

**VIETNAM NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, HANOI  
UNIVERSITY OF LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES  
FACULTY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION**

**NGUYEN THI LIEN HUONG**

**TEACHER'S USE OF MOTIVATIONAL  
STRATEGIES IN SPEAKING CLASSES FOR  
SECOND YEAR MAINSTREAM ELT STUDENTS  
AT FELTE-ULIS IN CORRELATION WITH  
TEACHING EXPERIENCE**

**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Bachelor of Arts (TEFL)**

**Hanoi, May 2011**

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Supervisor: Ms. Nguyen Thu Le Hang, M.A.

**Hanoi, May 2011**

## Acceptance page

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Nguyen Thi Lien Huong

# ABSTRACT

The topic of teachers' motivational teaching practice has been receiving increasing attention during the past few years, with several researches investigating on motivational strategies applied by teachers in classrooms, as well as their perceived effectiveness on students' motivated behaviours. However, hardly any study has touched upon the correlation between teachers' use of motivational strategies and their teaching experience. This is the gap the researcher would like to bridge with her attempt in the field.

In order to achieve this aims, the researcher employ questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation as data collection instruments. The result from the analysis of field data shows that there is significant differences in the use of motivational strategies among junior and senior teachers, which can be behaviourally explained; for examples young teachers often tend to display their energetic sides, thus pay more attention to activities that encourage *competition*; while more experienced teachers seem to be more into meaningful and challenging activities that promote students' individual interests, such as *personalization, element of interest, creativity and fantasy*, etc. From this result, implications have been drawn out with the aim of raising young teachers' awareness and insight knowledge of applying motivational strategies for more practical effects.

The researcher believes that the result and implications from this study would be of considerable help for teachers at FELTE, ULIS, especially young teachers with less than three years teaching experience in particular; as well as teachers of English at other English majored universities in general to be more conscious of using appropriate motivational strategies in their classrooms, especially in speaking lessons. Despite not being a breakthrough in the field, the findings of this research would serve as a useful pedagogical reference for those interested.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

This initial chapter states the problem and the rationale of the study, together with the aims, objectives and the scope of the whole paper. Above all, it is in this chapter that the research questions are identified to work as clear guidelines for the whole research.

### **1.1. Statement of research problem**

Over the past few years, in response to the increasing need of multi-lingual workers in such a globalization era, there has never been as much emphasis on the communicative function of the English language. As a result, efforts have been made to transform the conventional Grammar-Translation method of English language teaching and learning in Vietnam to a more communicative one. The classroom has also been made learner-centered. However, the expected effects of such reforms remain yet to be seen.

As a matter of fact, it is a problem commonly found in EFL contexts that learners are reluctant to speak English in the classroom, with no exception of second year mainstream students at FELTE, ULIS. Entering their university life, these students experience a major transform from the previous grammar-focused to a communication-oriented learning environment, thus generally remain ignorant and demotivated to speak in class. After their freshmen year and now despite being sophomores specialized in English Language Teaching, they still demonstrate low learning motivation and low engagement in speaking

activities, as can be noticed during the Tutoring Program conducted by senior students from QH2007.F1.E1, FELTE-ULIS in semester I school year 2010-2011. More importance therefore has been placed on the teacher's role as effective motivators.

According to Scheidecker and Freeman (1999, cited in Dornyei, 2001, p.1), "motivation is, without question, the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today." As a much concerned topic worldwide, motivational strategies has been making their way into Vietnamese EFL classrooms recently, though teachers are not yet fully aware and equipped of them yet. Specifically, in the context of Division II, FELTE, ULIS, little attention has been given to teachers' intentional exploitation of motivational techniques and their reported effectiveness. Teachers' self-acquisition of these techniques over time therefore becomes the norm. Consequently, a significant difference in terms of students' response to class activities can be observed in lessons of teachers from varying seniority groups, as teachers with more teaching experience supposedly become more aware of using motivational strategies in their lessons than those new and young.

The above conditions have fostered the researcher to conduct a study on "*Teachers' use of motivational strategies in speaking classes for second year mainstream ELT students at FELTE-ULIS in correlation with teaching experience*". The study is an effort to investigate the application of motivational strategies by different sub-groups of teachers from Division II, FELTE, ULIS, determined by their teaching seniority, during speaking lessons with second year mainstream students as well as the invisible influence on their students' attention, participation and volunteering in class activities.

## **1.2. Theoretical background and research rationale**

In language learning, motivation is said to play a vital role. As commented by Ebata (2008), it “produces effective second language communicators by planting them the seeds of self-confidence,” and also “successfully creates learners who continuously engage themselves in learning even after they complete a targeted goal.”

In the worldwide context of EFL, motivation is a well-concerned topic as various researches and studies have been conducted from different perspectives and approaches, in the same pursuit of effective fosterage of learners’ motivational state. Recently, more and more researchers have started conceptualizing “motivational strategies” as a way to examine this aspect. In his study, Dornyei (2001) offered a general framework for motivational strategies, which includes four main dimensions: Creating basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. Based on this framework, a classroom-oriented investigation was carried out by Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008) on the close relationship between teacher’s motivational strategies and students’ behavior in class, the frequency as well as effectiveness of a great number of strategies employed by teachers in South Korea to stimulate their EFL students. The research also sketched out that motivational practice is closely integrated in the content and instruction of L2.

Most recently, a research by Vu, et al. (2010) focused on a more specific context of speaking lessons for second year mainstream students at FELTE, ULIS. The research also examines the use of motivational strategies by teachers and their effectiveness on students’ motivated behaviors as perceived by the teachers themselves. From the result of the study, it is emphasized that these motivational techniques should be

placed with higher level of significance in the perception as well as implementation of teachers in Division II, FELTE. However, the above-mentioned research failed to point out how the difference in teaching experience could draw the lines between young teachers and senior teachers. Therefore, as part of this study's research team, the researcher has all the justifications to further investigate the different use of motivational strategies as demonstrated by different groups of teachers in their speaking lessons with second year mainstream students in the same Faculty, in correlation on their working seniority.

### **1.3. Research aims and research questions**

The study attempts to examine how different sub-groups of teachers in Division II, FELTE (determined by their years of experience/teaching seniority) perceive about their application of the above discussed motivational strategies in speaking classrooms with second year mainstream ELT students, together with the effectiveness on students' motivated behaviors. The main purpose of the study is to see if there is significant dissimilarity in lessons by these sub-groups of teachers regarding the use of these motivational strategies. The result, if positive, is expected to raise helpful implications about the exploitation of such techniques to facilitate young and inexperienced teachers in Division II specifically and other Divisions in FELTE-ULIS on a broader scale, with managing and activating their students' motivated behaviors.

To realize these aims, the current research tried to answer the following questions:

- (1) What are the most frequently used motivational strategies by teachers in each sub-groups?*

*(2) What are the behavioral explanations for the discrepancies in the use of motivational strategies by teachers in each subgroup?*

#### **1.4. Scope of study**

Firstly, the topic of the study is “motivational strategies,” which call for a wide variety of approaches and understandings. According to various researches on motivation, there are many ways to categorize motivation, such as integrative and instrumental motivation, extrinsic/external and intrinsic/internal motivation. However, within the framework of this study, the focus is put on investigating the techniques employed by the teachers in order to stimulate students’ motivated behaviors rather than their self-regulated motivation.

Secondly, the study involves the participation of eleven teachers from Division II, FELTE-ULIS who are in charge of speaking skills for all QH2009 mainstream ELT classes this semester. The researcher chose this group of population to do research on because of two reasons. First, as noticed from the Tutoring Program in semester I school year 2010-2011 in which the researcher was one of the tutors, many second year mainstream ELT students still displayed considerable reluctance and stagnancy in speaking activities even after one year in college. Therefore, teachers still play an important motivational role to help these students engage in class activities. Another reason is that there is a wider range of teachers in Division II regarding their seniority in teaching ELT students as compared to the other Divisions. In Division I, all the teachers in charge of ELT classes are novice ones with less than two year experience, while senior teachers are assigned to Economics classes. This means they do not share the same teaching materials, which makes it impossible to

compare between the two sub-groups. Meanwhile in Division III, though there is also a wide range of teachers from different generations, their role as motivators is not that much emphasized as third year students can already perform tasks by themselves without much instructions from teachers.

Another point to note is that because it is impossible to make comparison different sub-groups of teachers possible if they do not share the same teaching materials and syllabus, the researcher has chosen to put the focus on the group of eleven teachers in charge of speaking skills in the thirteen **ELT** classes only (from QH2009.E2 to QH2009.E14). Also, the study takes place within the context of speaking lessons, as students' motivated behaviors can be best observed thanks to the nature of the subject. In lessons of other skills, demotivating factors do not stop classroom activities from being carried out; meanwhile students' motivated behaviors are key to the success of speaking lessons.

### **1.5. Expected outcomes and contributions of the study**

In completion, the study could be of considerable assistance for teachers, course administrators as well as researchers working on related fields.

First of all, the result of the study is expected to raise the awareness among novice teachers of the role of learner's motivation and the employment of motivational teaching practice. Several implications drawn from the research findings, together with recommendations from senior teachers may prove helpful to young teachers, so that they can take initiatives to exploit suitable motivational techniques and to better engage

their students in class activities during speaking lessons specifically and other skills in general.

Besides, findings of the research can reveal much insight into the effectiveness of teachers' use of motivational techniques on students' in-class performance. The research findings is expected to play a part in the process of redefining the significance of this underrated aspect of ELT, namely teachers' motivational practice.

Lastly, this research, if successfully finished, may offer useful references for further studies on the related topic area.

## **1.6. Organization of the paper**

The rest of the paper includes the following chapters:

Chapter 2: Literature review – provides the background of the study, including definitions of key concepts, description of the context of teaching speaking to second year mainstream students at FELTE-ULIS and review of related studies.

Chapter 3: Methodology – describes the participants and instruments of the study, as well as the procedure employed to carry out the research.

Chapter 4: Data analysis and discussion – presents, analyzes and discusses the findings that the researcher found out from the data collected according to the three research questions.

Chapter 5: Conclusion – summarizes the main issues discussed in the paper, the limitations of the research, several pedagogical recommendations concerning the research topic as well as some suggestions for further studies.

Following this chapter are the List of References and Appendices.



## **CHAPTER 2**

# **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This second chapter aims to shed light on the literature of the study and lays the solid foundations for the development of subsequent parts of the paper, specifically the theoretical background and a number of studies related to the research topic. To begin with, an overview of the theoretical background will be presented starting from motivation in theories, which justify the concept of motivational strategies. Considerable efforts will be focused on reviewing various approaches of researching motivation in the second language field and eliciting the framework the researcher is going to follow. After that, a brief review of the related studies will disclose the research gap and rationalize the aims and objectives of this research paper.

### **2.1. Motivation theories**

#### **2.1.1. Definition and sources of motivation**

Motivation, based on the Latin verb for “move,” is defined simply as the force that makes one do something. Likewise, according to Oxford Advanced Learner’s dictionary, motivation means “the reasons for somebody’s action.”

Motivation is defined as "some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer, 2001, p.51, cited in Sebnem, 2006). Ellis (2000, p.75, cited in To et al., 2008, p.28) stated that motivation is “the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2,” hence

the close and clear connection between motivation and learner's achievement. On the other hand, Brown (1994, p.34) defines motivation as "the extent to which you will make choice about goals to pursue and the effort you will devote to that pursuit." In general, motivation can be understood as the internal forces and external drives that encourage and energize people to achieve their goals; or as Dornyei (2001a)'s definition, "a general way of referring to the *antecedents* (i.e. the causes and origins) of action."

One of the most well-known classifications in motivation theories is that of *intrinsic* versus *extrinsic* motivation, as suggested by Valledrand (1997), reported in Wang (2008). Intrinsic motivation deals with behavior performed for its own sake, in order to experience pleasure satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity (Wang, 2008). In language learning, intrinsic motivation are students' internal attitudes, values, needs and personality factors that motivate him/her to perform a task. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is that which derives from the influence of some external factors such as success and rewards, failure and penalties, competition, etc. Wang (2008) discussed the result from several studies that students will lose their natural intrinsic interest in an activity if they have to do it to meet some extrinsic requirement such as good grades or the avoidance of punishment. However, Dornyei (1998) argued that under certain circumstances—if they are sufficiently self-determined and internalized—extrinsic rewards can be combined with or can even lead to intrinsic motivation (p. 121).

## **2.1.2. Motivation in psychology**

### ***2.1.2.1. Historical development and trends in the study of motivation***

However simple the definition of motivation may sound, the nature of this term in psychology has been a topic of controversy over time. Since the beginning of the twentieth century, there seem to have been a renewed interest in building conceptual frameworks that are more comprehensive and use multiple perspectives to study motivation, not just in terms of its structure, but also as a dynamic process in natural classroom contexts. More recently, a number of writers have called for a broadening of this definition incorporating views from the field of psychology. In his research on motivation in language classroom, Dornyei (2001a) reviewed the conceptualization of motivation in psychology from various theories throughout its history. According to him, the first half of the twentieth century saw the dominance of the view that motivation is determined by basic *instincts* and *drives*, many of which are unconscious or repressed. Individuals were regarded as responsive—that is, pushed into action by inner drives, or physical and culturally acquired needs resulting from some kind of deprivation. Then in the middle of the century, under the prevalent influence of *conditioning theories* that stemmed from the behaviorist psychology, the view of individuals as pawns was reinforced. It was believed that “the practice and drilling, positive and negative reinforcement or punishment and praise in learning” also contribute to forming motivation. During the 1960s, more important shift in conceptual frameworks was brought about. Mechanistic behaviorists and humanistic psychologists proposed that the central motivating force in people’s lives is the *self-actualizing tendency*, which is the “desire to achieve personal growth and to develop fully the capacities and talents we have inherited” (Dornyei, 2001a, p.49).

Nevertheless, some psychologists who had been trained in the behaviorist tradition started to recognize that the effects of reinforcement

were mediated by individual's *cognitions*. According to Brophy (1999b), cited in Guilloteaux (2007), these cognitions included “the value that individual placed on the reinforcer<sup>1</sup>, their expectation that the reinforcer would be delivered upon successful completion of the task, their beliefs about their competence to accomplish the task successfully, and their assessment of whether engaging in the action to receive the reinforcement was worth the effort and sacrifices it entailed” (p.29). In other words, people's decision to do something is determined first by their beliefs about the values of their action, and then about their evaluation of whether they are able to confront the challenge and whether the encouragement they are likely to get from the people and institute around them is sufficient. This is how *cognitive perspective* became general in scientific research as a whole. In addition, cognitivism emphasizes the importance of mental activity in “actively organizing, structuring and constructing mental representations of knowledge when trying to make sense of, and act on one's environment,” (Guilloteaux, 2007, p.30) hence the increasing importance of context in learning.

In general, it can be concluded that early theorists like behaviorists tended to characterize motivation as affective and unconscious behavioral control, driven by certain inner forces and external pressures, which pulled individuals to action. Meanwhile, more recent cognitive psychologists have portrayed motivation as a product of conscious decision in which individuals' internal thoughts, beliefs and emotions function as “meditational processes in instigating, maintaining and modifying action” (Brophy, 2004, cited in Guilloteaux, 2007, p.31).

Despite the variations regarding the conceptualization of motivation, it is generally accepted that “motivation is responsible for

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<sup>1</sup> A reinforcer is defined as “an event that increases the frequency of the behavior it follows” (Cameron & Pierce, 1994, p.369, as cited in Guilloteaux, 2007, p.29).

*why* people decide to do something, *how hard* they are going to pursue it and *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity” (Dornyei, 2001a, p.8). In other words, motivation determines three aspects of human behaviors: the *choice* of a particular action, the *effort* and the *persistence* that go with it.

### **2.1.2.2. Motivational theories and constructs**

#### **2.1.2.2.1. Future time perspective (FTP)**

Future time perspective (FTP), seemingly gaining more importance in educational psychology, has been defined as “the degree to which and the way in which the chronological future is integrated into the present life-space of an individual through motivational goal-setting processes” (Husman & Lens, 1999, p.114). According to these authors, the extension of FTP is considered an individual difference that has motivational consequences. Specifically, most of the goals set by a person with a short FTP are likely to be set in the near future; while those by someone with a long FTP tend to be in the distant future. Those with long FTPs have been found to work more intensively in certain subjects in the classroom, show more determination and perseverance in striving for their goals, and enjoy more satisfaction from achieving them (Husman & Lens, 1999).

#### **2.1.2.2.2. Goal content perspective**

From a content perspective, a goal is defined as “a cognitive representation of what it is that an individual is trying to achieve in a given situation” (Wentzel, 1999, p.77). Wentzel also argues that a goal content perspective is particularly useful for studying motivation within context. The first reason is that it allows students to pursue two types of

goals at the same time: task goal (academic accomplishment) and social goal (making new friends, having fun, developing a sense of belonging, etc.). Secondly, a goal content perspective acknowledges that a goal can be brought about by either the individual or by the social context. It recognizes that individual behaviors and goals are closely linked with each other, and thus allows for the possibility that goal striving may be communally regulated as well as self-regulated.

### **2.1.2.2.3. Self-determination theory**

Self-determination theory (SDT) is essentially one of the most well-known and influential theories in the field of motivational psychology, as asserted by Dornyei (2003, cited in Guilloteaux, 2007). SDT deals with the distinction between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivations (refer to 2.1.1). According to Deci and Ryan (1985, 2002), SDT suggests that all individuals tend to move toward situations, and engage in actions that are likely to satisfy three basic psychological needs, which are essential to their functioning and well-being. The three basic needs includes the *need for competence* (opportunities to interact with social environment, to show one's capacities), the *need for relatedness* (the feeling of belonging, care, respect and connection with others), and the *need for autonomy* (a sense of unpressured willingness to engage in an activity).

Among the three needs, Deci and Ryan (2000) define self-determination as *autonomy*—"a sense of choice and initiating and regulating one's own action." Autonomy obviously cannot be attained if one is working under someone else's control. This is the case when students work in environmental conditions where extrinsic rewards and punishments are prevalent.

### **2.1.3. Motivation in second language learning environment (L2)**

It has been generally accepted that learning a second language is unlike learning any other subject because it “involves imposing elements of another culture into one’s own lifespace” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p.193), and because it is easily influenced (positively or negatively) by a range of social factors such as prevailing attitudes toward the language, geo-political considerations, and cultural stereotypes (Dornyei, 2005, as cited in Guilloteaux, 2007, p.56). Therefore, although motivation in L2 share some common characteristics with motivation in psychology in general, there is a need for the term “motivation in L2” to be independently examined.

Regarding motivation in foreign language learning, Gardner (1985) characterizes it as consisting of effort, plus desire to achieve the goal of learning, plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language. There have been a number of approaches specific to L2 motivation theories and constructs; however, due to space limitations, the researchers have selected a few major principles for elaboration, based on how helpful they are to appraise the results relevant to the study.

#### ***2.1.3.1. Self-determination theory (SDT) and L2 motivation***

Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand (2000) carried out systematic and empirical investigations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the framework of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) in L2 learning context. They also developed an instrument to assess SDT constructs applied to L2 learning called “Language Learning Orientations Scale: Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation.”

Regarding the relationship between SDT constructs and L2 orientations, Noels (2001a, cited in Guilloteaux, 2007) proposed that L2 motivation may be influenced to different extents by three types of orientations (i.e. the reasons for learning L2): *intrinsic reasons* (e.g. stimulation, enjoyment, satisfaction, a sense of fun or accomplishment), *extrinsic reasons* (e.g. the benefits of speaking an L2), and integrative reasons (e.g. positive contact with speakers of the L2).

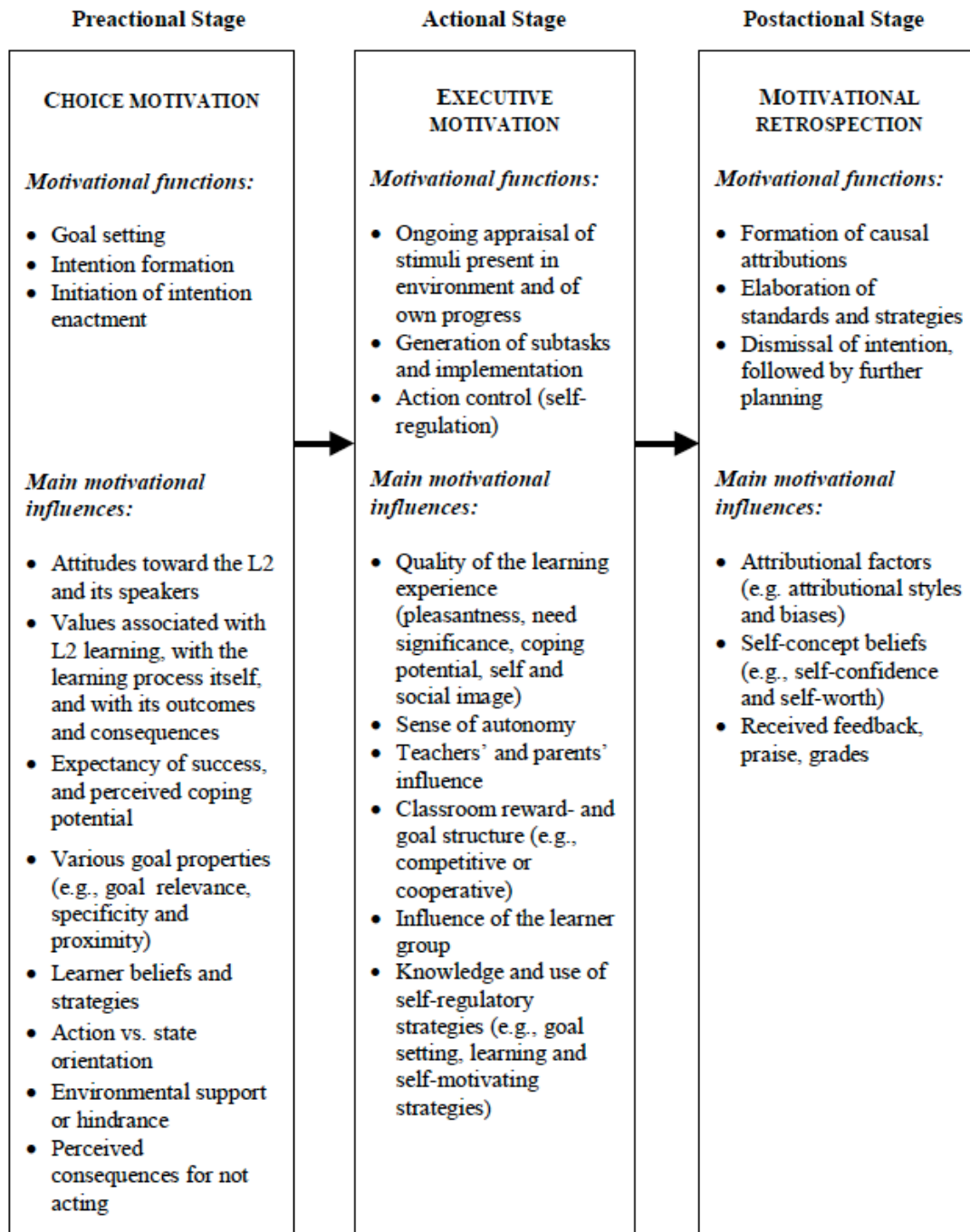
### **2.1.3.2. *The Dornyei-Otto process-oriented model of L2 motivation***

With the aim of introducing a process-oriented perspective of motivation as an alternative to the contemporarily dominant product-oriented approach, Dornyei and Otto (1998) presented their process model of motivation. They also wished to synthesize within a unified framework various lines of research on motivation in L2 field and in educational psychology.

This model divides the motivated behavioral process into three main stages: the *pre-actional* stage (which precedes the decision to act), the *actional* stage and the *post-actional* stage.

The **pre-actional stage** refers to the phase during which an individual is engaged in the process of forming an intention to act, and in selecting an action plan in order to realize that intention. There are three sub-processes: “*goal setting*” (which can start either in an individual’s imagination in form of wishes and hopes, or in opportunities emerging from specific context), “*intention formation*” (the process of forming commitment and an action plan for a goal), and “*initiation of intention enactment*” (the process when an intention is translated into action).





\*Note. Based on Dörnyei (2005, p. 85, and 2001c). For a full schematic representation and discussion of the model, see Dörnyei (2001c).

**Figure 1** A Process Model of L2 Learning Motivation

The **actional stage** refers to the phase when individuals have materialized their intention into action. In this stage, “learners are engaged in executing a task, they continuously appraise the process, and

when the ongoing monitoring reveals that progress is slowing, halting, or backsliding, they activate the action control system to save or enhance the action” (Dornyei, 2005, p.81). Consequently, the three sub-processes making up this stage are “*appraisal*” (students’ ongoing processing of the stimuli of the learning environment, and their constant monitoring of the progress made toward to outcome of the learning-specific action), “*generation of subtasks and implementation*” (students’ engagement in learning-supportive behaviors as they follow the teacher’s task instructions or their own action plan), and “*action control*” (students’ self-regulatory strategies, i.e. goal setting, language learning, motivation maintenance, to cope with social and academic competition, difficulties and distractions).

In the **post-actional stage**, learners examine their behavior in retrospect and evaluate the outcome of their action, thus forming inferences regarding future related actions. Such evaluation enables them to enrich their store of accumulated experience, elaborate their internal standards and enlarge their “repertoire of action-specific strategies” (Dornyei & Otto, 1998, cited in Guilloteaux, 2007, p. 78).

### **2.1.3.3. Dornyei’s L2 motivational self-system**

Together with the latest developments in motivation research, Dornyei (2005) presented a new conception of L2 motivation—the L2 Motivation Self-system. It is composed of three dimensions: the *Ideal L2 Self* (the L2-speaking person we would like to become), the *Ought-to L2 Self* (an L2-“knowing” person we feel we ought to become in order to avoid possible negative outcomes), and the *L2 Learning Experience* (“which concerns situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience”, Dornyei, 2005, p.106, cited in

Guilloteaux, 2007, p.29). It can be speculated that the strength of L2 motivation may rely on the learner's ability to develop a prominent vision of an L2 Self, or on the quality of the L2 Learning Experience. In either area, L2 teachers have a role to play.

#### **2.1.4. The importance of motivation in ELT**

Since Gardner & Lambert's (1972) publishing of motivational research in a social psychological framework, numerous researchers have emphasized the importance of motivation in this area. Dornyei (1994) claimed that motivation plays a prominent role in the perspectives of psychology and education. Richard and Schmidt (2002, cited in Nguyen, 2009, p.11) illustrated motivation as "a combination of the learner's attitudes, desires and willingness in expending effort in order to learn the second language." They also consider it a primary factor influencing success and failure in second language learning, which is why teachers of foreign language have always tried to find new approaches or strategies that introduce practical uses of EFL in the classroom. "Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning foreign language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (Dornyei, 1998, p.117, cited in Wang, 2008). Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough to ensure students achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions.

Wang (2006) made an analogy of the L2 learning process as a man eating something. If he has no desire to eat, and others just force him to, he still cannot eat it nor absorb it. Likewise, in English Language

Teaching, if students are forced to learn while they themselves have no desires or interests, no anticipated outcome can be achieved. “Without a personal desire to learn, real learning can’t take place” (Wang, 1996). As a result, for ELT teachers, the most important thing is how to increase students’ motivation and make use of the proper teaching and facilitation methods.

## **2.1.5. Motivational strategies derived from motivational theories**

### ***2.1.5.1. Motivational strategies derived from goal content perspective***

Speaking from a goal content perspective, Wentzel (1999) points out that “interventions to change maladaptive motivational orientations toward learning must begin with attention to students’ social and emotional needs” (p.80, cited in Guilloteaux, p.112). In other words, students tend to pursue the social goals that are valued in the contexts they think are supportive and comfortable. A good rapport between teacher and students would be an encouraging environment for them to strive their best in learning and behaving. Consequently, Wentzel (1999) inferred that paying special attention to students’ social and emotional needs is the crucial starting point for any motivational orientation toward learning.

### ***2.1.5.2. Motivational strategies from the construct of “interest”***

The construct of interest can be seen at two different levels: *individual interest*, and *situational interest*, which “describes a state or an ongoing process during an actual learning activity” (Krapp & Lewalter, 2001, p.212). Results from various researches have indicated that if a

situational interest can be aroused and sustained, it can transform into a more stable motivational state before developing into an enduring individual interest. This suggests that if teachers/educators know how to generate, and even more importantly, maintain situational interest, it might help students develop an individual interest over time.

A number of strategies, for example using group work or puzzles, have been able to catch students' interest at first; yet failed to maintain it later (Mitchell, 1993). On the other hand, using meaningful activities and giving opportunities for active learning (e.g. problem solving) seems to serve the long-term development of students' interest (Mitchell, 1993).

### ***2.1.5.3. Motivational strategies from a Future Time Perspective***

In education, Future Time Perspective (FTP) deals with matters concerning the degree to which the future is important to students, and their ability to anticipate the future and foresee the future consequences of their present behavior (as seen in section 2.1.2.2.1). It remains a question of whether it is possible to motivate students by pointing out to them the future contingencies of their present schoolwork.

Results from various researches have indicated that teachers who emphasize on the future extrinsic benefits of students' present behavior such as gaining approval from others or being financially successful, are likely to obstruct students' conceptual learning, performance and persistence. Rather, teachers are advised to focus on the future intrinsic benefits of engaging in the present task and promote "an individual's understanding of the instrumental value of a present behavior" (Husman & Lens, 1999, p.116, cited in Guilloteaux, 2007, p.114). Furthermore, Simons, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Lacante (2004) recommend that teachers should stress on how active participation in a given task will contribute to

the development of students' competencies and skills, help them attain a valued goal, and/or provide them with the opportunity to contribute to the community. Teachers should also clarify the future instrumentality of the task in a way that do not put any pressure or control on students' choice and decision. When pointing out the future relevance of students' behavior, it is advisable that teachers go beyond generally stating that an activity is helpful to students' future. Instead, they should give a clear rationale that allows students to fully understand the specific meaning and importance of the activity.

#### ***2.1.5.4. Motivational strategies from Self-Determination Theory***

According to findings by Urdan (2003), extrinsic motivation and extrinsic rewards have certain negative effects on intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic rewards have been found to interfere with the process and quality of learning, for instance by making students passive when it comes to processing information (cited in Guilloteaux, 2007). Reeve (2005, p.145-146) also argued that extrinsic rewards make students more prone to negative affect, and less prone to experience positive emotion.

In the L2 field, Noels and his colleagues (Noels, 2001a; Noels, Clement & Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clement & Vallerand, 2000) followed SDT to investigate the possible relationships between the intrinsic motivation of L2 learners and the motivational aspects of their teachers' communication style. The results indicate that the more students perceived their L2 teachers as controlling (e.g. using threats, imposing goals and deadlines, making them work under reward conditions) and as failing to provide informative feedback, the less they were intrinsically

motivated. Also, there was a tendency to regard motivation as a product of autonomy.

On the other hand, Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002) conclude from their large-scale studies that when teachers are facing learning resistance to engaging in autonomous practices, rather than continue to practice direct autonomy training, an alternative could be to focus on developing intrinsic motivation and on helping students to believe in the effectiveness of their own efforts (cited in Guilloteaux, 2007). They suggest that teachers themselves be models of motivation, spend more time on activities in which learners wish to engage for their own sake, introduce the kinds of motivating activities in which learner-centeredness can be integrated as a precursor to learner autonomy, and recognize the diversity of students' learning styles and preferences.

Finally, from the result of his research among young L2 learners in China, Wu (2003) suggests that providing young L2 learners with a predictable learning environment, moderately challenging tasks, adequate instructional support and evaluation that emphasizes self-improvement is an effective way to develop their perceived competence. Furthermore, students' perceptions of autonomy are enhanced when they are given some freedom to choose the learning content, methods or performance outcomes. In general, if teachers of young L2 learners want to create a motivating classroom environment that is conducive to the development of intrinsic motivation, it is especially important that they adopt a comprehensive approach to classroom intervention.

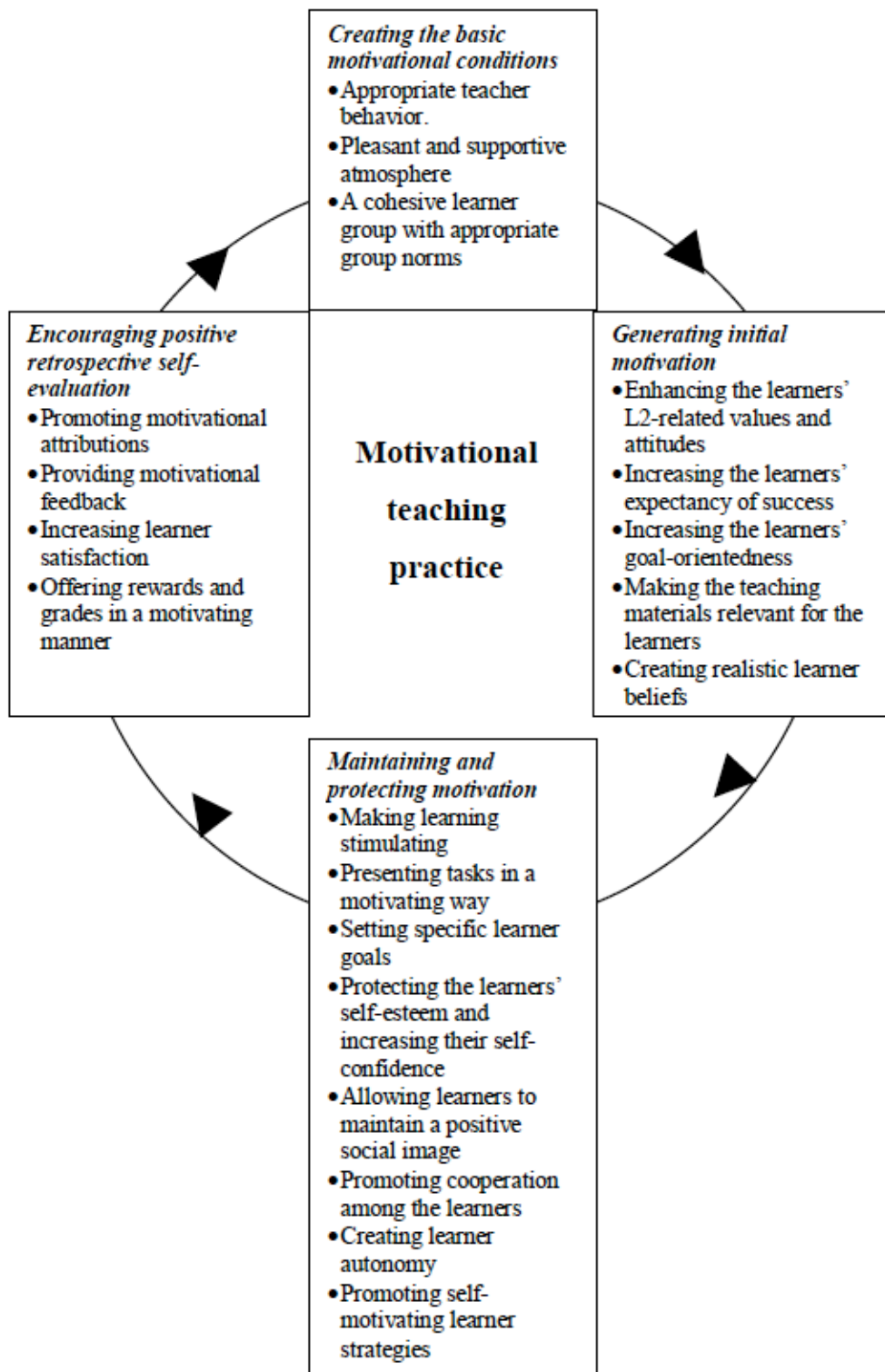
#### **2.1.6. Dornyei's L2 motivational strategies framework**

There is a need to have a comprehensive definition of “motivational strategies” before this term can be broken down into further details. Dornyei (2001a) defined motivational strategies refer to (a) instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation and (b) self-regulating strategies that are used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation. The motivational strategies discussed in this research belong to type (a).

Among many ways to organize various L2 motivational strategies, Dornyei (2001a) chose to follow an approach that focuses on the different phrases of the process-oriented model. He outlined four main components of a model motivational strategies framework.

The very first dimension is *creating the basic motivational conditions*. This involves creating the basic conditions in order to build up learners’ motivation, e.g. good teacher-student rapport, a supportive classroom atmosphere and disciplined group work. The second dimension is *generating initial motivation* by using strategies to develop positive attitudes towards language learning as well as consolidating learners’ expectancy of success. The third component, *maintaining and protecting motivation* can be achieved through giving students the chance to experience success, which allows them to maintain a positive social image and eventually promote learner autonomy. Lastly, the promotion of adaptive attributions, effective and encouraging feedback and rewards can help enhance learners’ satisfaction, which is the basic principle of the last component of the framework, *encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation*.





**Figure 2** The components of a Motivational L2 Teaching Practice

(Dornyei, 2001a, p.29)

In this research, the discussion of motivational strategies only limits specifically to the instructional techniques used by teachers, not learners' self-regulating strategies. Therefore, Dornyei (2001a)'s framework of a motivational L2 teaching practice will serve as the theoretical basis for the design of classroom observation instrument.

## **2.2. The context of teaching speaking to second year mainstream students at FELTE-ULIS-VNU**

First of all, regarding the general context of teaching and learning English in Vietnam, although a lot of efforts have been put in transforming the methodology and creating a more encouraging environment for learning in the recent years, students seem to still lack motivation and opportunities to practice communicating in the target language. The most remarkable causes as suggested by Hoang et al. (2005) are the Vietnamese traditional way of passive study, the inequality of teachers' capability, the large size of the classes and poorly equipped classrooms (cited in Pham, 2009).

Most of the above conditions have been largely resolved in the context of Faculty of English Teacher Education, ULIS, VNU. The school has tried its best to provide sufficient learning facilities (e.g. computers, projectors and speakers in almost all classrooms in A2 building) in order to facilitate teaching and learning. Besides, learning materials have been updated frequently to meet the needs and levels of students. Detailed course guide and outline are provided each semester so that students and teachers alike can gain initiative in preparing and arranging learning activities. In terms of teachers' knowledge and ability, it is no exaggeration to say that the teachers in FELTE-ULIS, most of

whom albeit young, are highly qualified with high level of English competence and specially trained in ELT.

The research took place during the second semester of school year 2010-2011, among the second year mainstream ELT students of QH2009 at FELTE-ULIS-VNU and their respective speaking teachers. In the course of Speaking IV for ELT, the students are provided with two main practice forms: one with pronunciation and intonation in context (movie dubbing assignment), and another with accuracy and fluency in a series of exam-oriented speaking tasks focusing on their own experiences and opinions (exam folder assignment). Because this is the first year these two activities have been included in the speaking program at FELTE, students need time to adapt to the new changes, hence the significant role of Division II's teachers as effective monitors, facilitators and motivators.

On another note, QH2009 mainstream students are presented with personalized speaking tasks in the *New Cutting Edge – Upper Intermediate: Student's Book* (by Cunningham and Moor, 2005, published by Longman) as the main course book. Especially, choices within the tasks designed encourage students to take charge of interactions with others and promote autonomy. In this course book, lexical items are integrated in specific contexts, showing how words and phrases function and how they collocate with each other. A variety of speaking tasks by each module helps students build a better active vocabulary, at the same time improve their fluency and accuracy. The syllabus and teaching method is as specified in the course guide (updated January 2011):

This course is designed to maximize learners' autonomy and group work. Thus students are expected to be active in self-studying, peer and group cooperating. The learners should understand the tasks in class and participate enthusiastically and actively in all assigned group and pair work in order to produce an individual oral report as the desired

product of group work. Thus, they can improve their presentation skills and speaking skills in front of many people. In short, group work discussion and individual oral report are the prioritized skills supposed to be mastered by students by the end of the semester. (p.17)

### **2.3. Review of related studies**

#### **2.3.1. An overview of related studies worldwide**

Since its first publication, the issue of student motivation has attracted increasing attention from researchers in both psychology and in L2 studies, which reflected in a growing number of theoretical models of L2 motivation. According to Dornyei and Guilloteaux (2008), only until recently has the focus been shifted from studying what motivation is to conceptualizing motivational teaching framework in order to use the knowledge of motivation to facilitate students' learning process. Among such researchers, Brophy (2004), Gindberg & Wlodkowski (2001), Pintrich & Schunk (2002), Alison & Halliwell (2002), Dornyei (2001, 2006), Williams & Burden (1997) are some found in Guilloteaux (2007). Generally, most of these studies are grounded in theoretical considerations. Not many of them have been conducted to measure the effectiveness of such strategies in real classroom situations. In order to enlighten this deficiency, Gardner and Trembay (1994) argued that without empirical evidence, the value of the recommended motivational strategies remained yet to be confirmed. The potential gap between assumed and the actual motivational power of some certain motivational strategies was also discussed in an article by Chen, Warden and Chang (2005), "Motivators that do not motivate" (cited in Dornyei & Guilloteaux, 2008).

Dornyei and Csizer's (1998) research named "Ten commandments for motivating language learners: results of an empirical study" among

Hungarian teachers was among the first attempts to provide empirical data on the use of motivational strategies. From the survey, the researchers compiled a concise set of ten most important motivational macro-strategies. Although this framework offer practical benefits to teachers, its short-coming was that it relied exclusively on teachers' self reports, while teachers' perception may not always well correspond to the actual situation.

Similar attempts to Dornyei and Csizer's (1998) research were made by Madrid (2002) with Spanish students and Xavier (2005) with Brazilian teachers and students. Martin's (2002) research, opposite to some claims made by previous researches against the use of extrinsic motives, suggests that extrinsic motives, if properly managed, can bring about positive impacts on students' participation and performance in class, especially when praises are used as encouragement. As for Xavier's (2005) study, with the exploitation of both quantitative and qualitative data (from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations), the results reached similar conclusion with Dornyei and Csizer (1998) and thus confirmed the direct connection between motivational teaching practice with students' motivated behaviors. He also pointed out the cultural factor that led to the variation of frequency and effectiveness of such motivational strategies. Likewise, Cheng and Dornyei's (2007) study in Taiwan also support the findings that cultural differences and distinctive educational contexts influence the use and effectiveness of particular strategies. Nevertheless, the findings from these researches only reflected teachers' perception. They were not based on either observation or documentation of existing participating teachers' motivational practice or students' opinions and attitudes toward such practice, which would have been more objective.

Aiming at bridging the gap and gaining a more comprehensive view of the issue, Dornyei and Guilloteaux (2008) carried out a large-scale investigation in South Korea among 40 ESOL classrooms, 27 language teachers and more than 1300 learners from various levels of institutional context. The researchers made use of various research instruments to ensure a more detailed and inclusive assessment of both the quality of teachers' motivational strategies and the level of learners' motivated behaviors. They developed a new classroom observation scheme, the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT), a combination of Dornyei's (2001) framework of motivational teaching strategies and Spada & Flohlich's (1995) classroom observation scheme – the COLT. Besides, a post-lesson teacher evaluation scale was also completed by the researcher right after the lesson; and a student motivational state questionnaire was given to students before the lesson started to assess their course-related motivational level. The results of the study suggested that motivational teaching strategies, as compared to students' self-regulated motivation, have a stronger association with students' in-class motivated behaviors (as reflected in their attention, volunteering and participation in class activities). Despite having various superiorities like the large and authentic sample, the careful consideration of the issue from different angles, and the exploitation of various quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments, this study by Dornyei and Guilloteaux (2008) failed to look at any particular strategies but motivational teaching practice as a whole. There is no list of most effective and least effective strategies, but it is the “culture-specific” variables that matter (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007, p.155).

From the above review of previous studies, it can be concluded that there is a direct link between motivational teaching practice and students'

motivational state and motivated behaviors in classroom, although the frequency and effectiveness of such practice may vary across cultures. A much more comprehensive approach has been introduced with various data collection instruments including teachers' and students' questionnaires, classroom observation scheme as well as a supplementary post-lesson teacher evaluation scale.

### **2.3.2. An overview of related studies in Vietnam**

Referring to the current situation in Vietnam, few studies have touched upon the topic of student motivation and specific motivational techniques in L2 classrooms. More specifically, in FELTE-ULIS-VNU, one of the leading foreign language teacher training institutions in Vietnam, prospective teachers' awareness of motivating students has been raised through the course of ELT Methodology II (To, et al., 2009), in which the importance of motivation together with some suggestions for arousing learners' motivation and characteristics of motivating tasks were highlighted. However, teachers' motivational practice and students' attitudes towards this issue in the real classroom context have not been officially investigated and specified yet, nor have they been discussed in the course content.

Some studies conducted by junior researchers from FELTE-ULIS-VNU targeting the group of 11<sup>th</sup> form students highlighted the appreciation of both teachers and students towards classroom motivation (Hoang, 2001; Nguyen, 2001; Vu, 2006). From the results of their studies, several factors regarding generating and maintaining students' motivation for learning were proposed, including teacher-student relationship, task instructions, classroom activities, discipline and time management (Vu, 2006); teachers' teaching method and personality,

materials/ resources, learning objectives and atmosphere (Nguyen, 2001). Among these studies, Nguyen (2001) can be said to have come closest to the framework of motivational teaching practice (Dornyei, 2001a) by pointing out the most common techniques employed in classrooms for 11<sup>th</sup> form students (namely pair work and individual work), as well as suggesting the use of tactful error correction, verbal praises, corrective feedback and varied classroom activities.

Within the context of the Faculty of English Language Teachers Education, ULIS-VNU, Pham (2009) investigated the application of only one particular motivational strategy, namely *corrective feedback* for motivating first year mainstream students in the same faculty during their speaking lessons. A general agreement was reported in the study on the combination of both “content comment” and “language correction” (Pham, 2009); so was a preference of equal treatment of all correction forms from teachers. However, similar to researches from Hoang (2001), Nguyen (2001) and Vu (2006), a more comprehensive picture of the exploitation of motivational teaching strategies still failed to be presented in Pham’s (2009) study.

On the other hand, Nguyen’s (2009) study on motivational strategies employed by teachers during speaking lessons for mainstream freshmen in FELTE-ULIS-VNU was the first one to follow the comprehensive framework and constructs of motivational teaching strategies suggested by Dornyei (2001a) and Dornyei & Guilloteaux (2008). With the assistance students’ questionnaires and classroom observation scheme, Nguyen (2009) attempted to find the answer for her research questions about the frequency and effectiveness of motivational strategies from students’ perception, as reflected in their attention and participation in class activities. Likewise, the most recent effort on



investigating the use of these techniques was made by a group of junior researchers Vu, Nguyen, Nguyen, Nguyen (2010), who also based on the same framework and constructs. They chose to look at the issue from a different angle—teachers’ perception toward the frequency that they applied various motivational strategies in their speaking lessons with second year mainstream students at FELTE-ULIS-VNU, together with their perceived effectiveness on students’ motivated behaviors (i.e. their attention, participation and volunteering). Besides exploiting basic data collection instruments like questionnaires for teachers and the classroom observation scheme, Vu, et al. (2010) also made use of a qualitative method namely semi-structured interviews in order to ask for teachers’ opinions on the application of these strategies in terms of obstacles, suggestions and recommendations. The results from both researches by Nguyen (2009) and Vu, et al. (2010) were very positive and applied for the general population of teachers in respectively Division I and II at FELTE-ULIS. However, the results were not group-specified enough. The researchers did not take into account the difference in teachers’ perception when interfered by their teaching experience; or in other words, the correlation between teaching experience and the use of motivational strategies as well as their reported effectiveness.

All the above limitations have prompted the researcher to conduct this study to further investigate the issue, as well as to bridge the gap about the use of motivational strategies demonstrated by different groups of teachers based on their experience in teaching speaking to second year mainstream students at FELTE-ULIS. In order to make the comparison possible, the researcher has chosen to narrow down the scope of the research to teachers and classes from ELT major only as they share the

same characteristics. This means Economics English classes are excluded from the research.

## **Summary**

*This chapter has laid the theoretical background for the whole study by examining major motivation theories and constructs; elaborating on the framework on which the data collection methods are based; discussing the context of the study as well as reviewing related researches. Most importantly, it has pointed out the specific limits and gaps left in related literature, which justify the significance of this research paper.*

## CHAPTER 3

# METHODOLOGY

*In the previous chapter, the literature on the research topic was briefly reviewed for the theoretical basis of the whole study. On a more practical side, this chapter provides a detailed picture of the methodology by discussing in detail the selection of subjects, the data collection instruments (including questionnaires, observation scheme and semi-structured interview) as well as the procedure of data collection and analysis.*

### **3.1. Selection of subjects**

The study was carried out at Division II (second year mainstream classes) at the Faculty of English Language Teacher Education (FELTE), ULIS. The participants were the eleven teachers who are currently teaching speaking skills to second year mainstream ELT students at FELTE, ULIS. It should be noted that only the teachers that teach ELT-majored classes (QH.2009.E2 to QH.2009.E16) took part in the survey, in order to create equal conditions so that comparison can be made feasible.

In order to address the research questions, the researcher decided on ***stratified sampling*** method (where the sampling frame is divided into non-overlapping groups or strata, e.g. geographical areas, age groups, genders, etc.) so that greater precision in terms of the data collected can be achieved. More specifically, from the group of these eleven teachers who are qualified for the survey, the researcher collected information about their background, particularly teaching experience and categorized

them into three sub-groups based on their years of teaching speaking to second year mainstream ELT students at the faculty.

Sub-group I includes four young teachers who has just worked in the Division for one or two years. Due to their limited experience working in the field, the teachers in this sub-group are expected to face considerable strains and thus have to put great effort in designing appealing lessons plans and conducting motivated lessons.

Sub-group II comprises of four teachers with three to four years experience. This sub-group plays the role of transition between sub-groups I and III. The teachers have partially overcome the initial difficulties and complications, have gained certain experience thus are having it easily than those in sub-group I. However, they are still nowhere as near as those in sub-group III as regards to seniority and teaching proficiency.

Lastly, sub-group III are made of three teachers with over five years teaching experience, one of whom has been teaching for as long as ten years. With a lot of experience in hands, these teachers know how to deal with students and how to motivate them effectively without much struggle.

These three sub-groups of teachers bear noticeable distinctions to each other, making the comparison among them worthy.

### **3.2. Data collection methods**

To find answers to the research questions, the researchers decided to employ the triangulation method, a combined data collection process utilizing survey questionnaires, a classroom observation scheme, as well as semi-structured interviews.

The questionnaire was written in English as teachers at Division II, FELTE, ULIS, have very good command of English. Besides, instructions as well as question items were interpreted in a way that can be most easily understood. The use of technical terms was maximally limited for the facilitation of the survey respondents.

However, the use of questionnaires alone would not be able to provide insights into the issue due to the “simplicity and superficiality of answers” (Nguyen, 2008, p. 17), and some other external factors (e.g. the autonomy of the participants, simple questions, the short amount of time spent answering the questions). Therefore, the researcher decided to conduct classroom observations and semi-structured interviews to get deeper understanding.

Besides, semi-structured interviews were also exploited to investigate the teachers’ opinions regarding the difficulties in applying motivational strategies, together with recommendations from senior teachers.

### **3.3. Data collection instruments**

#### **3.3.1. Questionnaire**

Based on the MOLT classroom observation scheme of Guilloteaux and Dornyei (2008), the questionnaire (Appendix 1) includes three types of questions: (1) factual ones which look for the respondents’ background information (i.e. name and teaching experience) and (2) behavioral ones which help to find out specific information about the participants’ frequency of using motivational strategies.

The MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme, or the motivation orientation of language teaching classroom observation scheme, is a

combination of Dornyei’s framework of motivational teaching strategies (2001) and Spada & Frohlich’s classroom observation scheme – the COLT (1995, as cited in Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008). This is mainly used to assess the quality of teachers’ motivational strategies.

The content categories included in the MOLT concerned features of the learners’ motivated behaviors and the teachers’ motivational teaching practice. The aspects of teachers’ motivational teaching practice included twenty-five clearly definable and observable motivational variables, presented in Table 1. These variables were grouped in the questionnaire as well as observation sheet into four categories: *teacher discourse*, *participation structure*, *activity design* and *encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation*. They were measure based on Spada and Frohlich’s (1995, cited in Dornyei and Gulloteaux, 2008) concept of the primary focus coding convention.

**TABLE 1**

**The 25 Observational Variables Measuring the Teacher’s Motivational Practice**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Strategies</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>Social chat</i>	Having an informal (often humorous) chat with the students on matters unrelated to the lesson.
<b>2</b>	<i>Signposting</i>	Stating the lesson objectives explicitly or giving retrospective summaries of progress already made toward realizing the objectives.
<b>3</b>	<i>Stating the</i>	While presenting an activity, mentioning its

	<i>communicative purpose or utility of the activity</i>	communicative purpose, its usefulness outside the classroom, its cross-curricular utility, or the way it fits into the sequence of activities planned for the lesson.
<b>4</b>	<i>Establishing relevance</i>	Connecting what has to be learned to the students' everyday lives.
<b>5</b>	<i>Promoting integrative values</i>	Promoting contact with L2 speakers and cultural products and encouraging students to explore the L2 culture and community.
<b>6</b>	<i>Promoting instrumental values</i>	Highlighting the role that the L2 plays in the world and how knowing the L2 can be potentially useful for the students themselves as well as their community.
<b>7</b>	<i>Arousing curiosity or attention</i>	During the presentation of an activity, raising the students' expectations that the upcoming activity is going to be interesting and/or important (e.g., by asking them to guess what they are going to do next, or by pointing out fun, challenging, or important aspects of the activity or contents to be learned).
<b>8</b>	<i>Scaffolding</i>	Providing appropriate strategies and/or models to help students complete an activity successfully.
<b>9</b>	<i>Promoting cooperation</i>	Setting up a cooperative learning activity, or explicitly encouraging students to help one

		another, offering suggestions on how best to do this.
<b>10</b>	<i>Promoting autonomy</i>	Offering students a choice of activities, involving them in making decisions regarding the timing of an activity, having them use the Internet or do research.
<b>11</b>	<i>Referential questions</i>	Asking the class questions to which the teacher does not already know the answer, including questions about the students' lives.
<b>12</b>	<i>Inconsistent pair/ group work</i>	The students are mingling, working in fluid pairs, or working in groups (simultaneously or presenting to the whole class).
<b>13</b>	<i>Fixed pair/ group work</i>	The students are working in fixed pairs (simultaneously or presenting to the whole class).
<b>14</b>	<i>Tangible reward</i>	Offering students tangible rewards (e.g., candy, stickers) for successfully taking part in an activity.
<b>15</b>	<i>Personalization</i>	Creating opportunities for students to express personal meanings.
<b>16</b>	<i>Element of interest, creativity, fantasy</i>	The activity contains ambiguous, paradoxical, problematic, controversial, contradictory, incongruous, or exotic material; connects with students' interests, values, creativity, fantasy, or arouses their curiosity (e.g., predict-and-confirm



		activity).
<b>17</b>	<i>Intellectual Challenge</i>	The activity presents an intellectual challenge (e.g., it involves a memory challenge, problem or puzzle solving, discovering something, overcoming obstacles, avoiding traps, or finding hidden information).
<b>18</b>	<i>Tangible task product</i>	The students are working on the production of a tangible outcome (e.g., a poster, a brochure).
<b>19</b>	<i>Individual competition</i>	The activity involves an element of individual competition.
<b>20</b>	<i>Team competition</i>	The activity involves an element of team competition.
<b>21</b>	<i>Neutral Feedback</i>	Going over the answers of an exercise with the class without communicating any expression of irritation or personal criticism.
<b>22</b>	<i>Process feedback</i>	Focusing on what can be learned from the mistakes that have been made, and from the process of producing the correct answer.
<b>23</b>	<i>Elicitation of self or peer correction</i>	Encouraging students to correct their own mistakes, revise their own work, or review/correct their peers' work.
<b>24</b>	<i>Effective praise</i>	Offering praise for effort or achievement that is sincere, specific (i.e., more than merely saying "Good job!"), and commensurate with the

		student's achievement. <i>N.B.:</i> Ability feedback ("You are very good at English" ) or praise involving social comparison ("You did better than anyone else in the class") is not recorded as <i>effective praise</i> .
<b>25</b>	<i>Class applause</i>	Celebrating a student's or group's success, risk-taking, or effort by applauding (either spontaneously or following the teacher's lead).

(Adapted from Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008, p. 63, 64)

### **3.3.2. Observation scheme**

The observation scheme (see Appendix 2) was adapted from the MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme developed by Guilloteaux & Dornyei (2008). It aimed to increase the reliability for the results of the questionnaires and detect any gaps between teachers' perception and their real teaching practice. However, due to limited time and human resources and in order to make the scheme more approachable, this current research did not exploit the MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme in the exact way that Guilloteaux and Dornyei used it. Instead of following the real-time coding principle whereby relevant classroom events were recorded every minute in an on-going manner, the researcher used tally sheets to observe the frequency of the motivational teaching strategies.

### **3.3.3. Interviews**

The interviews aimed at testing the information given in the questionnaire as well as detecting the difficulties teachers encounter

while applying motivational strategies. The researchers attempted to seek answers for research question (2) and explore more information from the teachers through some open ended questions such as:

1. What do you think are the reasons for the discrepancies in the use of motivational teaching practice between different sub-groups of teachers?

2. How does their limited experience and/or personality affect the way they use motivational strategies?

### **3.4. Data collection procedures**

The procedure of data collection consists of four main stages:

#### ***Stage 1:***

In this stage, the questionnaires and the interviews schedule were prepared. The questionnaires were piloted with two voluntary respondents (who are two experienced teachers at FELTE, ULIS) to identify ambiguous, repetitive and redundant items. In addition, they were invited to give comments on its content. Based on the item analysis, the wording of some items has been modified before the final version was delivered.

Though the classroom observation was not piloted because of the time limit, it could still be improved based on the findings of questionnaire piloting and fulfill its tasks of examining and taking in-depth investigation into the results of the questionnaires.

#### ***Stage 2:***

Eleven questionnaires were delivered to all the specified teacher-respondents in person or via email. Instructions were given clearly; all the terms were clarified to assist participants in understanding correctly the wording in the questionnaires. The researchers were also present to answer any questions arising in the process.

The questionnaires after collected were categorized into three groups and analyzed separately for the precise results of each sub-group of teachers.

### ***Stage 3:***

After consent was obtained from the teachers, eleven classroom observations (one by each teacher) with a comprehensive checklist were conducted to crosscheck and confirm the reliability of the data provided through the questionnaires.

### ***Stage 4:***

Finally, after the data from questionnaires and classroom observations had been analyzed, interviews were conducted with three teachers who completed the questionnaires: one from sub-group I, one from sub-group 2 and one from sub-group III. The interviews were firstly aimed to test the information given in the questionnaire; after that to explore teachers' opinion and seek the explanation for the differences subjected from questionnaire result. The interviews were recorded for further examination.

## **3.5. Data analysis methods and procedures**

All the data from questionnaires and classroom observation contributed to answering the first two research questions. Both statistical and interpretative methods were used where applicable.

First, descriptive statistics were employed. The data obtained from the questionnaires were calculated and transferred into numerical form before being transcribed into tables and charts in order to assist the synthesis, comparison and generalization of the data. After that, the notes the researcher took during the observations were also quantified and classified. Besides facts and figures, some detailed descriptions were also exploited. Data from these two sources were then compared and contrasted to find out the similarities, and gap as well as the observe concrete manifestations.

Finally, qualitative data collected from the interviews were summarized to complement the first research question and most importantly, answer the last question.

## **Summary**

*This chapter has justified the methodology of the paper by elaborating on the targeted group of participants involved in the process of data collection, namely the eleven teachers who are in charge of speaking skill in the fifteen second year ELT majored mainstream classes in FELTE, ULIS, VNU. Questionnaires, classroom observation and interviews were employed as the data collection instruments with the aim of addressing the three research questions from the analysis of data. The results from such analysis are going to be presented, and their implications discussed in the next chapter.*

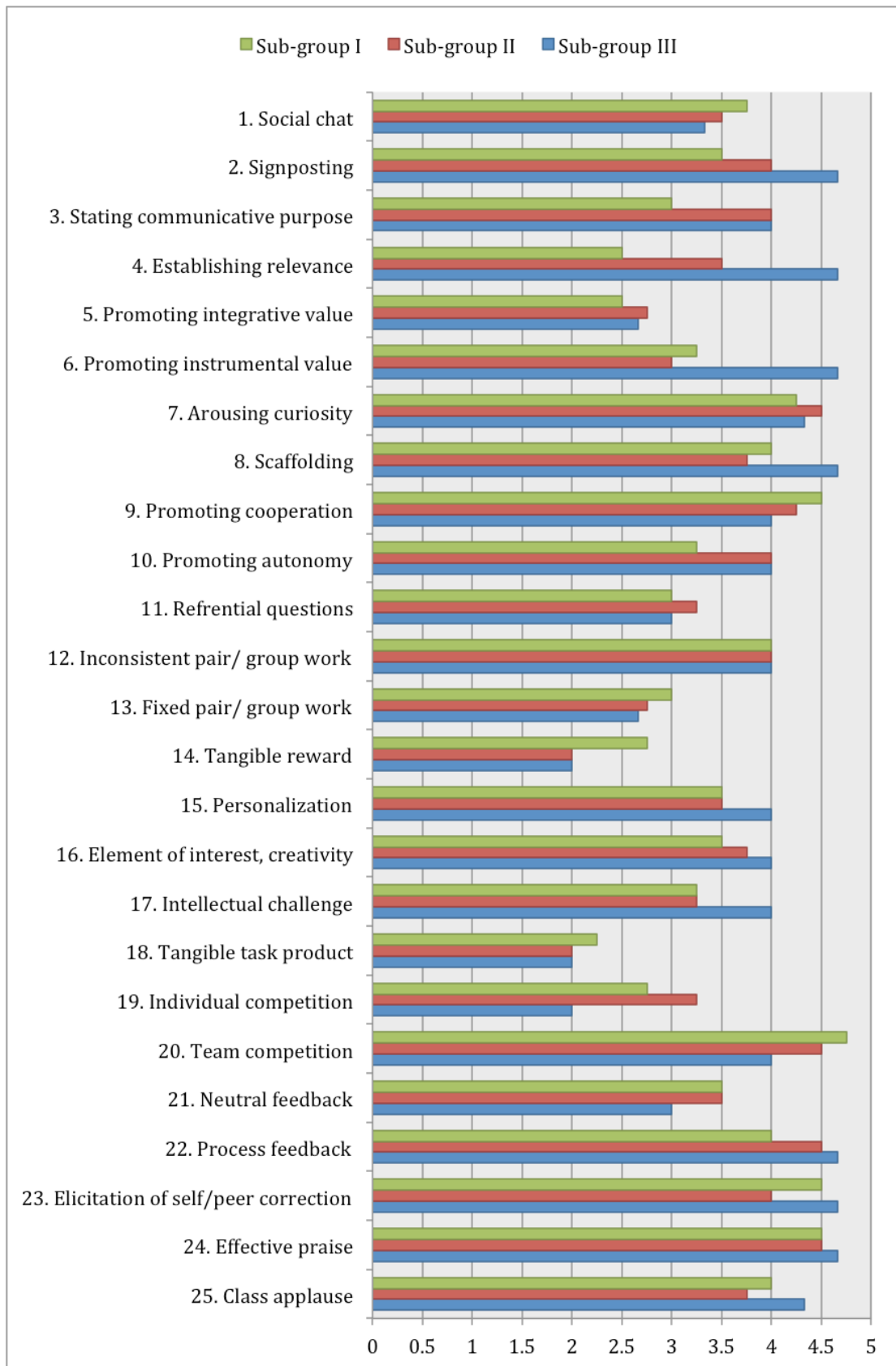
## **CHAPTER 4**

# **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In the previous chapter, the methodology of the study has been clarified with descriptions of the participants, the instruments and the process of data collection and analysis. In this chapter, all the collected data will be analyzed and discussed in details to reveal the answers to each research question in turn. Data collected from questionnaires and classroom observation will be integrated to support and complement each other, addressing the first two research questions. Details from relevant references may be appended where necessary for the further understanding and discussion of the findings. Following this, data collected from interviews will be analyzed and synthesized in order to answer the third question. Finally, some pedagogical implications will be underlined from the overall findings of the study.

### **4.1. Presentation and discussion of results**

From the survey with eleven teachers in three different subgroups on how frequently they use the twenty-five motivational strategies in their speaking classes, the researcher has analyzed and visualized the result in the chart below.



**Chart 1: Frequency of motivational strategies  
by three different sub-group of teachers**

As can be seen from the chart, there are some similarities and some great discrepancies among the three groups regarding the use of different strategies. In order to facilitate comparison and explanation, the overall result is broken down into four smaller sections based on the sources of theories and constructs from which the studies motivational strategies are derived from. The answer to research questions 1 and 2: frequency and the behavioral explanation for the discrepancies of motivational strategies applied by teachers from sub-group I, II and III in speaking lessons with second year mainstream ELT-majored classes at FELTE-ULIS, will then be discussed, compared and explained within these sections. The four sections are elaborated as in the table below:

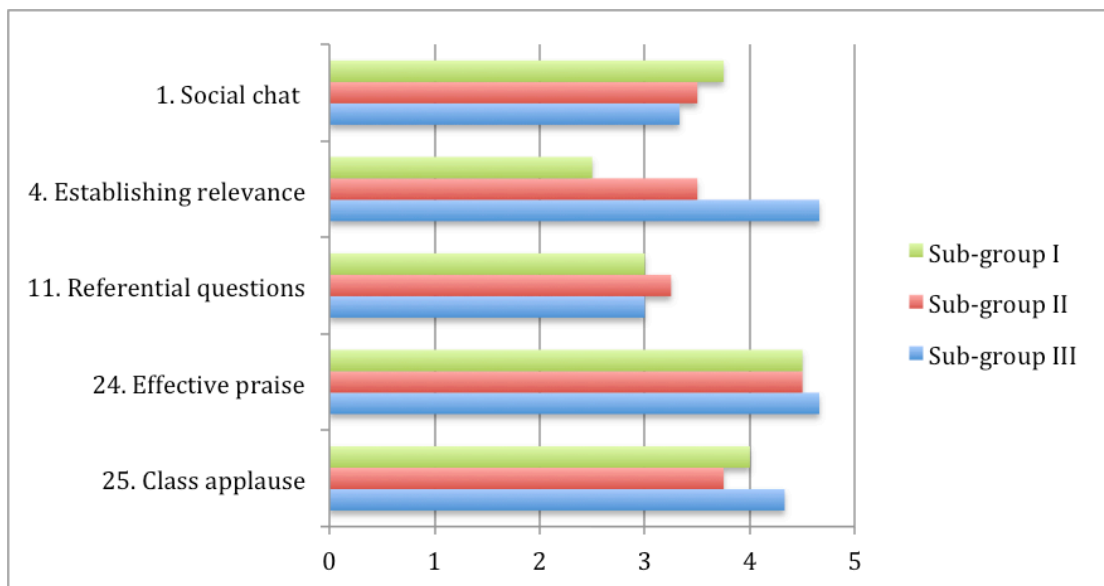
Strategies derived from context (goal content perspective)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Social chat</li> <li>4. Establishing relevance</li> <li>11. Referential questions</li> <li>24. Effective praise</li> <li>25. Class applause</li> </ul>
Strategies derived from students' interests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>5. Promoting integrative value</li> <li>9. Promoting cooperation</li> <li>12. Inconsistent pair/ group work</li> <li>13. Fixed pair/ group work</li> <li>15. Personalization</li> <li>16. Element of interest, creativity</li> <li>17. Intellectual challenge</li> <li>18. Tangible task product</li> <li>19. Individual competition</li> <li>20. Team competition</li> </ul>
Strategies from a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Stating communicative purpose</li> </ul>



Future Time Perspective	6. Promoting instrumental value 14. Tangible rewards
Strategies derived from Self-Determination Theory	2. Signposting 7. Arousing curiosity 8. Scaffolding 10. Promoting autonomy 21. Neutral feedback 22. Process feedback 23. Elicitation of self/ peer correction

**Table 2:** Motivational strategies classified by sources of theories/ constructs

**4.1.1. Motivational strategies derived from context (goal content perspective)**



**Chart 2 – Groups of strategies derived from goal content**

### **perspective, as applied by three groups of teachers**

The goal content perspective indicates that students tend to pursue the social goals that are valued in the contexts they think are supportive and comfortable; therefore a good teacher-student rapport can be a very big encouragement for students to study (Wentzel, 1999). As can be seen from the chart, teachers from all three groups are well aware of this fact as they make a good attempt to apply these strategies during their classes.

Among the five strategies in this group, *effective praise* and *class applause* seems to be most favorable among junior and senior teachers alike, with the frequency mean score of 4.5 or more. This result is predictable as students are always encouraged to do the tasks if they know they will be praised and applauded for what they have done well. *Effective praise* and *class applause* were also shown in the classes that the researchers observed. It was quite popular among all the observed teachers though their lessons held a lot of differences in terms of topics, tasks and purposes. They always started their feedback session with a class applause and a praise, either on students' manner, language or the choice of ideas, which was really a big encouragement to students.

Though used a little less frequently, *referential questions* also receive equal attention from all three subgroups of teachers. The use of referential questions involve asking students about their personal opinion or life, which contributes considerably to the friendly and intimate environment between the observed teachers and students.

One noteworthy difference that can be pointed out from the chart is that young teachers seem to be more into having *social chat* with students

about issues unrelated to the lessons. As they age and gain more experience in teaching, the time they spend on such chats decreases. The data from class observation shows similar result. When interviewed about the difference in the frequency level of this strategy, teacher C from sub-group III, who has been teaching for more than 10 years, speculated that since the age gap between young teachers and students are supposedly smaller, it is more likely that they share some common interests and concerns, thus can more easily relate to each others and have longer social talks in class. As they grow older, their scope of concerns no longer coincides with that of students, which explains why senior teachers tend to spend less time chatting with students about matters unrelated to the lessons.

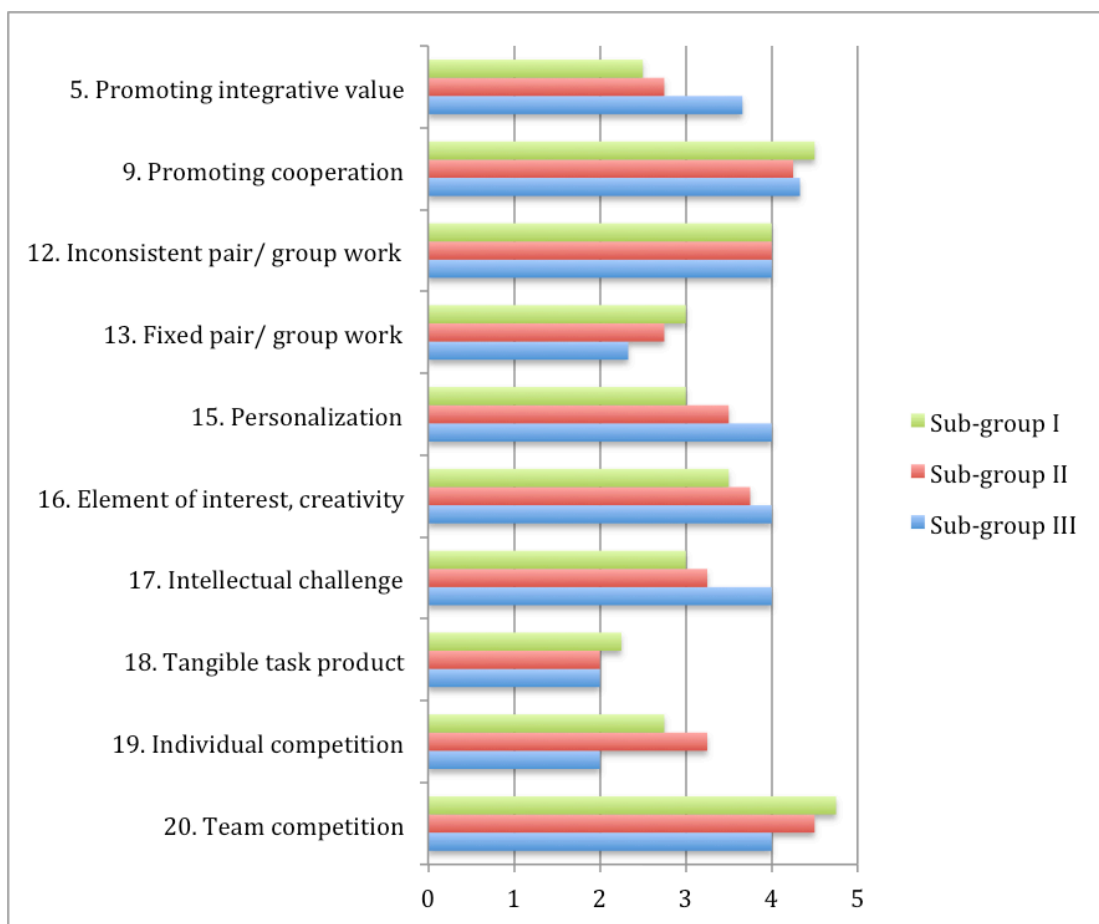
On the other hand, the strategy of *establishing relevance* (connecting what has to be learned to students' everyday lives) sees a reverse order of frequency levels among the three groups of teachers. The result from the survey questionnaires indicates that there is a clear correlation between the use of this strategy and teachers' experience, as the mean scores significantly range from 2.5 in sub-group I, 3.5 in sub-group II and 4.66 in sub-group III. In the explanation for the less frequent use of establishing relevance, teacher A from sub-group I with less than a year experience gave the remark that her awareness of this strategy is still low, thus no proper application was made. Besides, teacher B from sub-group II commented that she still has difficulties putting herself in students' position to see whether they thoroughly understand what needs to be learned; therefore she does not know when to establish any relevance, and when not. Most of the time after giving the explanation and illustration, she assumes that students already understand the point she is trying to make and move on with the content. Meanwhile, the

interview with teacher C from sub-group III shows she is fully aware of the effectiveness that establishing relevance brings to students' understanding of the lesson content. From her 10 year experience, she has established a so-called teaching sensitivity of giving illustration related directly to students' lives (such as giving grammar examples with references to students' pop star idols) whenever necessary, so as to raise students' attention and interest in the lesson content. She also commented that it takes time for young teachers to finally master this strategy and use it without even thinking.

In general, it can be concluded that among the motivational strategies derived from goal content perspective, junior teachers are better at using *social chat*, while senior teachers are superior in *establishing relevance*.

#### **4.1.2. Motivational strategies derived from the construct of “interest”**

The construct of interest is all about what educators do to generate and sustain students' situational interests and help them develop over time an individual interest in their courses (Guilloteaux, 2007). There are several motivational strategies categorized under this construct as shown in the chart. It can be seen that the use of these strategies greatly varies among the three groups of teachers.



**Chart 3 – Groups of strategies derived from students’ interests**

In terms of similarities, all three groups of teachers reported regular use of *promoting cooperation* and *inconsistent pair/group work* among students, with the mean scores of 4 or over. It seems that group activities are being increasingly used by teachers in their lessons to encourage students to help one another and offer suggestions on how best to do this. It seems that group activities are being increasingly used by teachers in their lessons, which is a huge progress from the old times when individual learning was dominant. These strategies was also the most popular to be employed in all the observed classes. The teachers usually divided the class into different groups and assigned each group a different or similar task. Whether it was a discussion or brainstorming

activity, students always appeared to be highly energetic and engaged in almost every observed class.

Apart from such similarities, there are striking differences in the use of other strategies among teachers in the three sub-groups. First of all, younger teachers display a dominance in using *individual competition* and *team competition* with higher mean score of frequency than their seniors. These two strategies are aimed to create a competitive working environment among the class, hence indirectly stimulate students' engagement in the activities. One explanation for this dominance is, as remarked by teacher C from sub-group III, that younger teachers tend to show more of their energetic side in class, thus try to create energetic activities for their students. This feature is clearly shown in their activities design which encourage competition and fierce learning environment. Senior teachers instead are inclined to be more laid-back and prefer more peaceful lessons, therefore they do not use competition as much. In short, this is the difference in teachers' personality and characteristics that elaborates the discrepancy.

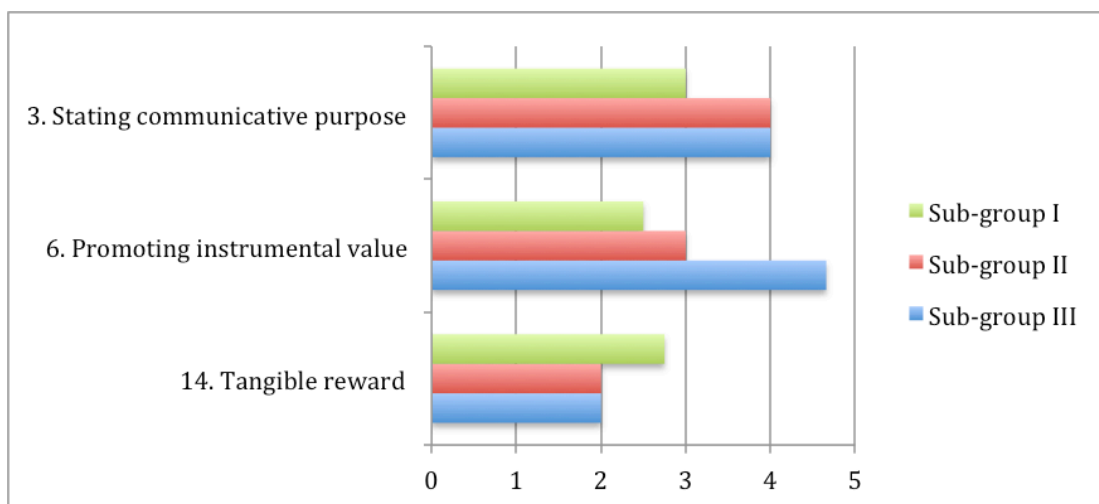
On the other hand, teachers with more experience tend to apply with higher frequency strategies that nurture and promote students' intrinsic motivation, as well as address their individual interests such as *promoting integrative value* (promoting contact with L2 speakers and cultural products and encouraging students to explore the L2 culture and community); *personalization* (creating opportunities for students to express personal meanings, experiences, feelings, opinions, etc.); *element of interest, creativity and fantasy* (using activities containing ambiguous, paradoxical, problematic or exotic material; connecting with students' interests, values, creativity; arousing their curiosity); and *intellectual challenge* (e.g. memory challenges, problem or puzzle solving,

discovering something, overcoming obstacle, avoiding traps, finding hidden information). As compared to those strategies preferred by younger teachers, it can be clearly seen that senior teachers put more emphasis on fostering and expanding students' inner interest and enthusiasm for studying. They asserted that these strategies are more meaningful, giving opportunities for active learning (i.e. learning requiring behavioral engagement and/or engagement in conceptual thinking and problem solving, Guilloteaux, 2007) and are more effective in maintaining long-term interest in students.

The results from classroom observation also supports the findings from survey questionnaires on teachers' perception. While competition was common in all observed lessons, the teachers in sub-groups I and II did not seem to pay much attention to personalize the tasks, nor did they integrate intellectual challenge or any element of interest, creativity and fantasy into the lessons. Only two out of eleven teachers made an effort in making the task personal to students and vary the activity design, and they were both from sub-group III.

In sum, among the strategies derived from students' interests, young teachers have a tendency to use individual and group competition to create a dynamic learning atmosphere while experienced teachers emphasize more on strategies that promote students' intrinsic motivation as well as individual interest through meaningful and challenging activities.

#### **4.1.3. Motivational strategies derived from a Future Time Perspective**



**Chart 4 – Groups of strategies derived from a Future Time Perspective**

Future Time Perspective (FTP) emphasizes the extent to which the future contingencies of students’ present schoolwork are important to them. Therefore, in order to generate and maintain students’ FTP motivation, teachers are advised to give a clear rationale of each activity that allow students to fully understand its specific meaning and importance.

As clearly shown from the chart, young teachers from sub-group I are much less active in clarifying the future instrumentality of the tasks to their students, like *stating communicative purpose* (mentioning activities’ usefulness outside the classroom, its cross-cultural utility or the way it fits into the sequence of activities planned for the lesson) or *promoting instrumental value* (highlighting the role that L2 plays in the world and how knowing the L2 can be potentially useful for the students themselves as well as their community). The classroom observations in several teachers’ lessons also reflect that experienced teachers pay special attention to the authenticity of activities, blend in more clarification and

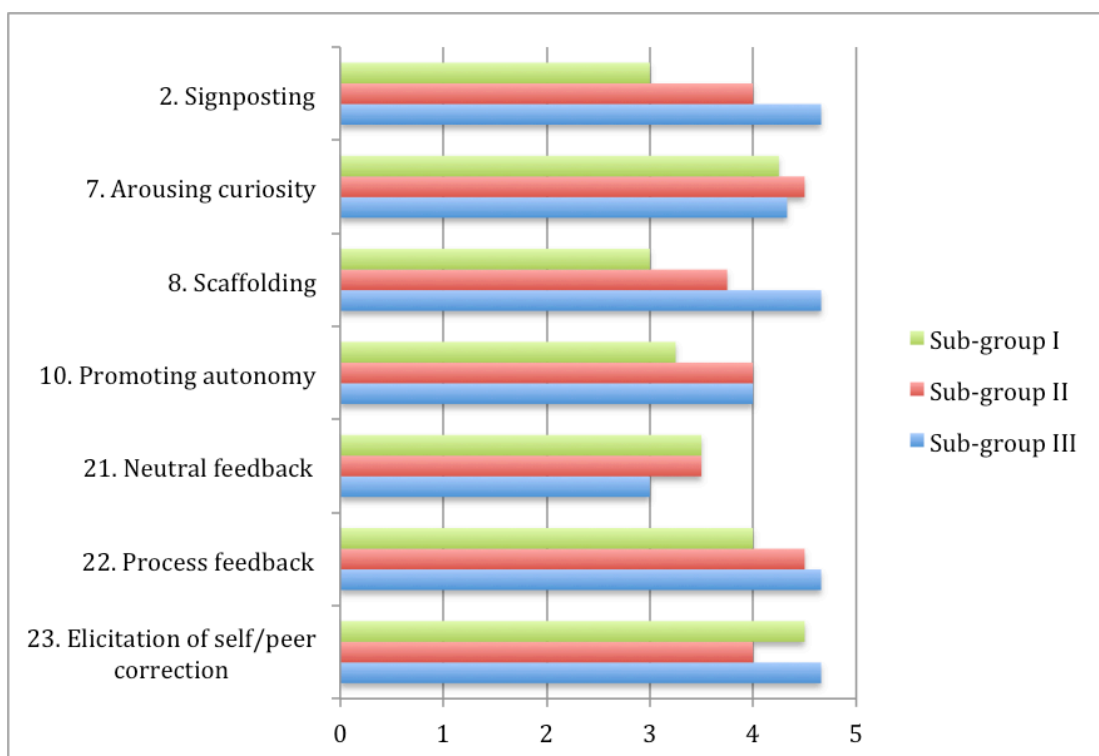


justification for each activity before conducting them; while young teachers just organize activities with hardly any explanation of the practical purpose. This can be attributed to their lack of understanding and awareness of how knowing about the future effectiveness can affect students' motivated performance. Teacher C shared that she puts authenticity on extremely high value, and always spends a lot of time thinking of an authentic context that is related to real-life situation for each activity before explaining its purpose and let her students do it, because this will significantly enhance students' interest and hence engagement in the activity. This understanding is something young teachers are yet to be able to get a hold of.

On another note, all three sub-groups do not offer *tangible rewards* to students on a regular basis, although younger teachers have higher tendency to do so. They commented that this kind of extrinsic motivation is not always of effect if abused frequently.

#### **4.1.4. Motivational strategies derived from Self Determination Theory**

The theory of Self Determination takes into consideration the relationship between students' intrinsic motivation and the motivational aspect of teachers' communication style. It is indicated that the more students perceive their L2 teachers as controlling (e.g. using threats, imposing goals and deadlines, making them work under reward conditions) and as failing to provide informative feedback, the less they were intrinsically motivated. Also, motivation is regarded as a product of autonomy.



**Chart 5 – Groups of strategies derived from Self Determination Theory**

There is a tendency among junior and senior teachers alike to try to *arouse students' curiosity* before each activity, and also *elicit self/peer correction* in the evaluation part. Their mean scores do not exhibit a significant difference in the chart. From the researcher's observation of several classrooms, the observed teachers were always asking questions in order to arouse students' curiosity and attention to the activity. It has also become a norm that they ask class members for any correction and comments on their classmate's performance before giving out comments themselves. This indicates that teachers are well aware and equipped with these two basic motivational strategies.

As for *signposting* (stating the lesson objectives explicitly or giving retrospective summaries of progress already made toward realizing the objectives) and *scaffolding* (providing appropriate strategies/

models to help students complete an activity successfully), it can easily be seen from the chart that teachers from sub-group III and II use them with much higher frequency than those from the younger generation. The classroom observational data shares the same implication. The researcher noticed that in teacher C's class, the teacher often thinks aloud while demonstrating, reminds students of previous knowledge/ skills that will help them complete the activity or has the class brainstorm a list of strategies to carry out the activity. Teacher C and other teachers from sub-group III applied these two strategies with mastery, thanks to the fact that they have a considerable amount of experience accumulated after more than five years teaching. Teacher C also shared that the reason why younger teachers still have difficulties applying signposting and scaffolding is that they lack a comprehensive view of the whole lesson as well as their students. As a result, sometimes minor details like the need to state the lesson objectives or strategies involved in an activity so as to give students a clear picture of what needs to be done tend to be overlooked. Most of the time, students are left in confusion, not knowing what to do and how to do it. This were also visible during the observation that the researcher carried out in teacher F's (a young teacher who just graduated last year and has less than one year experience) lesson. It took time then, since the students would have a lot of questions before they could carry out the activity, and the answer that the teacher provided still were not comprehensible and systematic enough.

Other two strategies that are used more frequently by senior teachers are *promoting autonomy* (offering students a choice of activities, involving them in making decisions) and *process feedback* (focusing on what can be learned from the mistakes that have been made, and from the process of producing the correct answer). All three teachers interviewed

made it known that they do try to involve their students in making decisions regarding the timing of an activity, having them use the Internet and other resources to do research for their case studies, oral presentations, projects and displays. Also, they all keep in mind to give feedback on students' mistakes so that they can learn from the mistakes. However, these two strategies are reported to be more popular among teachers of certain seniority. If teachers from sub-group I use promoting autonomy at the level just a little more than "sometimes" (mean score just over 3) teachers with more than five years experience apply them more often than "usually" (mean score over 4).

#### **4.2. Pedagogical implications**

The results from the questionnaire and observation come in accordance with each other, thus they yield similar pedagogical implications for educators.

The most obvious implication from the survey and observational data would be that although young teachers have tried their best to vary the use of motivational strategies, they still have a long way to go until they can master them all. The main reasons include their lack of experience in dealing with large classes of students, hence the inability to tell which strategies work best in which situation. There is, consequently, a need to equip young teachers of speaking for second year students at ULIS in particular and teachers of English in general with a comprehensive index of motivational strategies to apply in their

classrooms, and also ample time for them to experiment all the strategies for best effects.

Besides, although each strategy may prove itself in different contexts, to different types of learners and by teachers with different teaching experience, there are still some common conclusions we can draw from this research that teachers in general can base on to create a motivating classroom. For examples, it emerged from the survey results that for whichever group of teachers, team competition, effective praise and arousing curiosity are among the most popular and supposedly most favored for their effectiveness in motivating students to engage themselves in class activities. On the other hand, there are several strategies recommended by senior teachers to be of considerable effects like *establishing relevance*, *promoting integrative and instrumental value*, *signposting* and *scaffolding*. These strategies still seem foreign to junior teachers as they report little use of them. However, since they are attested by teachers with more than five years experience, young teachers may also want to consider experimenting them in their lessons for better motivating effects.

On the whole, though advices and recommendations from the seniors are not always applicable under any circumstances, it is still worth taking into consideration. Following their seniors' footsteps, young teachers should always keep experimenting various motivational strategies and keep training themselves in the process of applying motivational teaching practice in their classes.

## **Summary**

*To sum up, this chapter has provided detailed answers to the two research questions based on a thorough analysis and discussion of the collected data. The differences in the use of motivational strategies among different groups of teachers with different teaching experience has been pinpointed, together with the behavioral explanations scrutinized from in-depth interviews with the participated teachers. These have also laid the foundation for a number of pedagogical implications.*

## CHAPTER 5

# CONCLUSION

This final chapter will summarize and evaluate the outcomes of the whole paper by summing up the major findings, and more importantly, putting forward some implications for the better exploitation of motivational techniques. Finally, the limitations of the research will be pointed out, paving way to several recommendations for further researches.

### 5.1. Conclusion

On a whole, this research has looked into the use of motivational strategies among teachers of second year mainstream students, ULIS-VNU, in correlation with their teaching experience. Three different sub-groups of teachers were subject to the research; and from this, the researcher has been able to compare and contrast their motivational teaching practice as well as draw out the underlying reasons for the differences.

First, the study managed to identify the similarities in the use of motivational strategies among Speaking teachers in Division II, ULIS-VNU regardless of teaching experience, such as *effective praise, class applause, referential questions, promoting cooperation, inconsistent pair/group work, arousing students' curiosity and eliciting self/ peer correction.*

On the other hand, regarding the motivational strategies derived from goal content perspective, young teachers seem more comfortable

with having *social chat* with students since they are closer in age and thus easier to share; while senior teachers with their accumulated teaching sensitivity are masters of *establishing relevance* and make the content of the lesson more approachable for students.

In terms of the construct of “interest,” with their energetic nature and dynamism, newly graduated teachers often exploited activities involving *individual or team competition*. Meanwhile, teachers with more experience tend to keep a low profile and offer students with meaningful and challenging activities that nurture and promote their intrinsic motivation as well as address their individual interests, such as *promoting integrative value, personalization, element of interest, creativity and fantasy, and intellectual challenge*. These strategies would not become boring soon, and indeed are more effective in maintaining long-term interest in students.

Among the strategies derived from a Future Time Perspective, young teachers clearly demonstrate a lack of understanding of how knowing about the future effectiveness would affect students’ motivated performance. As a result, they do not employ strategies such as *stating communicative purpose* or *promoting instrumental value* at a regular basis, unlike their seniors.

Finally, among the strategies derived from Self Determination Theory, *signposting* and *scaffolding* prove to be of great effect by experienced teachers in their classes; yet young teachers seem not paying enough attention to them due to the lack of a comprehensive view of the structure of the whole lessons as well as their students.

Based on the results of the study, some pedagogical implications were also drawn for young teachers to take into consideration. Because they are still lacking in many aspects, there is more need for them to



equip themselves with a comprehensive index of motivational strategies, as well as chances to experiment themselves.

## **5.2. Limitations of the study**

Despite the researchers' efforts, certain limitations can still be found within the study due to time constraints and the lack of resources.

In the first place, the research merely looks at the motivational strategies that teachers use in class from their own perception. It should also be noted that teachers' application of motivational strategies also depends on several external factors like students' characteristics and students' self-regulated motivation. Also, time constraint does not allow the researcher to have a long-term observation in each class for each teacher. One-time observation cannot fully reflect each teacher's motivational teaching practice. All the things mentioned above reduce the level of generalization of the results.

Secondly, available resources do not allow video-taping and the observation was merely based on what the researcher can recognize at the time. Therefore, the results cannot be as accurate as it might be in the case where reviewing is possible.

Thirdly, the researcher only sought the behavioral explanation for the discrepancies among different sub-groups of teachers through in-depth interviews with them, so the answer may be objective and not general enough. It would be better if several sources of reference can be combined for more comprehensive reasons.

Fourthly, the research merely analyzes the difference in the use of motivational strategies among teachers of different experience groups and

attempts to explain the difference based on the opinions of the subject teachers. However, no actual and visible lessons were drawn for young teachers to learn from.

### **5.3. Recommendations for further research**

Given the limitations of the research, some implications for further research can be drawn. First, a longitudinal research should be done so that changes in students' motivated learning behaviors can be observed and the influence of teachers' motivational practice can be reviewed more accurately.

Second, interested researchers can also look at the relationship between in-class instructions and the use of motivational strategies by teachers since these two factors can both affect the students' learning behaviors. Another possible direction for research of the same issue is the teachability of motivational strategies. So far, no action research has been conducted in the context FELTE, ULIS to look at how teachers acquire the motivational strategies that they currently use in their class. It is worthy to investigate whether or not and how the teacher trainees in FELTE, ULIS are raised awareness and taught about motivational strategies during their course. Or to be more specifically, a case study can be carried out under the form of an action research in order to acquire in-depth information into the effectiveness and the actual application of these motivational strategies.

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# APPENDIX 1 – QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear teacher,

My name is Nguyễn Thị Liên Hương from the class 07.1.E1 at FELTE, ULIS. I am conducting a research for my thesis paper on “**Teachers’ use of motivational strategies in speaking classes for second year mainstream ELT students at FELTE-ULIS in correlation with teaching experience,**” so I would very much appreciate your help to complete this questionnaire. All of your opinions will be kept strictly confidential. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your contribution.

Should you have any question regarding the content of the questionnaire, please contact me at [aya.lienhuong@gmail.com](mailto:aya.lienhuong@gmail.com) or 0983 054 339.

1. Your name: \_\_\_\_\_  
Years you have been teaching speaking skills to second year mainstream students at FELTE, ULIS: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Please **check the box** that best reflects your **frequency** of using motivational strategies in your **speaking lessons**.

*1= never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5= usually*

<b>MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES</b>	<b>Frequency of use</b>				
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b><i>Teacher Discourse</i></b>					
1. Having informal & humorous chats in English with Ss unrelated to the lesson					
2. Stating the objectives of the lessons clearly at the beginning					
3. Giving summaries of the progress made during the lesson					
4. Mentioning communicative purposes and usefulness outside classroom while presenting an activity					
5. Connecting what needs to be learned to Ss’ everyday lives (e.g. giving interesting examples, linking to Ss’ personal experience or hobbies)					
6. Promoting contact with other L2 speakers and cultural products					
7. Encouraging Ss to explore L2 culture and community					
8. Highlighting the role of L2 in the world and its potential usefulness for Ss themselves as well as the community					
9. Arousing curiosity or attention during the instruction of an activity (e.g. asking them to guess what to do next, or pointing out fun, challenging or important aspects of the activity)					
10. Scaffolding: Providing strategies/models to help Ss complete a task (e.g. brainstorming ideas, reminding previously learned knowledge)					
11. Setting up cooperative learning activities or encouraging Ss to help each other					
12. Offering Ss to choose their own activities, involving them in making					

decisions, having them use the Internet or do research (e.g. for oral presentations, projects, and displays)					
13. Asking questions to which the teacher does not know the answer, including those about Ss' lives					

***Participation structure***

14. Assigning inconsistent group work/ pair work					
15. Assigning fixed group work/ pair work					

***Activity Design***

16. Offering Ss touchable rewards (e.g. candies, stickers) for excelling in an activity					
17. Creating opportunities for Ss to express personal meanings (e.g. experiences, feelings, opinions)					
18. Providing activities connecting with Ss' interests, values, creativity and fantasy					
19. Designing activities presenting intellectual challenge (e.g. memory games, puzzles, crosswords or hidden information game)					
20. Getting Ss to work on the production of a tangible outcome (e.g. a poster, a brochure)					
21. Using individual competition					
22. Using team competition					

***Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation***

23. Neutral feedback: going over the answers of an exercise/ a question with the class without any expression of irritation or personal criticism					
24. Process feedback: focusing what can be learned from mistakes and the process of finding the correct answer					
25. Encouraging Ss to correct their own mistakes, revise their own work or correct their peers' work					
26. Offering sincere and specific praise that is appropriate with Ss' effort and/or achievement					
27. Having a class applause to celebrating Ss' good work					

*(The list is adapted from "Motivational strategies in language classroom," Dornyei, 2001)*

***Thank you for your cooperation!***



## APPENDIX 2 – OBSERVATION SCHEME

Teacher's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Years he/she has been teaching speaking skills to second year mainstream students at FELTE,

ULIS: \_\_\_\_\_

Duration of the observation: \_\_\_\_\_

<b>MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES</b>	<b>Frequency of use</b>
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### *Teacher Discourse*

1. Having informal & humorous chats in English with Ss unrelated to the lesson	
2. Stating the objectives of the lessons clearly at the beginning	
3. Giving summaries of the progress made during the lesson	
4. Mentioning communicative purposes and usefulness outside classroom while presenting an activity	
5. Connecting what needs to be learned to Ss' everyday lives (e.g. giving interesting examples, linking to Ss' personal experience or hobbies)	
6. Promoting contact with other L2 speakers and cultural products	
7. Encouraging Ss to explore L2 culture and community	
8. Highlighting the role of L2 in the world and its potential usefulness for Ss themselves as well as the community	
9. Arousing curiosity or attention during the instruction of an activity (e.g. asking them to guess what to do next, or pointing out fun, challenging or important aspects of the activity)	
10. Scaffolding: Providing strategies/models to help Ss complete a task (e.g. brainstorming ideas, reminding previously learned knowledge)	
11. Setting up cooperative learning activities or encouraging Ss to help each other	
12. Offering Ss to choose their own activities, involving them in making decisions, having them use the Internet or do research (e.g. for oral presentations, projects, and displays)	
13. Asking questions to which the teacher does not know the answer, including those about Ss' lives	

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***Participation structure***

14. Assigning inconsistent group work/ pair work	
15. Assigning fixed group work/ pair work	

***Activity Design***

16. Offering Ss touchable rewards (e.g. candies, stickers) for excelling in an activity	
17. Creating opportunities for Ss to express personal meanings (e.g. experiences, feelings, opinions)	
18. Providing activities connecting with Ss' interests, values, creativity and fantasy	
19. Designing activities presenting intellectual challenge (e.g. memory games, puzzles, crosswords or hidden information game)	
20. Getting Ss to work on the production of a tangible outcome (e.g. a poster, a brochure)	
21. Using individual competition	
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***Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation***

23. Neutral feedback: going over the answers of an exercise/ a question with the class without any expression of irritation or personal criticism	
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25. Encouraging Ss to correct their own mistakes, revise their own work or correct their peers' work	
26. Offering sincere and specific praise that is appropriate with Ss' effort and/or achievement	
27. Having a class applause to celebrating Ss' good work	