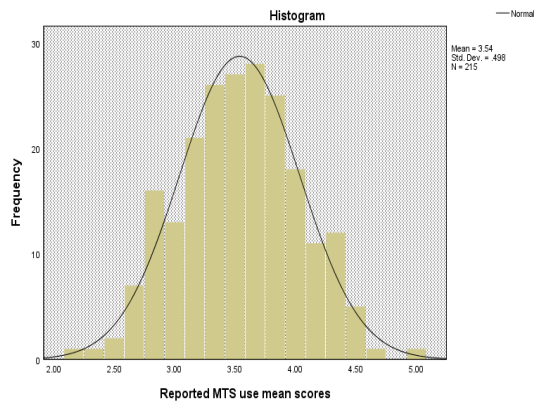
Table 5. Descriptive Statistics of Reported Lecturers' and Students Use
Mean Scores

Descriptive		Statistic
Reported Lecturers' L2 use	Mean	54.52
	Variance	214.838
	Std. Deviation	14.65734
	Minimum	20.00
	Maximum	80.00
	Range	60.00
	Skewness	-.203
	Kurtosis	-.764
Reported Students' L2 use	Mean	26.1488
	Variance	160.678
	Std. Deviation	12.67590
	Minimum	5.00
	Maximum	70.00
	Range	65.00
	Skewness	1.238
	Kurtosis	1.960

Figure 4 Histogram, Q-Q plots and boxplot of reported students' English use
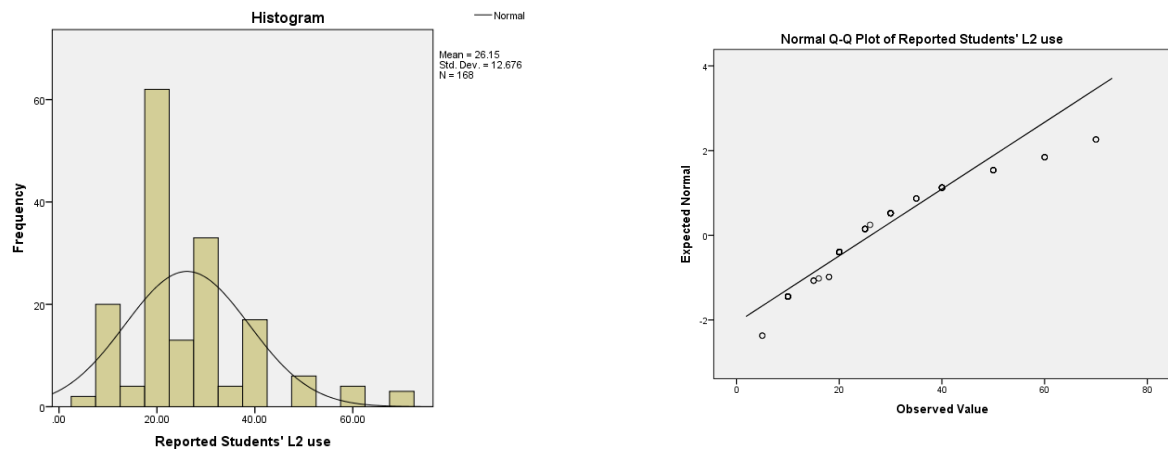
Figure 4. Cont.
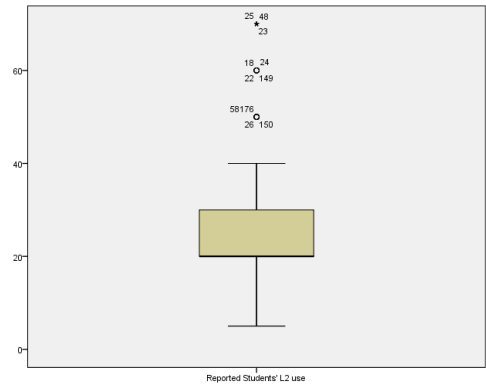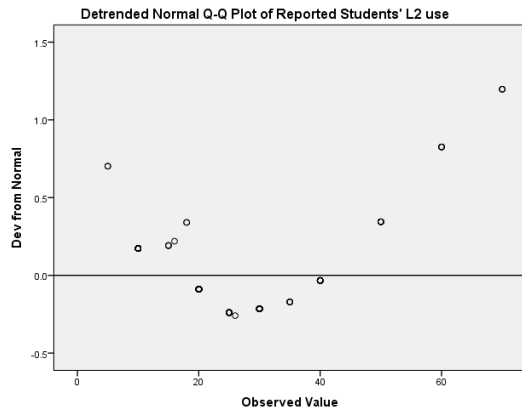
Figure 5 Histogram, Q-Q plots and boxplot of reported lecturers' English use
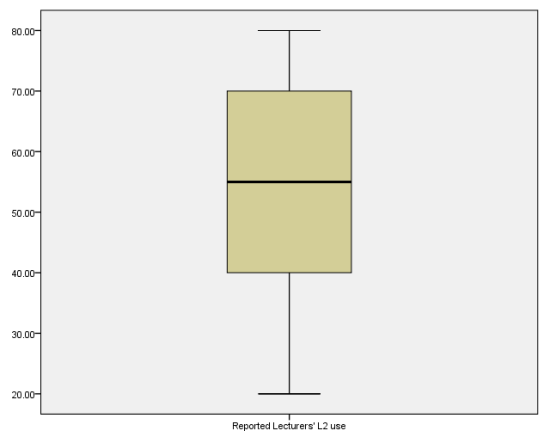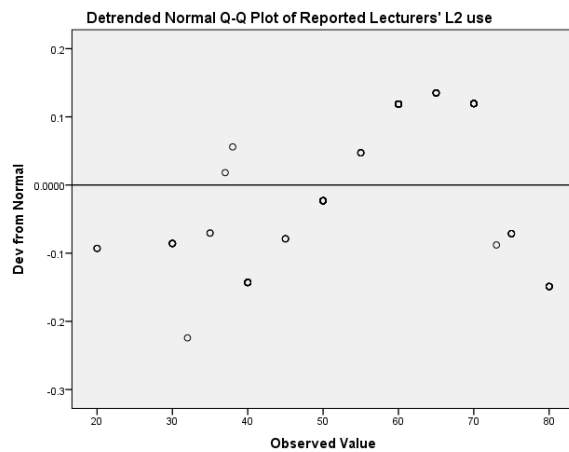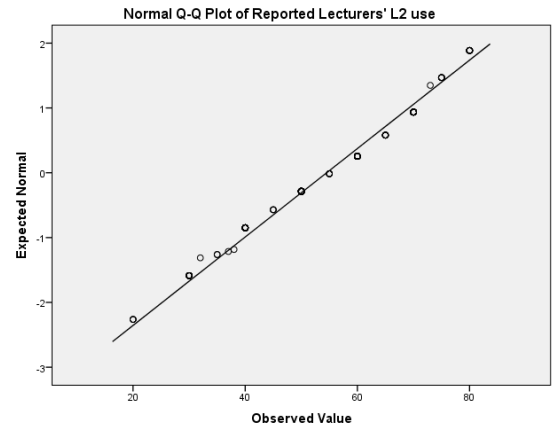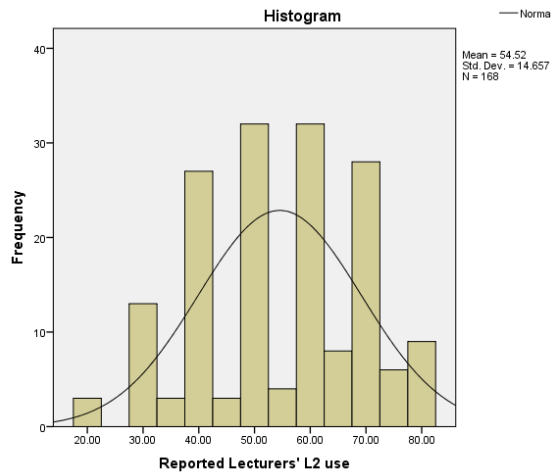
Appendix C: Motivational strategies in the language classroom

Creating the basic motivational conditions
1. Demonstrate and talk about your own enthusiasm for the course material, and how it affects you personally
Share your own personal interest in the L2 with your students. (1)
Show students that you value L2 learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and enriches your life. (2)
2. Take the students' learning very seriously
Show students that you care about their progress. (3)
Indicate your mental and physical availability for all things academic. (4)
Have sufficiently high expectation for what your students can achieve. (5)
3. Develop a personal relationship with your students.
Show students that you accept and care about them. (6)
Pay attention and listen to each other. (7)
Indicate your mental and physical ability. (8)
4. Develop a collaborative relationship with students' parents.
Keep parents regularly informed about their children's progress. (9)
Ask for their assistance in performing certain supportive tasks at home. (10)
5. Create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom.
Establish a norm of tolerance. (11)
Encourage risk-taking and have mistakes accepted as a natural part of learning. (12)
Bring in and encourage humour. (13)
Encourage learners to personalize the classroom environment according to their taste. (14)
6. Promote the development of group cohesiveness.
Try and promote interaction, cooperation and the sharing of genuine personal information among the learners. (15)
Use ice-breakers at the beginning of a course. (16)
Regularly use small-group tasks where students can mix. (17)
Encourage and if possible organize extracurricular activities and outings. (18)
Try and prevent the emergence of rigid seating patterns. (19)
Include activities that lead to the successful completion of whole-group tasks or involve small-group competition games. (20)
Promote the building of a group legend. (21)
7. Formulate group norms explicitly, and have them discussed and accepted by the learners.
Include a specific 'group rules' activity at the beginning of a group's life to establish the norms explicitly. (22)
Explain the importance of the norms you mandate and how they enhance learning, and ask for the students' agreement. (23)
Elicit suggestions for additional rules from the learners and discuss these in the same way as the rules you have proposed. (24)
Put the group rules (and the consequences for violating them) on display. (25)
8. Have the group norms consistently observed.
Make sure that yourself observe the established norms consistently.(26)
Never let violations go unnoticed. (27)

Generating initial motivation
9. *Promote the learners' language-related values by presenting peer role models.*
Invite senior students to talk to your class about their positive experiences. (28)
Feedback to the students the views of their peers, e.g. in the form of a class newsletter. (29)
Associate your learners with peers (e.g. in group or project work) who are enthusiastic about the subject. (30)
10. *Raise the learners' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process.*
Highlight and demonstrate aspects of L2 learning that your students are likely to enjoy. (31)
Make the first encounters with the L2 a positive experience. (32)
11. *Promote 'integrative' values by encouraging a positive and open-minded disposition towards the L2 and its speakers, and towards foreignness in general.*
Include a sociocultural component in your language curriculum. (33)
Quote positive views about language learning by influential public figures. (34)
Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community (e.g. on the internet). (35)
Promote contact with L2 speakers and L2 cultural products. (36)
12. *Promote the students' awareness of the instrumental values associated with the knowledge of an L2.*
Regularly remind students that the successful mastery of the L2 is instrumental to the accomplishment of their valued goals. (37)
Reiterate the role of the L2 plays in the world, highlighting its potential usefulness both for themselves and the community. (38)
Encourage the learners to apply their L2 proficiency in real life situations. (39)
13. *Increase the students' expectancy of success in particular tasks and in learning in general.*
Make sure that they receive sufficient preparation and assistance. (40)
Make sure they know exactly what success in the task involves. (41)
Make sure that there are no serious obstacles to success. (42)
14. *Increase your students' goal-orientedness by formulating explicit class goals achievable by re-negotiating if necessary.*
Have the students negotiate their individual goals and outline a common purpose, and display the final outcome in public. (43)
Draw attention from time to time to the class goals and how particular activities help to attain them. (44)
Keep the class goals achievable by re-negotiating if necessary. (45)
15. *Make the curriculum and the teaching materials relevant to the students.*
Use needs analysis techniques to find out about your students' needs, goals and interest, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible. (46)
Relate the subject matter to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students. (47)
Enlist the students in designing and running the course. (48)
16. *Help to create realistic learner beliefs.*
Positively confront the possible erroneous beliefs, expectations, and assumptions that learners may have. (49)
Raise the learners' general awareness about the different ways languages are learnt and the number of factors that can contribute to success. (50)

Maintaining and protecting motivation
17. Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the monotony of classroom events.
Vary the learning tasks and other aspects of your teaching as much as you can. (51)
Focus on the motivational flow and not just the information flow in your class. (52)
Occasionally do the unexpected. (53)
18. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of the tasks.
Make tasks challenging .(54)
Make task content attractive by adapting it to the students' natural interests or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements. (55)
Personalise learning tasks. (56)
Select tasks that yield tangible, finished products.(57)
19. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learners by enlisting them as active task participants.
Select tasks which require mental and/or bodily involvement from each participant. (58)
Create specific roles and personalized assignments for everybody. (59)
20. Present and administer tasks in a motivating way.
Explain the purpose and utility of a task. (60)
Whet the students' appetite about the content of the task. (61)
Provide appropriate strategies to carry out the task. (62)
21. Use goal-setting methods in your classroom.
Encourage learners to select specific, short-term goals for themselves. (63)
Emphasise goal completion deadlines and offer ongoing feedback. (64)
22. Use contracting method with your students to formalize their goal commitment.
Draw up a detailed written agreement with individual students, or whole groups, that specifies what they will learn and how, and the ways by which you will help and reward them. (65)
Monitor student progress and make sure that the details of the contract are observed by both parties. (66)
23. Provide learners with regular experiences of success
Provide multiple opportunities for success in the language class. (67)
Adjust the difficulty level of tasks to students' abilities and counterbalance demanding tasks with manageable ones. (68)
Design tests that focus on what learners can rather that cannot do, and also include improvement options. (69)
24. Build your learners' confidence by providing regular encouragement.
Draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities. (70)
Indicate to your students that you believe in their effort to learn and their capability to complete tasks. (71)
25. Help language anxiety by removing or reducing the anxiety-provoking elements in the learning environment.
Avoid social comparison, even in its subtle forms. (72)
Promote cooperation instead of competition. (73)
Help learners accept the fact that they will make mistakes as part of learning process. (74)

Make tests and assessment completely 'transparent' and involve students in the negotiation of the final mark.(75)
26. Build your learners' confidence in their learning abilities by teaching them various learner strategies.
Teach students learning strategies to facilitate the intake of new material. (76)
Teach students communication strategies to help them overcome communication difficulties. (77)
27. Allow learners to maintain a positive social image while engaged in the learning tasks.
Select activities that contain 'good' roles for the participants. (78)
Avoid face-threatening act such as humiliating criticism or putting students in the spotlight unexpectedly. (79)
28. Increase student motivation by promoting cooperation among the learners.
Set up tasks in which teams of learners are asked to work together towards the same goal. (80)
Take into account team products and not just individual products in your assessment. (81)
Provide students with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in team. (82)
29. Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy.
Allow learners real choices about as many aspects of the learning process as possible. (83)
Hand over as much as you can of the various leadership/teaching roles and functions to the learners. (84)
Adopt the role of a facilitator. (85)
30. Increase the students' self-motivating capacity.
Raise your students' awareness of the importance of self-motivation.(86)
Share with each other strategies that you have found useful in the past. (87)
Encourage students to adopt, develop and apply self-motivating strategies. (88)
Encouraging positive self-evaluation
31. Promote effort attribution in your students.
Encourage learners to explain their failures by the lack of effort and appropriate strategies applied rather than by their insufficient ability. (89)
Refuse to accept ability attributions and emphasise that the curriculum is within the learners' ability range. (90)
32. Provide students with positive information feedback.
Notice and react to any positive contributions from your students.(91)
Provide regular feedback about the progress your students are making and about areas which they should particularly concentrate on. (92)
33. Increase learner satisfaction.
Monitor student accomplishments and progress, and take time to celebrate any victory. (93)
Make student progress tangible by encouraging the production of visual records and arranging regular events. (94)
Regularly include tasks that involve the public display of the students' skills. (95)
34. Offer rewards in a motivational manner.
Make sure that students do not get too preoccupied with the rewards. (96)
Make sure that even non-material rewards have some kind of lasting visual representation. (97)

Offer rewards for participating in activities that students may get drawn into because they require creative goal-oriented behaviour and offer novel experiences and consistent success. (98)
35. *Use grades in a motivating manner, reducing as much as possible their demotivating impact.*
Make the assessment system completely transparent, and incorporate mechanism by which the students and their peers can also express their views. (99)
Make sure that grades also reflect effort and improvement and not just objective levels of achievement. (100)
Apply continuous assessment that also relies on measurement tools other than pencil-and-paper tests. (101)
Encourage accurate student self-assessment by providing various self-evaluation tools. (102)

(Dörnyei, 2001a, pp. 137-144)

Appendix D: Thematic codes (qualitative findings)

Table 1 First thematic codes of MTS to learn

Motivational Teaching Strategies	
Themes	Sub-themes
• Take student's learning very seriously	• High expectation for what the students can achieve • Indicate your [lecturer's] mental and physical availability for all things academic
• Help diminish students' language anxiety	• Help learners accept the fact that they will make mistakes as part of learning process
• Promote integrative values	• Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community (e.g. on the internet) • Promote contact with L2 speakers and L2 cultural products
• Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the monotony of classroom events	• Vary learning tasks and other aspects of your [lecturer's] teaching as much as you can
• Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing the attractiveness of tasks	• Make tasks challenging • Make task content attractive to students by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements
• Demonstrate and talk about your [lecturer's]enthusiasm for the course material, and how it affects you [lecturer] personally	• Show students that you [lecturers] value L2 learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and enriches your [lecturer's] life
• Use L2	• Encourage learners to use or speak L2 whenever possible in class • Provide instructions in L2 • Help students to understand communication in L2 as much as they can • Use English with peers
• Create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom	• Making mistakes is accepted as a natural part of learning • Bring in and encourage humour

Table 1. Cont.

• Offer rewards	• Offer rewards for participating in activities
• Deliver an effective teaching performance	• Give good presence • Exhibit energy
• Promote the learners' language related values	• Presenting role models
• Goal orientation with English	• Usefulness of English in the future
• Intrinsic motivation	• Self study

Table 2 Thematic codes of MTS to learn and to use L2

Topic	Main Theme	Sub-Themes or Examples & Abbreviations
MTS to learn L2	Creating basic motivational conditions (1. Creating supportive atmosphere 2. Promoting group cohesiveness 3. Demonstrating behavioural example)	Humour (HUM) 1
		Accepting mistakes (MIS) 1
		Pair or group work (GW) 2
		Rapport (RAP) 3
		Enthusiasm in teaching (ENTH) 3
		Valuing L2 learning (VLE) 3
	Generating initial motivation: (Promoting L2 values)	Contact with L2 cultural products (PRO)
		Contact with L2 speakers (SPK)
		Encouragement to use L2 (ENC)
		Importance of L2 (IMP)
		L2 Use (USE)
		Presenting models (MOD)
	Maintaining and protecting motivation (1. Building student's confidence 2. Making learning enjoyable)	Attention to abilities (ABT) 1
		Varying tasks (VTSK) 2
	Encouraging positive self-evaluation	Importance of self-evaluation (EVA)
		Offering rewards (RWD)
Lecturers to motivate (MTS) to use L2	Ways to motivate	Becoming a role model (ROL)
		Commitment for success (COM)
		L2 use on tasks (L2TSK)
		L2 use with peers (L2P)
		Reducing language anxiety (ANX)
		Reward and punishment (RNP)
		Using authentic materials (AUT)
		Pleasant learning environment (PLS)
	Not really to motivate	L1 use (NO)
		Low L2 use (NO)
	To motivate	Always (YES)
		Encouragement not to use L1 (YES)
		Frequently (YES)
		Giving motivation (YES)

Table 3 Thematic codes of motivation and grades relationship, frequency use of MTS to learn and usefulness of English themes

Topic	Theme	Examples and Abbreviations
Grades and motivation relationship	Negative	Bad results (NEG)
		Bad skills (NEG)
		Cheating on tests (NEG)
		Different abilities (NEG)
		Pleasing parents (NEG)
		No efforts (NEG)
	Positive	Being prepared (POS)
		Good results (POS)
		Parallel relationship (POS)
Usefulness of English (L2)	Global language	Communication (GLO)
		Language for the upper class (GLO)
		International language (GLO)
		Travel (GLO)
	Language in many fields	Education (FLD)
		Food (FLD)
		Information (FLD)
		Health (FLD)
		Laws (FLD)
		Offices (FLD)
	Work	Preference (WORK)
		Requirement (WORK)
		Skills (WORK)
Frequency use of MTS to learn L2	Frequent	Every semester (FRE)
		Every time having class (FRE)
		Every week (FRE)
		(Very) often (FRE)
	Sometimes	Once in a while (SOM)
		Not very often (SOM)
	Occasionally	Seldom (OCC)
		More often use L1 (OCC)
		Certain course (OCC)

Appendix E: Consent forms (lecturer and student)-English version

Title of Project	Motivational Teaching Strategies, Student Motivation and L2 Use: Indonesian Higher Education EFL context
Researcher	Ronna Ria MelbondoTamba MEd, MA.
Supervisor	Dr Ursula Lanvers

Research Project Information for Lecturer Participant

Dear Participant,

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research.

The research project is entitled **Motivational Teaching Strategies, Student Motivation and L2 Use: Indonesian Higher Education EFL context**. It is carried out for PhD research in TESOL at Education Department, University of York, UK. The aim of this research is to find out the best ways to motivate students in their learning of English, and to improve the teaching of English at Indonesian universities. The researcher is a full time PhD student at the department named Ronna Ria MelbondoTamba (E-mail: rrmt500@york.ac.uk).

This research will utilize questionnaires, audio recorded interviews and classroom observations. Your participation is voluntary. You are free to take part and or withdraw from the research at any stage. Your data will be kept is confidentially and will be anonymised. The data will be kept in accordance with the Data Protection Act. If you wish to withdraw from the project, I will destroy your data. If you have any issues relating to this project of the data collection that you would not like to discuss with me, you can contact the Chair of Ethics committee at Education Department, University of York.

The research has been the subject of ethical review of Education Department, University of York, UK. The chair is Dr Paul Wakeling (Tel: work+44 (0)1904 324329; E-mail: paul.wakeling@york.ac.uk).

Please tick the boxes next to the statements (and delete the word to choose the one that applies to you):
- I agree to participate in: ☐Questionnaire ☐ Interview ☐ Classroom Observation
- I have read the research information for participant ☐
- The purpose of the research explained to me ☐
- I have given time to ask and received satisfactory answers ☐
- I understand my involvement in the research project ☐
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage. This will not affect my status now or in the future ☐
- I understand that I will be audio recorded during the interview and the observation (only applies of you are interviewed and/or observed in class) ☐
- I understand that I will be given opportunities to comment on the written comment of the event (only applies of you are interviewed) ☐
- I understand that my research data may be used for a further project in anonymous form ☐

Signature (participant):	Date:
Name (in block letters):	
Researcher's signature:	Date:

Contact Details:
Researcher's: rrmt500@york.ac.uk
Supervisor's: ursula.lanvers@york.ac.uk

Title of Project	Motivational Teaching Strategies, Student Motivation and L2 Use: Indonesian Higher Education EFL context
Researcher	Ronna Ria MelbondoTamba, MEd, MA.
Supervisor	Dr Ursula Lanvers

Research Project Information for Student Participant

Dear Participant,

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this research.

The research project is entitled **Motivational Teaching Strategies, Student Motivation and L2 Use: Indonesian Higher Education EFL context**. It is carried out for PhD research in TESOL at Education Department, University of York, UK. The aim of this research is to find out the best ways to motivate students in their learning of English, and to improve the teaching of English at Indonesian universities. The researcher is a full time PhD student at the department named Ronna Ria MelbondoTamba (E-mail: rrmt500@york.ac.uk).

This research will utilize questionnaires, audio recorded interviews and classroom observations. Your participation is voluntary. You are free to take part and or withdraw from the research at any stage. Your data will be kept is confidentially and will be anonymised. The data will be kept in accordance with the Data Protection Act. If you wish to withdraw from the project, I will destroy your data. If you have any issues relating to this project of the data collection that you would not like to discuss with me, you can contact the Chair of Ethics committee at Education Department, University of York.

The research has been the subject of ethical review of Education Department, University of York, UK. The chair is Dr Paul Wakeling (Tel: work+44 (0)1904 324329; E-mail: paul.wakeling@york.ac.uk).

Please tick the boxes next to the statements (and delete the word to choose the one that applies to you):

- I agree to participate in : ☐Questionnaire ☐ Interview ☐ Classroom Observation
- I have read the research information for participant ☐
- The purpose of the research explained to me ☐
- I have given time to ask and received satisfactory answers ☐
- I understand my involvement in the research project ☐
- I understand that I may withdraw from the research project at any stage. This will not affect my status now or in the future ☐
- I understand that I will be audio recorded during the interview and the observation (only applies of you are interviewed and/or observed in class) ☐
- I understand that I will be given opportunities to comment on the written comment of the event (only applies of you are interviewed) ☐
- I understand that my research data may be used for a further project in anonymous form ☐

Signature (participant):	Date:
Name (in block letters):	
Researcher's signature:	Date:
Contact Details: Researcher's: rrmt500@york.ac.uk Supervisor's: ursula.lanvers@york.ac.uk	

Appendix F: Questionnaires (lecturer and student)-English version

A. Please tick (✓) the box to identify the frequency or the percentage of teaching English strategies use in the classroom according to the categories given below:

1 = Never used (0%-20%)
2 = Occasionally (21%-40%)
3 = Sometimes used (41%-60%)
4 = Frequently used (61%-80%)
5= Very frequently used (81%-100%)

(Lecturer's) Teaching Strategies to Motivate (Students) to learn	Frequency of Strategy Use				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Having an informal chat.					
2. Having humour in lesson.					
3. Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life.					
4. Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural product					
5. Highlighting the role of English plays in the world.*					
6. Encouraging students to help one another.*					
7. Pair work.					
8. Groupwork.					
9. Offering reward*.					
10. Giving opportunities to express the student's personal experiences.*					
11. Encouraging self or peer correction: mistakes, or work. *					
12. Praising*					

B. Use of English in your class: responses you provide pertain to the current course you teach this semester.

Lecturer's Name: _____   Course: _____   Student Group: _____

Give roughly the amount of English use in your class in percentage (%) between 0% and 100% of time of an English lesson. The total use of lecturer and students is not necessarily 100%.
e.g.
 You estimate that the English use in 1 lesson in class by:
 (a) students (all): 20%; (b) teacher: 40%
 Therefore, the total amount of English use by teacher and students is: 60% of time in 1 lesson.

13. By me: _____% (Lecturer)	14. By students: _____% (All)

C. Please write your answers to the questions below in the spaces provided.
15. Are you Male (M) or Female (F)? _____
16. How long have you been teaching English in your life approximately (in year)? _____year(s).
17. What is your highest education (Bachelor, Master's, Doctorate) _____

*Not included in the Main Study

A. Please tick (✓) the box to identify the frequency or the percentage of teaching English strategies use **in the classroom** according to the categories given below:

1 = **Never used (0%-20%)**
2 = **Occasionally (21%-40%)**
3 = **Sometimes used (41%-60%)**
4 = **Frequently used (61%-80%)**
5= **Very frequently used (81%-100%)**

(Lecturer's) Teaching Strategies to Motivate (Students) to learn	Frequency of Strategy Use				
	1	2	4	5	5
1. Having an informal chat.					
2. Having humour in lesson.					
3. Connecting what has to be learned to the student's everyday life.					
4. Promoting contact with English speakers and cultural product.					
5. Highlighting the role of English plays in the world.*					
6. Encouraging students to help one another.*					
7. Pair work.					
8. Groupwork.					
9. Offering reward.*					
10. Giving opportunities to express the student's personal experiences.*					
11. Encouraging self or peer correction: mistakes, or work.*					
12. Praising*					

*Not used in the main study

A. Please choose **one number** 1 to 6 by ticking (X) the box provided to indicate the degree of agreement to the statements below.

1 = **Strongly disagree**   2 = **Disagree**   3 =**Slightly disagree**   4 =**Slightly agree**   5 = **Agree**   6 = **Strongly agree**

13.	**I can imagine myself using English with foreigners.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	I imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	People will be disappointed, if I fail to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6

1 = Strongly disagree   2 = Disagree   3 =Slightly disagree   4 =Slightly agree   5 = Agree   6 = Strongly agree

16.	**My lecturer will not be disappointed if I fail to learn English.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	People think that English is important, so I learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	My parents think that I will not have a bright future if I study English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	My parents approve of me studying English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	People do not approve of me studying English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	I feel English is the most useful language in the modern world.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	My parents would be happy if I had many international friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	People would not be happy if I had many international friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	My parents would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	My parents would not like it if I used English a lot with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	My lecturer would like it if I used English a lot with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	My friends would be happy if I made many friends abroad or online using English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	I like the atmosphere of my English classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	I think the material we learn in the English classes will help me to use the language effectively.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	My lecturer is a really good teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	I wish we spoke English more in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	I am satisfied with the work I do in English classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	I think I am good at learning English this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	I would like to use English with international friends or acquaintances.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	I don't think I will ever be a fluent speaker of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	My parents will be disappointed if I fail to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	My parents think that English is important, so I learn English	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	My lecturer thinks that English is important, so I learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	My friends think that I will have a bright future if I study English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	My lecturer approves of me studying English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	I would like to improve my English for future career purposes/opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	I do not feel I will get a better job if I can speak English well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	My lecturer would be happy if I had many international friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	My lecturer would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English	1	2	3	4	5	6

1 = Strongly disagree   2 = Disagree   3 =Slightly disagree   4 =Slightly agree   5 = Agree   6 = Strongly agree

45.	**People would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English.**	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	People would like it if I used English a lot with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	My parents would be happy if I made many friends abroad or online using English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	I enjoy speaking English in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	My teacher has good ways of teaching English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	I like it when we use English in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	When I have to speak English in class, I often lose confidence.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	I believe I will speak English better this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	I imagine myself studying where all my courses are taught in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	I imagine myself living and making friends in modern communities (in Indonesia, abroad or online), using English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	My friends will be disappointed if I fail to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	My friends think that English is important, so I learn English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57.	My lecturer thinks that I will have a bright future if I study English	1	2	3	4	5	6
58.	People think that I will have a bright future if I study English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
59.	My friends approve of me studying English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
60.	Being good at English is important for my(self) respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6
61.	I will have more opportunities for further studies if I am good at English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
62.	My friends would be happy if I had many international friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
63.	My friends would like it to see me as someone who was known as a fluent speaker of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
64.	My friends would like it if I used English a lot with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
65.	My lecturer would be happy if I made many friends abroad or online using English.	1	2	3	4	5	.
66.	People would not be happy if I made many friends abroad or online using English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
67.	I do not really like learning English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
68.	My lecturer is good at English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
69.	My lecturer does not make English lessons interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
70.	My lecturer encourages students to speak in English	1	2	3	4	5	6
71.	I feel I am making progress in English this semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6
72.	I am sure that I will be able to speak English well one day.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Numbers 15, 17, 19, 20, 21, 23, 27, 30, 31, 40, 45, 46, 47, 58, 59, 65, 66, & 67 were deleted in the main study.

C. Speaking English in the classroom (by the lecturer, you and classmates))

Lecturer's name : _____   Course: _____   Class:_____

Give roughly the amount of English use in your class in percentage (%) between 0% and 100% of time of an English lesson. The total use of lecturer and students is not necessarily 100%.
e.g.
   You estimate that the English use in 1 lesson in class by:
(a) students (you and classmates): <u>20%</u>; (b) lecturer: <u>40%</u>
   Therefore, the total amount of English use by lecturer and students is: <u>60%</u> of time in 1 lesson.

.

72. By lecturer: _____%	73. By students: _____% (You and classmates)

D.   Please write your answers to the questions below in the spaces provided.

74.   Are you Male (M) or Female (F)? _____

75.   How old are you? _____years.

76.   In which semester are you learning English at this program? Semester (1,2,3, etc) _____

77.   How long have you been learning English in your life approximately (in year)?? _____years.

If you have any comments on any of the issues covered here, please feel free to write them here.

Thank you.

Appendix G: Classroom observation schedule for MTS

Motivational Teaching Practice Observation Scheme

Teacher   : _____   Student Group: _____
Date   : _____   Time: _____   Subject   : _____

TIME	ACTIVITIES	TEACHER'S MOTIVATIONAL PRACTICE											
		Informal Chat	Humour	Connecting learning to the student's	Promoting contact with TL agents	Highlighting English role	Encouraging reciprocal help	Pairwork	Groupwork	Personalization	Offeering reward	Encouraging self or peer correction	Praising
1	2	3	4	5	6	7*	8*	9	10	11*	12*	13*	14*
1													
2													
3													
4													
5													
6													
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21													
22													
23													
24													
25													
26													
27													
28													
29													
30													
SUBTOTALS													

*Not observed in the main study.
Minutes continued until 100.

Appendix H: L2 use classroom observation schedules (pilot and main study)

Classroom L2 Use Record (during and after observation)-Pilot Study

Teacher: _____ Programme : _____ Student Group:_____
Date   : _____ Time   : _____ Subject   : _____

Time	Time Use	T's		SS'	
		C	S	T	S
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					
16					
17					
18					
19					
20					
21					
22					
23					
24					
25					
26					
27					
28					
29					
30					
31					
31					
33					
34					
35					
36					
37					
38					
39					
40					
	TOTAL				

Time	Time Use	T's		SS'	
		C	S	T	S
41					
42					
43					
44					
45					
46					
47					
48					
49					
50					
51					
52					
53					
54					
55					
56					
57					
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68					
69					
70					
71					
71					
73					
74					
75					
76					
77					
78					
79					
80					
	TOTAL				

Classroom L2 Use Record (during and after observation)-Main Study

Teacher : _____   Programme: _____   Student Group: _____

Date   : _____   Time: _____   Subject   : _____

Time*		Time Use — Second																													Total
1		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
	T																															
	S																															
		31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	
	T																															
	S																															
2	T																															
	S																															
	T																															
	S																															
3	T																															
	S																															
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4	T																															
	S																															
	T																															
	S																															
5	T																															
	S																															
	T																															
	S																															
Total																																

*The time continues until 100 minutes

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Abbreviations

APEC   : Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation

ASEAN   : Association of Southeast Asian Nations

CLIL   : Content and Language Integrated Learning

CPD   : Continuing Professional Development

CSOs   : Civil Society Organizations

DA   : Discourse Analysis

EF   : English First

EFL   : English as a Foreign Language

EPI   : English Proficiency Index

ESL   : English as a Second Language

ESP   : English for Specific Purposes

HE   : Higher Education

ICT   : Information Communication and Technology

HEIs   : Higher Education Institutions

IQF   : Indonesian Qualifications Framework

KMO   : Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

L1   : First Language

L2   : Second Language

MTS   : Motivational Teaching Strategies

PhD   : Doctor of Philosophy

SD   : *Standard Deviation*

SD   : Sekolah Dasar

SE   : *Standard Error*

SDT   : Self Determination Theory

SM   : Student Motivation

SMA   : Sekolah Menengah Atas

SMK   : Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan

SMP   : Sekolah Menengah Pertama

SLA   : Second Language Acquisition

SPSS   : Statistical Package for Social Sciences

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