THE IMPACT OF EFL TEACHER MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES ON STUDENT

MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH IN COSTA RICA

by

MADELINE ASHER JONES

(Under the Direction of Vera Lee-Schoenfeld)

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the relationship between EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teacher motivational strategies and student motivation. Previous research has shown a positive relationship between EFL student motivation and student acquisition of the target language; however, little work has been done to explore what EFL teachers can do to generate, foster, and maintain the motivation of their students. The present study uses the MOLT scheme (as developed by Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008) in middle and high school classrooms in Costa Rica. Student self-reported questionnaire data was compared to student and teacher classroom observations. The study found strong positive correlations between student motivation and all aspects of the teacher's motivational practice, *except* "teacher discourse," suggesting that a teacher who speaks too frequently in the EFL classroom may impede student motivation.

INDEX WORDS: Motivation, Motivational Strategies, EFL, Second Language Acquisition, Instructional Conversation

THE IMPACT OF EFL TEACHER MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES ON STUDENT

MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH IN COSTA RICA

by

MADELINE ASHER JONES

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF ARTS

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2017

THE IMPACT OF EFL TEACHER MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES ON STUDENT

MOTIVATION TO LEARN ENGLISH IN COSTA RICA

by

MADELINE ASHER JONES

Major Professor:		Vera Lee-Schoenfeld
Committee Members:		Keith Langston
		Paula Mellom

Electronic Version Approved:

Suzanne Barbour
Dean of the Graduate School
The University of Georgia
May 2017

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many thanks to Paula, who inspired me to work on the topic of student motivation; and to the Costa Rican teachers involved in this research, without whose input and help this paper would not be possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Student motivation has an important impact on student achievement. In the case of Second Language Acquisition research in particular, the focus is on the role of student motivation in acquisition of the target language. Indeed, much research has been conducted in this field to empirically link English as a Foreign Language (EFL) student motivation and student achievement (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Tremblay and Gardner, 1995; Noels et al., 2000; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Specifically, intrinsic motivation (motivation that comes from within oneself rather than from others) plays a larger role than extrinsic motivation (motivation that comes from others and society) in student achievement (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006), although both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation correlate positively with student achievement.

Knowing that a student with higher levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will likely achieve more in the EFL classroom, it is then beneficial to consider things that the EFL teacher can do to improve and foster the motivation of their students. To put it simply, previous research has already shown that variable B (student motivation) impacts variable C (student achievement). This study seeks to examine the relationship between variable A (teacher motivational strategies) and variable B. If we can show that A affects B, we can then transitively hypothesize that A would affect C as well.

My thesis will examine the teacher motivational strategies that promote increased motivation among EFL students, as well as which sub-areas of student motivation are most affected by the teaching strategies. The research questions are as follows

      (a) Which EFL teacher motivational strategies maximally promote student motivation?
      (b) Do EFL teacher motivational strategies have more of an impact on intrinsic or
extrinsic student motivation?
      (c) Is intrinsic motivation reflected in learner motivated behavior?

I hypothesize that the motivational strategies that foster positive student self-images, decrease

classroom anxiety, and stimulate student interest will be the most effective. Among the students,

I hypothesize that the area of motivation most affected by the instructor to be intrinsic rather than

extrinsic motivation, because student confidence, comfort, stimulation, and enjoyment are all

intrinsic aspects. Extrinsic factors such as the influence of peers, family, society, and culture, are

less likely to be affected by the student's teacher and classroom experience. While the teacher

could also influence a student's extrinsic motivation (e.g. by stressing the importance of English

for a future career), Noels et al. found that the teacher's *style of teaching* "may not be relevant if

the student pursues learning for extrinsic reasons." Student perception of the teacher's style and

classroom environment are associated instead with intrinsic motivation. (Noels, Clément, &

Pelletier, 1999)

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation within the realm of Second Language Acquisition research is defined as "the desire to initiate L2 learning, and the effort employed to sustain it." (Ortega, 2009) It is not a stagnant or fixed single quality to be achieved, but rather dynamic and subject to change and development over time. In order to use motivation as a variable to be researched, it must be measurable and therefore reflect a quantity. With this measurement, learners can be shown to be more or less motivated to learn and maintain their L2.

The study of motivation in this field of Second Language Acquisition began in the late 1950's when Gardner and Lambert developed a model for L2 motivation within their socio-educational model. A few decades later, Gardner developed an instrument to measure a learner's degree of motivation: The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). (R. C. Gardner, 1985) The AMTB was composed of three subscales of learner motivation:

a) Motivational intensity (i.e. how much effort the learner is willing to expend to learn the L2);
b) Attitude (i.e. the amount of enjoyment the learner feels when learning or using the L2); and
c) Investment (i.e. for what reasons the learner wants to learn the L2).

The instrument was given in questionnaire form with two sections. The first section is composed of statements with which the respondent can agree or disagree. These statements examine the subscales "motivational intensity" and "investment." The respondent selects the amount to which s/he agrees or disagrees with the statement from a six-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The second part of the questionnaire examines the subscale

"attitude" by asking the respondents about their feelings toward learning the L2. Questions are formatted in a seven-point semantic differential scale.

The AMTB has been used in the literature to show positive correlations between student motivation and student achievement or learning in situations both where English (R. C. Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991) or other languages (R. C. Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Robert C. Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) were the target languages. In 2009, Bernaus et al. (Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009) used a "mini-AMTB" in Catalonia to find positive correlations between integrative, parental encouragement, and instrumental motivational factors and student achievement. This study included both information about the students' motivational state and the motivational strategies of the teacher. They found, regarding teacher motivational strategies, a negative correlation between traditional teaching strategies and student achievement, as well as a positive correlation between innovative teaching strategies and decreased student anxiety. However, as is the case with the AMTB, this study relied solely on self-reported questionnaires, with no observational component.

Regarding a learner's motivation orientation (i.e. reasons for learning the L2), the research agrees on five subcategories:

    a) Instrumental (i.e. needing the L2 for a job)
    b) Knowledge (i.e. learning for the sake of learning)
    c) To facilitate travel
    d) Friendship
    e) Integrative (i.e. a desire to be part of the L2 culture and/or society)

It has also been shown that a learner's past experiences and attitudes have an effect on L2 learner motivation (R.C. Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay, 1999).

Recently, the research has shifted from analyzing the quantity of L2 motivation to analyzing the quality of it. This shift relies on the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation, where intrinsic motivation comes from within the learner, and extrinsic motivation includes aspects like societal pressures or an instrumental "need" for the L2. Noels et al. (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000) developed the Language Learning Orientation Scale, which introduced this dichotomy of intrinsic versus extrinsic L2 motivation. Intrinsic motivation is considered a stronger and more important factor, because it has been shown experimentally to be linked to higher levels of achievement (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006)). The Language Learning Orientation Scale relied entirely on a learner self-report questionnaire, as had all the previous studies focusing on motivation as a factor of SLA. Noels et al. found that classroom settings in which the teacher is too controlling or the students do not have enough autonomy actually lower intrinsic motivation -- students do not enjoy those settings.

While this new self-determination model of L2 motivation succeeds in highlighting the importance of learner intrinsic motivation, it falls short in that it cannot account adequately for external factors like societal attitudes towards the L2, or pressures in the job market to acquire the L2.

Another drawback in previous SLA motivation research was the location of the studies: they were very restricted to North American settings, and thus the model of western education. Gardner and his colleagues worked in Canada, as did Noels and her colleagues. Zoltan Dornyei brought a more global perspective when he began his research in this field, conducting studies in Hungary and places in eastern Asia, such as Korea and Taiwan.

Nevertheless, most of the previous research on this subject of EFL motivation has focused on the correlation between EFL student motivation and achievement (what I view as going from point B to point C). My study takes a step back and examines teacher practices that can foster student motivation (thus, going from point A to point B). As mentioned earlier, in the

field of educational psychology, Vansteenkiste et al. (2006) showed experimentally that intrinsic motivation is associated with higher levels of achievement. This finding is particularly relevant to my hypothesis that teachers can have a bigger impact on intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation, because it would transitively magnify the effects of a teacher on student achievement.

In sum, Second Language Acquisition research has already empirically shown that EFL student motivation correlates positively with student achievement. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) in a study linking previous studies by Gardner found that student enjoyment and investment together accounted for 16% of the variation of motivation and achievement. They measured achievement via class grades, self-reported proficiency, and/or test scores. Cheng and Dornyei (2007) widened the net to include more motivational variables, such as student intended effort and student behaviors, and found an even higher percent of variance accounted for: 35%. Dornyei (1994) notes that extrinsic motivation can often negatively impact intrinsic motivation in the classroom, for instance, when required reading or upcoming tests take away student enjoyment for learning.

In the aforementioned article, Dornyei delved deeply into the nuances of EFL student motivation categories, looking at student motivation at three levels: language, learner, and learning situation. Of the three of Dornyei's (1994) levels, the latter two are related to my research topic. Learner level motivation includes linguistic self-confidence and speaker anxiety, while learning situation level motivation is comprised of course-, teacher-, and group-specific motivational components. Dornyei concluded this paper by noting that learning situation level motivation had not been studied in depth; however, in the two decades since this paper's publication, a number of researchers have attempted to examine the relationship between EFL

teacher behavior and student motivation/achievement. This paper seeks to expand upon those studies. For instance, Gardner (2007) consistently finds a fairly weak correlation between classroom attitude and achievement (independent from the measure of achievement he uses); however, he does not think that this means that teacher practices have no impact on student motivation.

In 2005 Chen et al. (Chen, Warden, & CHANG, 2005) backed up to look at teacher motivational strategies (finally going from point A to point B) and suggested that there is a cultural and/or governmental component to EFL motivation which should be factored in alongside teacher motivational strategies. Intuitively, this finding makes sense, because speaker attitudes towards a foreign language are influenced by their culture. However, this study's participants were older than schoolchildren (an average age of 25) and most of them had studied science or engineering, a global field in which English is a leading language. Thus, for these participants, Chen et al. suggest that a more intrinsic aspect of motivation such as integration is not as salient as an extrinsic instrumental aspect, such as needing English for a career path. While this study attempted to examine the impact of teacher motivational strategies on student motivation, it left many gaps. My study can help to fill in those gaps, because it has younger, grade-school age participants, which allows me to look more directly at intrinsic rather than solely instrumental motivation via a framework developed by Guilloteaux and Dornyei.

While all of the previously mentioned studies relied on learner self-report questionnaires to assess student motivation, Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) developed a framework to observe motivation quantitatively in the EFL classroom in conjunction with a self-report questionnaire: the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT). MOLT includes observational guidelines for evidence of both learner motivation and teacher motivational strategy use.

"Learner motivated behavior" is observed in three categories: "alertness," "participation," and "volunteering," where the observer marks a box each minute corresponding to the approximate percentage of the class who demonstrates the categories in that time frame. "Teacher's motivational teaching practices" are observed as a construct of 25 observational variables pulled from Dornyei's 1994 paper, which contained a list of 30 items that a teacher could use to motivate students. Teacher motivational strategies were coded per minute: each minute of the observation video was assigned a behavior, such that the percentage of class time spent on each motivation strategy could be calculated.

Since the invention of the MOLT framework, it has been used in a few studies that (once again) examined point B to point C: the impact of student motivation on achievement. In 2011, Huang (Huang, 2011) used the MOLT framework to analyze the impact of content-based language instruction (CBLI) on EFL learner motivated behaviors in Taiwan. However, since the study was unconcerned with teacher motivational strategies, it used only the portion of MOLT dealing with learner motivated behavior. Other studies using only this portion of MOLT have been conducted in Japan (Stroud, 2013) and Iran (Heidari-Shahreza & others, 2014). However, I have found only one study which has replicated the entirety of the MOLT framework.

Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012) replicated the Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) study where MOLT was first used, with the addition of the impact of motivational strategies on the learner's ideal vs. ought-to self (from Dornyei's "The L2 Motivational Self System" (2009)). Papi and Abdollahzadeh dug deeper into the aspects of learner motivated behavior: specifically, whether the observed learner motivated behavior correlated with the students' self-reported motivation. Due to cultural restrictions, the participants were all male, with an average age of 14. The study found strong correlations between teacher motivational practice and learner motivated

behavior, but intriguingly, a nonsignificant correlation between learner motivated behavior and self-reported motivation. The authors noted that in implementing the MOLT framework in Iran, they had "generalized beyond national boundaries." My study also makes use of the entire MOLT framework, and furthers this generalization across borders, because it implements the framework in Costa Rican classrooms. Additionally, my sample is more reflective of the population, because I survey students of both genders.

"Going from point A to point B" is an important step in the research field because if we can see a link between EFL teacher behaviors and student motivation, we can as EFL teachers and/or tutors transitively foster student achievement in an effective manner. My data from grade school classrooms in Costa Rica can then be compared to data from other parts of the world, to see if there is a "universally" effective teaching motivational strategy, or if it is more culturally bound.

This study is grounded in the theories of intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation as explained by Dornyei (1994), as well as in the observational tool MOLT created by Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008), explained above.

The Instructional Conversation Pedagogy

While the examination of the effectiveness of this pedagogy is not the focus of the current study, it bears briefly introducing and explaining, because the videos analyzed in the present study are videos from teachers who have received training in this pedagogy. The main focus of the Instructional Conversation is to provide students with opportunities for extended dialogue, where that dialogue both has educational value for the students and is also relevant to their lives. (August & Hakuta, 1998) The IC aids students not only in developing their language

skills, but their complex thinking skills as well, because a successful IC requires an intellectually challenging task that is collaborative in nature.

      A successful IC divides a classroom into small groups (3-7 members) in a challenging but non-threatening atmosphere. The joint productive activity (JPA) should have a clear thematic focus (that is, a connection to a larger, relevant issue), and the tasks should require students to produce more complex language and expression. This can be achieved, for example, by having fewer questions to which students already know the answer. Thus, the IC/JPA fosters and improves literacy, social skills, critical thinking, vocabulary, and oral production of language.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Eight middle- and high-school teachers in Costa Rica had students complete the
Motivation Questionnaire. Two of those eight teachers only had one student each complete the
questionnaire, so their responses were not analyzed because of the small sample size. Of the
remaining six teachers, five of them had received previous training in the Instructional
Conversation Pedagogy at a CLASE (Center for Latino Achievement and Success in Education)
summer institute at the University of Georgia. The teachers were trained over a period of five
days, and the training focused on both the theory of the pedagogy and its practice. After the
summer institute's conclusion, trained teachers remained in contact with the trainers and fellow
teachers via an online platform where teachers could upload lesson plans and videos of their
classrooms.

Teacher 1 was the only teacher who had not been trained in the IC Pedagogy. She teaches
in the same school as Teacher 2, who forwarded the questionnaire to Teacher 1. 24 of Teacher
1's students completed the questionnaire. Teachers 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 (all of whom had been
trained in the IC Pedagogy) had 72, 45, 57, 20, and 18 students complete the questionnaire,
respectively.

Teachers 1 and 2 - Bilingual High School

These teachers teach in a public bilingual high school with a competitive entrance exam
(approximately 600 students take the exam, and 100-150 are selected for admission). The

entrance exam mainly tests logical reasoning and textual understanding. Most students come from the suburban middle class, and the school gives some scholarships to help students with meals and books. In the students' final year of high school, they take an exam and are given an English proficiency certificate, which they can use to get entry-level jobs (Teacher 2 cites call centers as an example). Most students, however, continue their studies at a university.

Teacher 3 - Technical Middle/High School

Teacher 3 teaches in a technical school for middle and high school students (grades 7-12). The school is a public school; however, there are entry requirements for students in the seventh grade to enroll in the school. Geographically, the student must live in a nearby district. Academically, the student's grades from the previous year and the student's results on an entrance exam (covering math, science, social studies, Spanish, and English) are considered for admission. The student must also interview with the technical school's counsellor. Students earn "points" for each of the academic criteria and the interview, and then the students with the highest total numbers of points are admitted to the school. The number of students admitted per year is dependent on the number of available positions. In the tenth grade, students of this technical school choose a technical track within the school. The entry process into each track is similar to the entry process into the school itself, but more specific to the technical track. When students finish school, they are qualified for many technical jobs within large companies. Most of these students get a job after high school, so that they can make the money to be able to afford a university education a few years later.

Most of the students who attend this school come from poor backgrounds, often single-parent households. Teacher 3 reports that the areas his students come from have a "very bad reputation," citing violence and drugs as everyday threats for these students.

Teacher 4 - Middle School

Teacher 4 teaches at a public middle school with no official entry requirements other than geographic proximity to the school. Most students at this school come from urban settings with low socioeconomic status, where crime is a major problem. Many students come from single-parent or divorced-parent households; however, there are also many students who live with large extended families all in one house. Teacher 4 reports that the school recently asked students to purchase a book for class that cost approximately $8, and many of the students' families could not afford it.

Approximately 80% of the students move on to high school after they finish at this middle school; however, not all of those students will graduate from high school. The ones that do not continue their education start working to support their families.

Teacher 5 - Technical High School

Teacher 5 teaches in a public technical high school. Similar to the public technical school where Teacher 3 works, this school also has entry requirements despite its public nature. Students must pass an exam in their desired technical field of study (such as accounting, customer care, or mechanics), as well as interview with a school counsellor to demonstrate their soft skills. After the students graduate from this school, they are all inserted into tech companies where they apply their technical skills learned at school. Later on, many attend university to further their careers.

Most of the students who attend this school come from poor urban backgrounds with high levels of unemployment in their community. Teacher 5 also cites drugs as a problem in the area, and mentions that most of his students' parents have minimal levels of education.

Teacher 6 - Middle School

Unfortunately, we did not receive a response from this teacher regarding the demographic information of her students.

The Motivation Questionnaire

The Motivation Questionnaire was developed from Guilloteaux and Dornyei's (2008) student motivational state questionnaire. The original questionnaire was composed of three subscales: attitudes towards the course (9 items), linguistic self-confidence (8 items), and L2 classroom anxiety (3 items). The present study added a fourth subscale: external factors, because the three former subscales excluded extrinsically motivating factors. For consistency among the subscales, the present study added additional questions in each subscale (from Dornyei 1994), such that each of the first three subscales contained 10 items, and the final subscale (external factors) contained 7 items (37 items total). The questions were worded exactly as Guilloteaux and Dornyei had done, except that the present study changed any place names to Costa Rica.

For each item, students were asked to select the amount to which they agreed or disagreed with the given statement, in the format of a six-point Likert scale ranging from "totally disagree" - "disagree" - "disagree a little" - "agree a little" - "agree" - "totally agree." This six-point scale was chosen because it has no "neutral" response. Each point on the Likert scale was assigned a number, ranging from 1-6, such that the lowest number corresponded with "totally disagree" and the highest corresponded with "totally agree." Thus, the higher the student's total from all items, the more motivated that student is.

All 10 items in the "classroom anxiety" subscale were negatively worded (e.g., "I often feel nervous when speaking English in class."). There was no indication that this was confusing to the participants. In order for the scoring of the questionnaire responses to remain consistent,

the numbering had to be flipped; for these items, the number 6 corresponded with "totally disagree," and the number 1 corresponded with "totally agree."

In addition to the 37 motivational state items, the questionnaire also asked for demographic information such as school, birthplace, age, grade level, gender, and the number of years the student had been taking English classes.

For this study, the questionnaire was translated into Spanish and distributed to Costa Rican teachers involved in an ongoing collaboration with the University of Georgia's College of Education. The Costa Rican teachers were asked to have their students complete the questionnaire via Qualtrics, an online platform, which facilitated the gathering of data, as students could complete the questionnaire on their cell phones. This online platform randomized the order of the questions such that the subscales were distributed throughout the entire questionnaire. The random order was the same for every student.

Overall, 233 responses were collected from 8 different teachers. However, two teachers only had one response each, so their responses were not used for statistical purposes.

Once the questionnaire was closed, the questions were reorganized by subscale and sorted by teacher. Descriptive statistics (mean, median, standard deviation) were calculated for each teacher in general, as well as for each teacher for each subscale, such that each teacher had an average student motivation score for all four subscales combined and individually. An ANOVA test was run on the results to examine the statistical significance of the differences in teacher motivation score means.

Video Observations

Of the 6 teachers whose students' questionnaire responses were analyzed, only 4 of these teachers were able to provide videos of their classrooms. We could not make contact with Teacher 1, and Teacher 5 had made a video, but his laptop was stolen from his car before he had the chance to send it, and he was unable to recover the file. As mentioned earlier, the videos we were able to receive were of the teachers conducting IC's in their classrooms.

The videos were coded according to the MOLT framework explained in Guilloteaux & Dornyei (2008), with a few modifications. I decreased the time frame from 1 minute to 30 seconds, and instead of coding only one strategy per time unit, I coded all that occurred within that time unit (instead of just the dominant one). Furthermore, I redefined some of the original framework's terms (all from the "activity design" subscale) to fit the IC/JPA lesson format:

1. Tangible task production - the students are constructing something tangible, but that item does not have to be an item to be presented, such as a poster or brochure.

Some observed activities which I considered to be this strategy were: a) manipulating index cards with individual words and/or morphemes to create grammatical sentences; b) collaborating on a poster if new information was being added or the students were organizing existing information into a hierarchy. I did not count activities such as binary sorting, or the completion of a worksheet.

2. Intellectual challenge (namely, what is challenging?)

I considered a task to be intellectually challenging if a) the students are required to produce novel information, b) the task *requires* more than a single-word answer (not just that the teacher asks for complete sentences), c) students are asked to explain or defend their response, d)

students are helping to correct others' work and explain their corrections, or e) the task requires self-evaluation.

      3. Personalization

Guilloteaux & Dornyei (2008) define this item as "creating opportunities for students to express personal meanings (e.g., experiences, feelings, opinions)." Part of the structure of an effective JPA is that at the beginning, the students set conversational or participation goals for themselves. I considered this choosing of a personal conversational goal to be an instance of personalization in the activity design, because the students were given the choice of their goal.

      4. Element of interest, creativity, fantasy

Guilloteaux & Dornyei (2008) describe this item as "the activity contains ambiguous, paradoxical, problematic, controversial, contradictory, incongruous, or exotic material; connects with students' interests, values, creativity, fantasy, or arouses their curiosity." I simplified this via focusing on the aspect of creativity. For example, if the activity required the students to create their own sentence in a given tense with a given verb, I considered this to have a creative element.

Teacher 2 submitted two videos, both of her administering the exact same lesson. Both of her videos were analyzed, and the results were averaged to give her an observed motivational strategies score. Each other teacher only submitted one video. For each video, after the coding, the total amount of time units spent per motivational strategy was calculated. Since all videos were different lengths, these numbers were standardized by calculating the percent of each lesson devoted to each motivational strategy. These standardized numbers were then compared across teachers. Additionally, scores were calculated by observed subscale (learner motivated behavior,

encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, activity design, participation structure, and teacher discourse) by summing the standardized values in each subscale.

Correlations were calculated according to two main comparisons: first, between the results of the motivation questionnaire and observed learner motivated behavior; and second, between the results of the motivation questionnaire and observed teacher motivational practice. Each of the main comparisons was broken down into subscale correlations as well, to examine the relationships between not just the teacher's overall motivational practice and the questionnaire results, but more specifically regarding one component of the teacher's motivational practice.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Motivation Questionnaire (see Appendix A for a complete list of questionnaire items**)**

Teacher Averages and Outliers

Total teacher motivational scores across the four questionnaire subscales ranged from 168-180.75. Scores from four teachers (1, 2, 4, 6) clustered at the bottom of the range (168-169.64), and the two remaining teacher scores (from Teachers 3, 5) were approximately ten points higher. (See Table 1) An ANOVA test shows, however, that the difference in means is not statistically significant (p-value 0.106), because the variation within individual groups (each teacher) is larger than the variation between groups.

Table 1. Total Teacher Motivational Scores

Teacher	Mean Motiv. Score	Median Motiv. Score	Standard Deviation	Number of Responses
1	169.17	177	21.155	24
2	169.64	173	22.045	72
3	178.53	182	23.882	45
4	168.38	167	26.643	57
5	180.75	187	20.736	20
6	168	167.5	22.752	18

To explain the above numbers a bit more in detail, a "perfect" score on the motivation questionnaire (that is, the student answers 6, or "totally agree" for all statements) was 222. The lowest possible score (responding 1 to all statements) was 37. All six average teacher motivational scores fell into a range (148-184) corresponding to the students responding with mostly 4 and 5.

The lowest student motivation score was 88, from a student of Teacher 3. This score equates to responding 1 or 2 to every statement. This was surprising, given that Teacher 3 has one of the two highest average scores. It would be consistent with my hypotheses if a student with low total motivation score occurred in conjunction with a highly scoring teacher, if this student still had high extrinsic motivation scores, because I hypothesized that the teacher's practice has a larger effect on student intrinsic motivation. However, this student scored low on all four subscales of the motivation questionnaire. Specifically, the student responded 1 to all statements in the "external factors" subscale -- the subscale designed to examine extrinsic motivation. Such responses suggest that this student does not feel an instrumental need to learn English, which is surprising, given that the student attends a technical high school. Regarding the three other subscales designed to examine intrinsic motivational factors, this student's responses were also low on the "classroom anxiety" and "attitudes towards the course" subscales. These responses indicate that the student does not fear speaking English in the classroom, and harbors no strong ill will against Teacher 3 or the school environment. Despite this self-reported comfort in the classroom, the student's responses are very low (answering mostly 1 and 2) on the "linguistic self-confidence" subscale. (Some readers may view this student's responses as a student who has no interest in filling out a questionnaire, and thus simply marks the first option on every statement. However, if this were the case, the student would score very highly in the

"classroom anxiety" subscale, because those numbers were flipped due to negatively worded questions. Thus, we can assume that this student did in fact take the questionnaire seriously.) So while the student does not feel anxious in class, when s/he does speak, s/he does not feel very confident in doing so.

The highest student motivation score was 210, from a student of Teacher 5. However, unlike the lowest-scoring student, this student was less of an outlier. This student responded with 6 on all questions in the "external factors" subscale, indicating large amounts of extrinsic, instrumental motivation, as well as large amounts of societal pressure to learn English. This student responded with 5 and 6 on all other subscales of the questionnaire, with one exception: on one question in the "linguistic self-confidence" subscale, this student marked a 3. Overall, this student's responses indicate favorable attitudes towards both the classroom environment and the learning and use of English. There were multiple other students scoring above 200, spread out among teachers other than 3 and 5.

(See Appendix A for a list of the questions in the Motivational Questionnaire. For a more detailed explanation of the development and administration of the questionnaire, see the Methodology section.)

Analysis by Subscale

Delving deeper into the subscales of the questionnaire (see Table 2), "external factors" was the highest-scoring subscale across all teachers. A "perfect" score on this subscale was 42, and all teachers scored between 36-39. This means that most students answered 5 or 6 on all questions in this subscale. This finding is in line with the cultural views towards the English language, where many jobs require English proficiency, and career opportunities are much more extensive if one speaks English. It is interesting to see that even at a middle-school age, students

in Costa Rican classrooms understand and can articulate this societal pressure to learn English. Additionally, this external pressure to learn English is felt by students in different types of schools – not just technical schools or magnet schools.

"Attitudes towards the course" was the second-highest scoring subscale across all teachers. A "perfect" score on the three subscales examining intrinsic motivation was 60, and teacher scores on the first subscale ranged from 48-51. This means that most students answered mostly 5 on all questions in this subscale. The medians for this subscale were very similar across all teachers, which is a promising finding because it means students in different school settings view their English classes favorably. The similarity in student attitude even coming from different schools could be related to the Instructional Conversation pedagogy, which increases student involvement in the course. A student who is more involved in his/her own learning would likely have a more favorable attitude towards the course itself, because that course is structured to give the student a voice in the classroom and foster engagement. Students likely enjoy a class more when they can actively participate. This analysis is supported by video observations, discussed in Section 2.1.1.

Teacher scores on the subscale "linguistic self-confidence" ranged from 44-50. Teachers 3 and 5 scored the highest on this subscale, with very similar scores. This is in line with the finding that those teachers had the highest overall motivational scores. Analysis of classroom videos of participating teachers discussed in Section 2.1.2. explores possible links between teacher behaviors and linguistic self-confidence.

The final intrinsic subscale, "classroom anxiety," was the lowest scoring subscale of the four. Teacher averages ranged from 34-41, with the lowest average coming from Teacher 6. This subscale had the most fluctuation of any subscale in the questionnaire, as well. Teacher 3 had the

highest average on this subscale, and interestingly, this is a teacher who performs aspects of the

Instructional Conversation successfully (as discussed in subsequent sections). This could suggest

that the structure of the IC can help lower students' anxiety in the classroom. Qualitatively, this

makes sense because of the IC's emphasis on small group work. Students would feel more

comfortable making mistakes in front of a small group of their peers than they would in front of

the entire class, because in a small group it is easier to build trust and rapport among fellow

group members.

Table 2. Teacher Motivational Scores by Subscale
Teacher 1

	Attitude towards the course	Linguistic self-confidence	Classroom anxiety	External factors
Average	49.39	46.17	36.65	36.96
Median	52	47	37	38
Standard Dev.	9.019	7.265	9.722	4.477

Teacher 2

	Attitude towards the course	Linguistic self-confidence	Classroom anxiety	External factors
Average	48.06	44.83	39.38	37.38
Median	50.5	45	40	38
Standard Dev.	9.219	7.651	11.446	3.895

Teacher 3

	Attitude towards the course	Linguistic self-confidence	Classroom anxiety	External factors
Average	51.47	49.29	41.29	36.29
Median	55	50	44	38

Standard Dev.	9.846	9.846	11.337	5.731

Teacher 4

	Attitude towards the course	Linguistic self-confidence	Classroom anxiety	External factors
Average	48.17	45.74	38.09	36.37
Median	52	47	42	38
Standard Dev.	11.301	10.572	12.235	6.954

Teacher 5

	Attitude towards the course	Linguistic self-confidence	Classroom anxiety	External factors
Average	51.45	49.65	40.35	39.3
Median	53	51	43	40.5
Standard Dev.	7.192	5.824	11.654	2.638

Teacher 6

	Attitude towards the course	Linguistic self-confidence	Classroom anxiety	External factors
Average	50.89	45.22	34.44	37.44
Median	53	45	33	39.5
Standard Dev.	7.933	5.440	14.920	6.070

Video Observations

As previously mentioned, only four teachers of the six who had students complete the questionnaire were able to send in videos of their classrooms. I did not receive videos from either Teacher 1 or Teacher 5.

Each of the four videos was intended to be an example of the teacher conducting an IC/JPA activity, though not every teacher managed to implement the pedagogical model with fidelity.

Teacher 2 submitted two videos. In both videos she is conducting the same lesson, but each video is with a different group. This is actually quite valuable with regards to the IC; the IC is focused on cycling different groups of students through the same activities, and in this teacher's videos, we see exactly that. Additionally, this teacher had the most students fill out the questionnaire, so having two videos from her classroom is somewhat representative of this ratio. Teacher 2's first video was 47 time units long (one time unit is equal to thirty seconds), and her second, 53 time units long.

Teacher 2's lesson focused on the structure of the English present progressive. The activity was collaborative, with an emphasis on cooperation. Students began by sorting sentences into groups based on tense: there were six sentences and three "tenses" (where tense can mean a combination of morphological tense and aspect): past, simple present, and present progressive. Next, the group was given a set of index cards where each card had one word or morpheme of a sentence. The -ing form of the present progressive was separate from the main verb. For example, one card would have the word "he," others "run," "n," "ing." There were four sentences total. After constructing those sentences from their pieces, students had to describe the

structure of the present progressive. The final activity was to create your own sentences in the present progressive, when given a main verb to use.

The topic of Teacher 3's video was teamwork, and the characteristics of good teamwork. The students were given approximately a dozen slips of paper, each with one characteristic of teamwork, and asked to organize the strips of paper into a hierarchy of importance. Once they had reached an agreement on the hierarchy, they were asked to add their own characteristics of a successful team into the hierarchy. This teacher's video was 30 time units long, the shortest of any of the four teachers who submitted videos.

Teacher 4's lesson focused on biodiversity in Costa Rica, with an emphasis on the flora and fauna of Costa Rica. The students were asked to discuss reasons that Costa Rica was famous, and then the majority of the lesson was spent with students categorizing English names for Costa Rican plants and animals based on whether they were flora or fauna. The lesson was 37 time units in length, but it was not an example of a successful Instructional Conversation. (See Table 3 for IC-JPA implementation across teachers.)
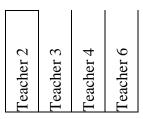
Teacher 6's lesson discussed holidays in both Costa Rica and the United States. Where the other videos were solely of a small group IC activity, Teacher 6 began with a class-wide "hot potato" activity: if the student was holding the "hot potato" when the music stopped, s/he had to answer a question from the teacher about holidays and their celebration. The Joint Productive Activity from this video was a discussion about how holidays are celebrated differently in Costa Rica than they are in the United States. Most of the discourse structure was T-S-T (Teacher-Student-Teacher) rather than the optimal JPA discourse structure of T-S-S (Teacher-Student-Student). The students involved in the JPA did not do much speaking to one another. Unfortunately, this video was low in quality, and there were times where the audio was not

synced with the video. I stopped analyzing this video in the 30th time unit, when Teacher 6

leaves the first JPA closest to the camera, because she then becomes impossible to understand.

Table 3. Instructional Conversation Observational Instrument (Mellom, Gokee, Weber, 2016)

1. Small group instruction (3-7 students) is occurring.	X	X	X	X
2. Grouping appears to be flexible and diverse, possibly meeting a variety of needs.	X		X	
3. The students outside of the IC-JPA are working independently, not requiring the teacher's attention.			X	X
4. There is at least one group outside of the IC-JPA that is engaged in an independent JPA.			X	X
5. Conversational expectations are posted and reviewed before, during, and or after the IC-JPA.				
6. The students develop & share their personal conversational goals before, and evaluate progress after, the IC-JPA.	X	X	X	
7. The teacher provides praise & feedback regarding individual goals at the end of the IC-JPA.	X	X		
8. The teacher does not shut down conversation, and promotes pinballing (T-S-S, T-S-S)	X	X		
9. The teacher facilitates & questions the students and allows for productive struggle, while not allowing the conversation to stall.	X	X		X
10. The task requires student collaboration to solve a problem or create a product.	X	X	X	
11. The task requires discussion, engagement, citing evidence, sharing opinions, etc.	X	X	X	X
12. The teacher listens, responds and assists language development by: modeling, recasting, eliciting, seeking clarifications.	X		X	X
13. The students listen, respond, assist, and interact with other students.	X	X	X	X
14. The teacher plans the lesson to connect the concept to students' lives and common experiences.	X	X	X	X
15. If the students make connections to their lives and background knowledge, the teacher capitalizes on the opportunity to support the academic goal.		X	X	X
16. The lesson includes complex question(s) that address common misconceptions.	X		X	
17. The lesson requires students to question and defend their thinking while confronting multiple and/or conflicting possible answers.	X	X	X	
18. The teacher provides enough time for students to think before they answer and move through the "Learning Pit" without saving them.	X			

Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 6

Observational Analysis by Subscale

The video observational framework was comprised of five subscales. The first (learner motivated behavior) focuses on observing student behavior, while the subsequent four (encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, activity design, participation structure, and teacher discourse) focus on observing teacher behavior and the lesson design. (For a complete description of the MOLT observational framework, see the Methodology section.)

Learner Motivated Behavior

The correlation between teacher motivational scores (from the questionnaire) and observed learner motivated behavior was very strongly positive: 0.908. Contrary to Papi and Abdollahzadeh's findings (2012), in this study, there is a significant relationship between self-reported student motivation and observable learner motivated behavior. This could be affected by this study's use of the IC pedagogy, which Papi and Abdollahzadeh did not utilize in their study. The small-group structure of a successful IC could impact the students' feelings of accountability in the classroom, and motivate them to volunteer more readily and pay more attention. Additionally, students are more comfortable in small groups, and increased comfort facilitates participation, because students are not as worried about making mistakes when they are comfortable. Students of Teacher 2 report that they like the IC style of lessons better because they participate more, and in Teacher 3's video, the students are smiling and laughing with each other and the teacher -- behaviors that could indicate comfort with the environment.

Delving deeper into the subcategories of learner motivated behavior, students in all videos performed similarly with regard to engagement and attention (both of these subcategories applied if more than ⅔ of the students were engaged and attentive). Teacher 3's students paid attention 100% of the time during the video, closely followed by Teachers 2 and 6, whose students paid attention 97% of the time. Teacher 4's students paid the least attention, but their percentage of attention was still quite high at 89%.

There was more variance in the engagement subcategory, specifically with Teacher 6. However, this can be explained by the different number of students in Teacher 6's video. Her video began with a class-wide activity containing approximately thirty students, whereas the other teachers' videos only showed five students at once. In smaller groups (as the IC intends), students should be more engaged, because they know they will have to participate. In big groups, like the entire class, it is easier for some students to slip under the radar and become unengaged.

The final subcategory of learner motivated behavior (eager volunteering) showed the most interesting difference between teachers in this subscale. Eager volunteering applied in a time unit of the video if over ⅓ of the students were raising their hands or giving answers to questions. Teacher 3's video saw the highest percentage, with students volunteering eagerly 53% of the time. The second-highest was from Teacher 2, at 32% of the time, and Teachers 4 and 6 showed similar percentages to each other (19% and 17%, respectively), both less than half the frequency of the students in Teacher 3's video. (See Table 4 for observational data.) When this subcategory of learner motivated behavior is isolated from the other two, it correlates even more strongly with the self-reported motivational scores: 0.963.

Table 4. Time Units / Percentage of the Lesson Devoted to Each Motivational Strategy (excerpt from MOLT Observation Framework)

			Time Units per Strategy				Percentage of Lesson per Strategy			
			Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 6	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 6
Learner Motivated Behavior		Eager Volunteering	32	16	7	5	32	53	19	17
		Engagement	89	27	31	21	89	90	84	70
		Attention	97	30	33	29	97	100	89	97
Teacher Motivational Practice	Generating/Maintaining/Protecting Situation-specific Task Motivation	Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation — Class Applause	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
		Effective Praise	8	4	0	0	8	13	0	0
		Elicitation of Self/Peer Correction	25	5	2	0	25	17	5	0
		Process Feedback	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Neutral Feedback	18	10	12	10	18	33	32	33
		Activity Design — + Team Competition	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		+ Individual Competition	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	13
		+ Tangible Task Product	16	10	0	0	16	33	0	0
		+ Intellectual Challenge	43	16	1	1	43	53	3	3
		+ Creative Element	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
		+ Personalization	4	2	2	0	4	6	5	0
		+ Tangible Reward	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		P.S. — Group Work	26	14	9	2	26	47	24	7
		Pair Work	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
		Teacher Discourse — Referential Questions	3	0	2	11	3	0	5	37
		Promoting Autonomy	2	0	2	1	2	0	5	3
		Promoting Cooperation	12	1	3	1	12	3	8	3
		Scaffolding	38	4	9	3	38	13	24	10
		Arousing Curiosity	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Promoting Instrumental Values	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Promoting Integrative Values	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	10
		Establishing Relevance	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Stating the Communicative Purpose of the Activity	4	0	0	0	4	0	0	0
		Signposting	26	5	5	6	26	17	14	20
		Social Chat	3	0	1	0	3	0	3	0

Teacher Motivational Practice

Combining all four subcategories of observed teacher motivational practice, there is a positive correlation (0.647) between teacher motivational scores (from the questionnaire) and observed teacher motivational practice. This supports the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between general teacher motivational strategies and student motivation; however, to see the entire picture requires breaking down the results by subscale. (See Table 4 for observational data.)

Subscale (i): Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-Evaluation

Teacher 3 scored the highest on this subscale, with a total subscale score of 63. (This number is the sum of his subcategory scores: effective praise, 13%; elicitation of self/peer correction, 17%; and neutral feedback, 33%.) He was one of only two teachers to use "effective praise"; the other was Teacher 2, who scored the second-highest on this subscale, with a total subscale score of 51 (sum of: effective praise, 8%; elicitation of self/peer correction, 25%; neutral feedback, 18%). Teacher 4 was the only teacher for whom the subcategory "class applause" applied, although it only accounted for 3% of the lesson time. He had a similar percentage of neutral feedback (32%) as Teacher 3, however, Teacher 4 fell behind Teachers 2 and 3 with regards to the elicitation of self/peer correction (5%). Thus, Teacher 4's total subscale score was 40. Teacher 6 only made use of one subcategory from this subscale, neutral feedback, although with a similar frequency as Teachers 3 and 4 (33%). None of the teachers used the subcategory "process feedback."

The correlation between teacher motivational scores (from the questionnaire) and observed subscale (i) was strongly positive (0.896) and the highest among subscales of teacher motivational practice, though not as strong as the correlations in the learner motivated behavior

subscale. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation is likely a good motivational strategy for teachers.

Subscale (ii): Activity Design

Teacher 3 also scored the highest on this subscale, with a total subscale score of 86 (the sum of: tangible task product, 33%; intellectual challenge, 53%; personalization, 6%). Only Teachers 3 and 2 gave lessons requiring a tangible task product. These teachers also had high motivational scores, suggesting that students may enjoy these types of activities more than activities which do not require the students to produce anything tangible. Teacher 2 scored second-highest on this subscale as well, with a total subscale score of 66 (the sum of: tangible task product, 16%; intellectual challenge, 43%; creative element, 3%; and personalization, 4%). She was the only teacher to incorporate a creative element into the lesson, but she fell behind Teacher 3 in the tangible task product subcategory: Teacher 3's lesson made use of a tangible task product over twice as frequently as Teacher 2's. Teacher 6 was the only teacher to use individual competition in this subscale (13%). This is likely because of her different video structure; her video began with a class-wide competition activity. There is not typically competition in a JPA, which would explain the lack of this subcategory in the other three teacher videos. Teacher 4 scored the lowest on this subscale, with a total subscale score of 8 (the sum of: intellectual challenge, 3%; personalization, 5%).

The differences in the intellectual challenge ratings here indicate that Teachers 4 and 6 were not carrying out the IC correctly, as a true IC should focus on an intellectually challenging task. Indeed, from the IC-JPA observation (see Table 3 above) we see this confirmed.

The correlation between teacher motivational scores and observed subscale (ii) is also strongly positive (0.819), indicating that activity design may foster student motivation. If a task

or lesson is intellectually challenging, it is also likely to be more engaging, because students would be interested in participating. Engagement is a motivated behavior (as discussed above), so an intellectually challenging activity design could help transitively foster student motivation (intellectual challenge promotes engagement, which promotes motivation). Similarly, working on a tangible task product would keep students engaged because they would be constantly producing something, or working collaboratively to produce something. There is less opportunity for a student's mind to wander if the activity is designed with an intellectual challenge or tangible task product in mind. Student enjoyment, engagement, and attention all foster an increase in intrinsic motivation.

Subscale (iii): Participation Structure

Teacher 3 also has the highest total subscale score for this subscale, at 47 -- Teacher 3 had students *working* in groups (not just divided into groups) 47% of the total lesson time. This is approximately twice as frequently as Teachers 2 and 4 (26% and 24%, respectively). Teacher 2 had one instance of pair work as well, although group work was much more prominent. The prominence of group work in these three teachers is likely due to the structure of a JPA, in which the focus is on group work, dialogue, and joint production. Teacher 6 only had students working in groups 7% of the total lesson time. She did begin her video with a class-wide activity, though. Even so, once her class split into groups for the JPA, they did not do much working together in groups. It was more as if Teacher 6 had just shrunk the size of her class, but was teaching in the same manner as if there were thirty students.

The importance of group work on a student's level of intrinsic motivation could be reflected in the subscales of intrinsic motivation "linguistic self-confidence" and "classroom anxiety." Making mistakes can be frightening, or the cause of nervousness, especially in front of

a student's peers. However, if there are fewer peers (as is the case when students work in small groups), a student may feel more comfortable speaking and making mistakes. When students work with the same groups for extended periods of time, they build rapport and establish trust with the other members of the group, both of which help the students in the group feel comfortable making mistakes around each other. Another benefit of group work with regards to intrinsic motivation is that small groups increase each student's opportunity to speak and participate. If a student has the opportunity to speak frequently (or is encouraged to speak frequently, as occurs in a JPA), that student might grow to have more linguistic self-confidence.

The correlation between teacher motivational scores and observed subscale (iii) is the second-highest of the subscales of teacher motivational practice (0.894), and only slightly less than the strongest from subscale (i) (0.896). In a few of the videos, students readily admit that they prefer working in groups, because it allows them to participate more. More frequent participation could increase linguistic self-confidence (as discussed above), and increased linguistic self-confidence is also linked to increased intrinsic motivation. Indeed, in the observations, we see that where there is more group work, there are also higher percentages of learner motivated behavior such as eager volunteering, engagement, and attention -- all of which are easier accomplished in small group settings than in classroom-wide settings.

Subscale (iv): Teacher Discourse

This final subscale has a different hierarchy of teachers from the rest of the observed subscales, including learner motivated behavior. Teacher 2 has the highest score of 88 and makes use of the most subcategories: referential questions, 3%; promoting autonomy, 2%; promoting cooperation, 12%; scaffolding, 38%; stating the communicative purpose of the activity, 4%; signposting, 26%; and social chat, 3%. She has the highest percentage of scaffolding; she

frequently speaks to remind students of previous class work, or to give them the tools to complete the activity. Too much scaffolding could verge on redundancy, though, which would likely not keep students engaged.

Next highest is Teacher 6, with a score of 83 (sum of: referential questions, 37%; promoting autonomy, 3%; promoting cooperation, 3%; scaffolding, 10%; promoting integrative values, 10%; and signposting, 20%). She is the only teacher to use the subcategory of promoting integrative values, but her lesson topic (holidays in Costa Rica versus holidays in the United States) lends itself better to this subcategory than the other teachers' lessons do. Teacher 4 is next highest, with a total subscale score of 59 (sum of: referential questions, 5%; promoting autonomy, 5%; promoting cooperation, 8%; scaffolding, 24%; signposting, 14%; and social chat, 3%). In sum, Teachers 2, 4, and 6 speak more often than Teacher 3.

Much of Teacher 4's discourse is in Spanish, the native language of the students, whereas in the other three teacher videos, there is rarely any (if any) Spanish spoken by the teacher. This could impact the linguistic self-confidence of Teacher 4's students, because if they do not frequently use English, it is likely that they would feel less comfortable using English than a student who frequently uses English in the classroom. Teacher 4's students are in middle rather than high school, as are Teacher 6's students. Since they are a few years younger than Teacher 2's and Teacher 3's students, they have less experience with the English language and therefore might require more L1 support in the foreign language classroom. However, the students in Teacher 4's video hardly produce any English on their own, whereas the students in Teacher 6's video do, even in the large class-wide activity. The impact of the use of the Target Language on motivation will be discussed further in Section 4.2.2.

In a different turn of events, Teacher 3 scores the lowest on this subscale (30), with a little over half the score of Teacher 4. Teacher 3 only makes use of three subcategories: promoting cooperation, 3%; scaffolding, 13%; and signposting, 17%. He is the only teacher not to use the subcategories of referential questions and promoting autonomy, although his group work percentage is the highest of any teacher. This could indicate that his students already function in his classroom with a high level of autonomy; the teacher no longer needs to promote this autonomy through speech, because it would then verge on being redundant. Redundancy would likely not hold students' attention or keep them engaged, because if they have heard the same information before, it would be easy for them to mentally "check out." His posture indicates that he is still involved in the activity (he is sitting in a circle among the students, leaning forward, engaged), although he does not speak much. Similarly, his low score in the subcategory of promoting cooperation could be explained by the students' ease with which they work in groups; if the students already function very cooperatively, there would be less of a need for Teacher 3 to promote this value aloud.

While Teacher 3 does not perform the IC with the most fidelity (see Table 3 above), the present study's findings (using the MOLT framework and the student self-report questionnaire) suggest that students are more motivated when the teacher is much more "hands-off," and allows the students to take the reins. However, the teacher is still a part of the group, ready to assist and facilitate discussion when necessary.

The correlation between teacher motivational scores and observed subscale (iv) is strongly negative (-0.840), the only negative correlation of this study. This suggests that a teacher who speaks frequently (even if that speech is designed to be helpful, as is scaffolding) could "get in the way" of student motivation. Students likely enjoy working together and having

their voices heard in the classroom, so when the teacher does a lot of talking, student enjoyment (and motivation) would drop concurrently.

<div align="center">**Use of the Target Language**</div>

Regarding the use of the target language in these classrooms, Teacher 4 uses the most Spanish by far, which the current MOLT framework has no way of accounting for. The students' responses are in Spanish unless Teacher 4 asks them explicitly to use the English vocabulary they have discussed for this lesson, and when the students are working in groups autonomously, student-to-student dialog is entirely in Spanish. This is in stark contrast to Teacher 3's lesson, where there is no Spanish spoken among the students while they work in groups. Occasionally, a student will say a word in Spanish for the teacher to give them a translation, and then the student will continue on in English with the new vocabulary word.

If the proportional use of the native language had an impact on student motivation, I would expect Teacher 4 to have the students with the lowest motivation. However, this is not what the data suggest. Furthermore, Teacher 4 does not have the lowest questionnaire results for the subscales of linguistic self-confidence or classroom anxiety despite the frequent use of the native language in the classroom. It could be that the students do not feel as anxious in the classroom because they are not chastised for using a language that they are more comfortable with. If the students have less experience producing and speaking the target language, it would be logical for them to have lower linguistic self-confidence in the target language, which we do not see from this study. However, it could be that because the students are not pushed as hard to speak in English and expand their vocabularies, they function with a consistent L2 vocabulary and structure. If they use the same sentence structures and words when they speak English, they

could report a higher degree of linguistic self-confidence, because they have so much practice speaking the way that they do.

Regardless, the MOLT observation framework does not have any way to account for the languages used in instruction. It would be interesting to further explore the impact of native versus target language use in the EFL classroom, while still using this observational framework.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

This study examined the impact of teacher motivational strategies on the motivation of their students as reflected in the students' responses to a self-report motivation questionnaire as well as in the students' observed learner motivated behavior. The questionnaire instrument was developed from Dornyei (1994) and Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008), and the video observation framework used was the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching scheme (developed in Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008)).

Teacher motivational practice correlates strongly with student motivation in the classrooms observed, suggesting that teacher motivational strategies do matter. However, this study found that not all aspects of the teacher motivational practice correlate positively with student motivation; namely, "teacher discourse" (i.e. how the teacher speaks in the classroom) correlated negatively with student motivation. This finding is important because it suggests that a teacher who speaks too frequently or redundantly can impede student enjoyment and motivation in the classroom. This finding is particularly relevant support for the Instructional Conversation pedagogy, which already relies heavily on student-to-student discourse rather than teacher-to-student discourse.

The large amount of extrinsic student motivation across all schools, teachers, and classrooms in this study suggests that teachers do not play as large of a role in the shaping of their students' extrinsic motivation as they do in the shaping of their students' intrinsic motivation. This is not to say that a teacher has no impact on student extrinsic motivation; for

example, a teacher could speak with students about the usefulness of English for a future career. However, this study finds high levels of student extrinsic motivation in all surveyed classrooms, regardless of the age of the students and the type of the school, which suggests that students in Costa Rica feel an external pressure and/or need to learn English no matter their educational background. This study does however find differences in student intrinsic motivation among different teachers, suggesting that teachers play a larger role in the improvement and maintenance of the intrinsic motivation of their students by creating comfortable, stimulating classroom environments that allow for student participation and student-to-student discourse. Additionally, this study found that self-reported student motivation is reflected in observable learner motivated behavior, which is important because it suggests that the students' motivation is impacting the way that they behave in the classroom.

Implications for Future Research

This study was limited in size and location. It would be interesting and useful to replicate this study on a larger scale, with more sample classrooms and teachers, as well as in different locations. It would also be useful to further explore the relationship between the Instructional Conversation pedagogy and EFL student motivation, to analyze certain aspects of this pedagogy that work well as EFL teacher motivational strategies. This study makes anecdotal notes along these pedagogical lines, but future research could explore this more empirically.

Furthermore, this study highlighted the issue of the use of the native versus target languages in the EFL classroom, as there is no way to account for these disparities in the MOLT scheme. It would be interesting for future studies to use a similar classroom observation framework to examine the impact of the use of the native versus target languages in these classrooms on student motivation and language acquisition.

It may also be useful to take one step even further back, and examine not only what teachers can do to motivate their students, but also how to generate, foster, and maintain the motivation of the EFL teachers themselves. If student motivation impacts student learning, it is likely that teacher motivation also impacts the effectiveness of their teaching.

REFERENCES

August, D., & Hakuta, K. (1998). *Educating Language-Minority Children*. Washington, D.C.:

    National Academy Press.

Bernaus, M., Wilson, A., & Gardner, R. C. (2009). Teachers' motivation, classroom strategy use,

    students' motivation and second language achievement. Retrieved from

    http://digibug.ugr.es/handle/10481/31869

Chen, J. F., Warden, C. A., & CHANG, H.-T. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: The case

    of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *Tesol Quarterly*,

    39(4), 609–633.

Cheng, H.-F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction:

    The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *International Journal of Innovation in Language*

    Learning and Teaching, *1*(1), 153–174.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom. *The Modern*

    Language Journal, *78*(3), 273–284.

Dornyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2*

    Self, *36*(3), 9–11.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: the role of attitudes and

    motivation.

Gardner, R. C. (2007). Motivation and second language acquisition. Retrieved from

    http://digibug.ugr.es/handle/10481/31616

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An Instrumental Motivation In Language Study:

    Who Says It Isn't Effective? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*(1), 57–72.

    https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100009724

Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A. M., & Tremblay, P. F. (1999). Home background characteristics and second language learning. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *18*, 419–37.

Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A.-M., Tennant, J., & Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative motivation: Changes during a year-long intermediate-level language course. *Language Learning*, *54*(1), 1–34.

Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P. F., & Masgoret, A.-M. (1997). Towards a Full Model of Second Language Learning: An Empirical Investigation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *81*(3), 344–362. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1997.tb05495.x

Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating Language Learners: A Classroom-Oriented Investigation of the Effects of Motivational Strategies on Student Motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, *42*(1), 55–77. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00207.x

Heidari-Shahreza, M. A., & others. (2014). The Effect of Content-based Language Instruction on EFL learners' Attention, Engagement, Volunteering and Verbal Interaction. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*, (31), 14–21.

Huang, K.-M. (2011). Motivating lessons: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of content-based instruction on EFL young learners' motivated behaviours and classroom verbal interaction. *System*, *39*(2), 186–201.

Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: a meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, *53*, 123–63.

Noels, K. A., Clément, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*(1), 23–34.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, *50*(1), 57–85.

Ortega, L. (2009). *Second Language Acquisition*. Routledge.

Papi, M., & Abdollahzadeh, E. (2012). Teacher motivational practice, student motivation, and possible L2 selves: An examination in the Iranian EFL context. *Language Learning*, *62*(2), 571–594.

Stroud, R. (2013). Increasing and maintaining student engagement during TBL. *Asian EFL Journal. Professional Teaching Articles*, *59*, 28–57.

Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the Motivation Construct in Language Learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, *79*(4), 505–518. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1995.tb05451.x

Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W., & Deci, E. L. (2006). Intrinsic versus extrinsic goal contents in self-determination theory: another look at the quality of academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, *41*, 19–31.

Appendix A: The Motivation Questionnaire

Attitudes Toward the Course

1. I wish we had more English lessons at school this semester.
2. I like English lessons this semester.
3. English is one of my favorite subjects at school this semester.
4. When the English lesson ends, I often wish it would continue.
5. I enjoy my English lessons best when we work in small groups.
6. I would rather spend time on English rather than other subjects.
7. Learning English at school is easy for me this semester.
8. In English lessons this semester, we are learning things that will be useful in the future.
9. I like the way this class is taught better than other English classes I have had.
10. I think I learn more English in this class than I have learned in other English classes.

Linguistic Self-Confidence

1. I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
2. I believe I will receive good grades in English this semester.
3. I often experience a feeling of success in my English lessons this semester.
4. I am sure that one day I will be able to speak English.
5. In English lessons this semester, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.
6. I am confident about my ability to do well in English this semester.
7. I don't feel that the other students speak English better than I do.
8. I often volunteer to do speaking presentations in English lessons.
9. This semester, I think I am good at learning English.
10. I do not find it embarrassing if I have to speak in English to people outside class.

L2-Classroom Anxiety

1. I get very worried that I will make mistakes during English lessons this semester.
2. I feel more nervous in English class this semester than in my other classes.
3. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
4. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class.
5. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking English in our English class.
6. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.
7. I usually get uneasy when I have to speak English to complete class activities.
8. I get anxious speaking English in front of others.
9. I worry about my pronunciation in English.
10. I worry that people don't understand my English.

External Motivating Factors

1. If I spoke English, I could get a better job.
2. English proficiency is indispensable for a Costa Rican person to be able to live a valuable and colorful life.

3. If I spoke English, I could travel for more official purposes.
4. English proficiency would have financial benefits for me.
5. The people with good jobs speak English on at least an intermediate level.
6. I need English to be successful.
7. I believe that everybody should have the opportunity to learn English, regardless of their socioeconomic status.