Høgskulen på Vestlandet

Masteroppgave

M120UND509

Predefinert informasjon

Startdato:	06-05-2017 09:00	**Termin:**	2017 VÅR
Sluttdato:	15-05-2017 14:00	**Vurderingsform:**	Norsk 6-trinnsskala (A-F)
Eksamensform:	Masteroppgave	**Studiepoeng:**	45
SIS-kode:	M120UND509 1 MG		
Intern sensor:	(Anonymisert)		

Deltaker

Kandidatnr.: 722

Informasjon fra deltaker

Tro- og loverklæring *: Ja

Jeg godkjenner avtalen om tilgjengeliggjøring av masteroppgaven min *: Ja

Western Norway University of Applied Sciences

MASTERS' THESIS

Language Teacher Cognition and L2 Motivation:

A study investigating the cognitions and motivational practice

of some Norwegian EFL teachers

Språklæreres kognisjoner og motivasjon for språklæring:

En undersøkelse om et utvalg norske engelsklæreres

kognisjoner og motivasjonspraksis

Carina Mæland Helle

Abstract

This study examines Norwegian EFL teachers' beliefs and knowledge about L2 motivation and their reported motivational practice. With the help of 4 interviews, some EFL teachers' beliefs and knowledge about L2 motivation were explored. By distributing a questionnaire to 41 EFL teachers' from different locations in Norway, the research project aimed to reveal which motivational strategies were most frequently employed by the participating teachers. The motivational strategies examined were based on Dörnyei's framework for motivational strategies (2001). The study did not include an investigation of the EFL teachers' actual practice, meaning that it represents the teachers' stated use of motivational strategies.

Findings of this study showed that the teachers traced their knowledge of how to motivate back to experience and teacher education. It also revealed that this group acknowledged the importance of motivation and its contribution to language learning. Among motivational strategies that were most frequently applied according to the teachers were *appropriate teacher behaviours, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* and *making the teaching materials relevant for the learners*. The study notes that since the teachers' actual motivational practices were not studied, it is possible that that the teachers' stated use of motivational practices reflect their beliefs more than their practice. Furthermore, findings suggested that contextual constraints such as large classes could inhibit the teachers' in transferring their beliefs and knowledge to classroom practice.

Sammendrag

Dette forskningsprosjektet undersøkte norske engelsklæreres tanker og kunnskap om motivasjon for språklæring og deres motivasjonspraksis. Ved å bruk av intervju har 4 engelsklæreres tanker og kunnskaper om motivasjon til språklæring blitt undersøkt. I tillegg ble det sendt ut et spørreskjema til 41 engelsklærere ved ulike grunnskoler i Norge. Hensikten med spørreundersøkelsen var å finne ut hvilke strategier lærerne mente de brukte for å motivere sine elever til språklæring. Spørreskjemaet var basert på et rammeverk for motivasjonsstrategier utviklet av Dörnyei (2001). Lærernes faktiske motivasjonspraksis ble ikke undersøkt i denne studien, kun deres meddelte bruk av motivasjonsstrategiene.

Funnene i denne studien viser at lærerne krediterer sin kunnskap om hvordan man motiverer elever til erfaring og utdanning. Videre viser funnene at lærerne mener motivasjon er viktig for språklæring. De metodene som så ut til å bli mest brukt i følge lærerne i denne studien var strategier som omhandlet lærerens egen oppførsel i klasserommet, skapelse av et trygt og godt klassemiljø og å gjøre lærematerialet relevant for elevene. Denne studien påpeker også muligheten for at lærernes meddelte bruk av motivasjonsstrategier reflekterer deres tanker og meninger i større grad enn faktisk praksis. I tillegg kan det virke som at kontekstuelle faktorer som for eksempel store klasser kunne hindre lærernes i realisere sine tanker og kunnskaper i sin praksis.

Acknowledgements

One of the greatest journeys of my life is at an end, and I almost cannot believe that I am at the finish line. I feel like Rocky on the steps. Never in my wildest dreams did I think that writing a master's thesis would challenge me to the extent that it has. There were times I did not believe I would make it. There were times I almost lost faith in my project. There were days I felt that I was way in over my head. But I pushed through, and I learned so much more than I thought I would. I am very grateful to the Western Norway University for the opportunity write an MA thesis, for this possibility to learn and grow. Though I doubt I would have managed had it not been for the love and support from my wonderful family, friends and boyfriend. So this one goes out to you. You are the reason I kept sane and kept on writing.

I would like to give special thanks to my father, who always set aside time to read through my work and was available to listen to me and to help me whenever I needed. Our discussions have led me to moments of eureka time and time again. To my mother, who helped me to look at the process right, to take a step back from it and to see that it would all work out in the end. Thank you for believing in me. And my sister, I know you will always be there for me.

I would like to give a very special thanks to the greatest boyfriend, Øyvind. You have gone above and beyond for me. Your words of encouragement, loving support, and the way you always make me smile have transformed every bad day at the office to the most beautiful day ever.

And thank you, my wonderful roommate, Synne, who had to deal with my grumpy moods and dirty laundry, but still kept cheering me on. You rock!

Thank you to the greatest, most empowering group of women I have ever had the pleasure of calling my friends: Hilde, Karoline, Ida, and Lene. We were all in this together, and without you, I never would have made it. You raised me up. You kept me strong, so I never let up. You kept my head up.

The final thanks go to the person who has provided me with invaluable help and guidance. Words cannot begin to express the gratitude I feel to the greatest supervisor ever, Kristian Andersen Rusten. It has been an honour to pick your brilliant brain.

To those of you who have not been named, I am eternally grateful for all the loving gestures, however great and small. Your love and support amaze me. Thank you.

And with that, I only have two more words to say: Carina out.

[mic drop]

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

Chapter 1

Introduction

This MA thesis is an investigation of language teachers' cognitions regarding their reported motivational practice in the Norwegian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context. A recent Norwegian newspaper article (Svarstad, 2015) discusses the high dropout rate among Norwegian teenage students. Some research studies suggest low motivation could be one of the root causes for low upper secondary graduation numbers (see references in section 1.1). Should this be right then more empirical evidence is needed to shed light on how teachers motivate their students in general.

This paper examines, in particular, language teachers' knowledge and beliefs about how to motivate students for language learning and how the teachers report to motivate their students. The purpose of this chapter is to first present the relevance (section 1.1) and then the aim and scope of the present study (section 1.2). In section 1.3 the methodological approach of the study is addressed, and section (1.4) gives an overview of the organisation of the thesis.

1.1 Relevance of the present study

In the past two decades, there has been a significant increase in research on language teacher cognition (Borg, 2015: 1). This surge of interest can be explained by the recognition that teachers' knowledge and beliefs have a strong influence on their practice, and thus research on teachers' cognitions is central to the process of understanding teaching (Borg, 2015: 1). Findings from studies investigating the relationship between cognitions and practice show that that the two influence each other, though stated beliefs and actual practice may not always be in congruence (e.g. Phipps, 2009). Moreover, studies show that if teachers' prior beliefs and knowledge is not made explicit, discussed and challenged, it is unlikely that education or research will affect language teachers' cognitions (e.g. Borg 2005; Phipps, 2009).

According to Borg (2015: 322) language teacher cognition has been dominated by research conducted in the USA, although some studies have also been done in Hong Kong,

the United Kingdom and Australia. Among the topics that have been researched in relation to specific curricular areas, grammar reading and writing have received the most attention.

In the field of foreign/second language (L2) learning, it is widely acknowledged that motivation is one of the key factors that determine successful L2 acquisition. Because language learning is a lengthy process, L2 motivation is needed to help the learners expend effort and persist in doing so. It is believed that "without sufficient motivation […] even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any useful language" (Dörnyei, 2001: 5). Due to its great importance, L2 motivation has been subject to a lot of research, investigating its complex nature and how it affects the L2 learning process.

Students' lack of motivation is a major concern for teachers in contexts worldwide (Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Ushioda, 2011), the Norwegian contexts included (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2009). Since the 1990s, several L2 scholars have shown interest in designing and summarising motivational techniques to be applied in the classroom (e.g. Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001; Williams & Burden, 1997). Their aim has been to help teachers find ways to elicit, enhance and sustain student motivation (Guilloteaux, 2013). Research is needed, however, to empirically test whether the motivational strategies are transferable to other cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts.

According to Dörnyei & Csizér (1998: 207): "skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness". To the best of my knowledge, no studies have been conducted in the Norwegian context focusing on language teacher cognition and L2 motivation. While teachers' perceptions and beliefs in relation to L2 motivation have been studied in L2 motivation research, few studies have looked into the field from the perspective of language teacher cognition.

In the Norwegian context, research shows that student motivation declines from 4th grade and is at its lowest in 10th grade (e.g. Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).[1] Studies show that the decline in motivation is a global phenomenon (e.g. Wigfield, Eccles, Schiefele, Roeser & Davis-Kean, 2006). Stornes, Tvedt & Bru (2013) state that because motivation is essential for learning, the decline in motivation must be viewed as a significant challenge in Norwegian schools. 29% of the Norwegian students who started year 1 at the upper secondary school in 2009 did not complete or did not pass in a course after 5 years (Steffensen, 2016). Markussen, a researcher at Nordic institute for Studies of Innovation, Research and Education [NIFU] has shown a particular interest in drop out in upper secondary education. In an interview with

---

[1] It is important to state that the study was not directed at a particular subject, but at schoolwork in general.

Aftenposten Markussen claimed that lack of motivation was among the underlying reasons for this (Svarstad, 2015). He also stated that the Norwegian schools were not able to generate students' involvement for school. The drop out rate in upper secondary school is relevant for this MA thesis, because according to Markussen, measures for decreasing the number of the learners that drop out must be implemented in kindergarten, primary school and lower secondary school (Svarstad, 2015).

The Norwegian government has, in relation to addressing student motivation in lower secondary school, highlighted the importance of having competent teachers (Ministry of Education and Research, 2011: 15). They stressed that the teachers' competence was crucial in order to present activities that promoted learning for all students. In the Norwegian context, figures from Statistics Norway shows that four in ten English teachers in primary and lower secondary schools are not sufficiently educated to teach English (Ministry of Education and Research, 2016). Therefore, the government has implemented regulations requiring that all teachers who finish their education after 1 January 2014 will need at least 30 credits in mathematics, English and Norwegian in order to teach these subjects at primary school. For teachers on the secondary level, the minimum will be increased to 60 credits.

However, as already mentioned, there is no guarantee that more education will affect the teachers' cognitions; hence it might not change the teachers' practice. Thus, investigating the existing cognitions of teachers regarding motivation and motivational practice might yield information about the teachers' knowledge of and skills in motivating students. This could contribute to the creation of measures, which could increase student motivation in the Norwegian context and ultimately improve the number of students who complete upper secondary education. To narrow the scope of the present study, the research project will focus on L2 motivation and the cognitions and motivational practices of language teachers.

1.2 Aim and scope of the present study

As already mentioned, the aim of this thesis is to contribute to our understanding of Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions about L2 motivation and their motivational practice. This study seeks to investigate the teachers' knowledge and beliefs of motivational strategies; paying attention to where they acquired their knowledge.

Questions regarding teachers' knowledge, from where the knowledge is gained and accumulated and the relationship between this knowledge and teachers' practice has occupied researchers within the field of language teacher cognition for many years. As previously mentioned, in the field of language teacher cognition it is acknowledged that what a teacher

thinks, knows and believe affects what the teacher does in the classroom. Because of this, this study will also attempt to learn more of which motivational strategies the language teachers report to employ. These aims are further discussed in the research questions below.

Research questions:

1. What are the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation?

    i. What are the main sources of the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation?

2. Which motivational strategies do the Norwegian EFL teachers report to most frequently employ?

Research question 1 facilitates examination of the Norwegian language teachers' cognitions about L2 motivation in terms of how they define and perceive motivation and the extent to which the teachers believe they are able to motivate their learners. Thus, the aim of this research question is to examine the teachers' understandings of motivation, whether they think they have the skills to motivate learners and if the teachers wish to learn more about how to motivate learners. In addition, research question 1 seeks to identify the main sources of the teachers' knowledge of how to motivate learners for foreign language learning.

Research question 2 investigates which motivational strategies the EFL teachers make use of. The present study does not examine the teachers' actual practice, thus the findings can only illustrate the teachers' reported practice. In addition to examining the motivational practice of the Norwegian EFL teachers, the research results will be compared to findings of other studies investigating language teachers' use of motivational strategies.

1.3 Methodological approach

The present study has made use of both quantitative and qualitative methods, thus applying a mixed-methods approach. A questionnaire was utilised in order to gather information about 41 Norwegian EFL teachers' frequent use of a set of motivational strategies. The motivational strategies presented in the questionnaire were based on Dörnyei's motivational framework (2001) (see section 2.3.1). In addition, the questionnaire gathered information about the perceived skills in motivating language learners; desire to learn more about motivational strategies and factors influencing the development of their knowledge about motivational practice.

All items in the questionnaire were presented using a Likert scale. For the motivational strategies, the teachers rated on a five-point scale ("not part of my teaching" –> "very often") how frequently they made use of each strategy. The items concerning the teachers' motivational skill-set, their desire to learn more motivational strategies and the accumulation of their knowledge on the subject were presented to teachers in a series of statements. Their level of agreement was rated on a four-point scale ("strongly disagree -> "strongly agree").

However, the survey was not purely quantitative, as it also contained qualitative elements. The items presenting strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001) provided the participants with the opportunity to leave a comment, explaining how they made use of a strategy.

The qualitative component of the research project consisted of four semi-structured interviews. The interviewed participants had first responded to the questionnaire. The interviews were centred on five themes, namely, beliefs, thoughts, knowledge and practice.

1.4 Structure of thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters in total. Chapter 2 provides the theoretical background. This chapter comprises four sections dealing with motivation and language acquisition (section 2.2), motivational practice in the language classroom (section 2.3), teachers' beliefs and knowledge (section 2.4) and teacher cognition and L2 motivation (section 2.5). Chapter 3 presents the research design and limitations of the study. The findings will be presented and discussed with reference to theory and previous research in chapter 4. The final chapter is the conclusion. This chapter will discuss implications of the findings and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2

Theoretical background

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will cover the theoretical framework of the thesis. Section 2.2 defines the term motivation and addresses the relationship between motivation and language acquisition. The main aim of the theory chapter is to present the motivational strategies that form the basis of the research carried out in this study. Dörnyei's (2001) framework for motivational strategies is introduced in section 2.3.1. In section 2.4 language teacher cognition is presented. This section elaborates on the definition of *knowledge* and *belief* used in the present study (section 2.4.1) and gives an explanation of how teachers' knowledge and beliefs are formed (section 2.4.2). Section 2.4.3 explains how teachers' cognitions influence teaching practice. In the final section previous research about language teacher cognition and L2 motivation is presented (section 2.5). Section 2.6 concludes the chapter.

2.2 Motivation and language acquisition

Research indicates that there are several factors that could heavily influence the degree of success in language learning. Such factors include e.g. language aptitude, language learning motivation and learning strategies, and so called "individual differences" (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Among these, motivation has been well studied and is seen to be a key factor that determines the success of L2 acquisition (Dörnyei, 2001: 5). Dörnyei & Ryan (2015: 72) explain why motivation is so important for language acquisition in the following:

> [Motivation] provides the impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long, often tedious learning process; indeed, all other factors involved in SLA presuppose motivation to some extent. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula or good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one's language aptitude and learning conditions.

This section will first provide a working definition of the concept of "motivation" before presenting ways for how the teacher can influence and shape the students' motivation in a positive manner in the classroom.

2.2.1 Definition of motivation

Motivation is a way of describing human behaviour in terms of why people decide to do something, how much effort they are prepared to expend and for how long they are willing to sustain an activity (Dörnyei, 2001: 7). In a classroom context, one can describe student motivation as "the degree to which students invest attention and effort in various pursuits" (Brophy, 2010: 3).

The concept of motivation is complex and made up of many facets, a fact which is apparent when reading the many theories of motivation developed by previous research. The motivational theories that have been developed tend to be a product of reductionism, where scholars attempt to identity "the most-important motives" among the many potential determinants for human behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001: 9). As a result, motivational theories tend to represent one theoretical perspective anchored around a small number of motivational factors. Ultimately, standing alone, the motivational theories available do not provide a full picture of what motivation is and do therefore not lend themselves to classroom application if not combined with other theories.

According to Scheidecker and Freeman (1999: 117), the problem with motivation is that everyone seeks a simple answer. Teachers look for the one pedagogy that will result in motivated and engage students. However, looking upon the matter realistically, motivating students will never be simple process. For this reason, Dörnyei (2001: 13) states that in order to motivate students, the teachers must draw on strategies from a multitude of motivational theories. Nevertheless, the definitions of Dörnyei (2001) and Brophy (2010) will be adopted as working definitions here.

2.3 Motivational practices in the language classroom

Until the last two decades, most research on motivation in both educational psychology and in SLA has been focused on understanding the construct of motivation and how it might relate to learning and teaching. At least since the 1990s, there has been an increasing interest in researching how to transform the theoretical knowledge into practical strategies that can be applied in the classroom, both in educational psychology (e.g. Alderman, 2007: Brophy,

2010; McCombs & Pope, 1994; Raffini, 1993; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2014) and in SLA (e.g. Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei, 1994; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Williams & Burden, 1997).

In SLA, motivational strategies are conceived of as the techniques EFL teachers use to promote and maintain the learners' motivation to learn English or some other foreign language (Alshehri, 2013: 67). Dörnyei (2001: 28) defines motivational strategies as "those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect". It is from this definition implied that the teacher can affect the learners' motivation by applying motivational strategies.

Researchers have proposed frameworks for L2 motivation, presenting several motivational strategies that can be implemented in the classroom (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). These frameworks (Dörnyei, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997) view L2 motivation as multidimensional and highlight that motivation is affected by individuality. Dörnyei (1994: 280) remarks that the strategies proposed might not work for all teachers or with all learning groups, while Williams & Burden (1997: 121) state that "an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences". The frameworks draw on the theories of motivation in educational psychology and early L2 motivation research, in effect closing the gap between the two fields (Dörnyei, 2001: 17).

The present study draws substantially from a motivational framework of L2 motivational strategies formulated by Dörnyei (2001), which has been specifically developed for educational purposes and is regarded as more comprehensive than other approaches (Dörnyei, 2001: 28). The significance of this motivational framework, compared to frameworks proposed earlier (Dörnyei, 1994; William & Burdens, 1997) is that it is based on the process-oriented model presented by Dörnyei & Ottó (1998). Furthermore, the motivational strategies presented in the framework (2001) draw on approaches from a variety of motivational theories e.g. *Expectancy-value theory* (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995), *Attribution theory* (Weiner, 1992), and *Self-determination theory* (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The significant aspect with Dörnyei and Ottó's model is its attempt to show how motivation changes over time (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998: 1). Including a time dimension in a motivation model intended to be applied to school learning is useful and important, because according to Dörnyei (2001: 19), students' motivation fluctuates. During a process such as learning an L2, motivation cannot be viewed as a stable construct that remains constant for several months and years. Various factors can cause fluctuation, such as phases in the school year or a specific topic or learning activity that the students encounter (Dörnyei, 2001: 19).

The process-oriented model (1998) contains two dimensions: *Action Sequence* and *Motivational Influences*. The *Action Sequence* represents three phases that make up motivation: the *pre-actional phase,* the *actional phase* and the *post-actional phase* (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998: 47). The phases represent the generation of motivation to execute an activity (i.e. the pre-actional phase), the maintaining of motivation while executing the activity (i.e. the actional phase) and the evaluation of how things went (i.e. the post-actional phase) (Dörnyei, 2001: 21). The *Motivational Influences* dimension includes motives that affect the learners' behaviour and thinking during the phases. The phases include a variety of motives, which all draw on well-known concepts from different motivational theories (Dörnyei, 2001: 21).

There are some limitations to the process-oriented model (1998). According to Dörnyei (2005, cited in Alshehri 2013: 57) the model defines stages in a process with a clear beginning and ending, suggesting that if one of the elements were not present, the model would not work in terms of student motivation. If this were the case, it would mean that if students were not motivated in the pre-actional phase, no other experiences in the classroom would inspire or motivate them later in the learning process. However, the motivational framework Dörnyei (2001) later developed based on this model proposes several motivational strategies that the teacher can employ at any point, contradicting the implication that a student cannot be motivated in a later phase. The following section (2.3.1) will present Dörnyei's framework (2001) and elaborate on the motivational conditions that are relevant for this study.

2.3.1 Dörnyei's framework for motivational strategies

McCombs & Pope (1994: vii) claims that all students can be motivated to learn under the right conditions, and teachers can provide these conditions in their classroom. The strategies suggested by Dörnyei in this framework (2001) are not presented on the basis of this mind-set. Dörnyei (2001: 25) explain that it is unlikely that a teacher can make every pupil motivated to learn everything. However, with a broad set of motivational tools, it is likely that the teacher can increase the students' motivation to some extent. As Dörnyei (2001: 25) puts it: "The spectrum of (…) motivational strategies is so broad that it is hard to imagine that none of them would work".

The framework, which is presented in Figure 2.1, focuses on four motivational aspects: Creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. Each aspect

involves macro-strategies that are further broken down to over a 100 micro-strategies. The following subsections will introduce the four main components and elaborate on the macro- and micro-strategies relevant for this study.

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

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

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

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

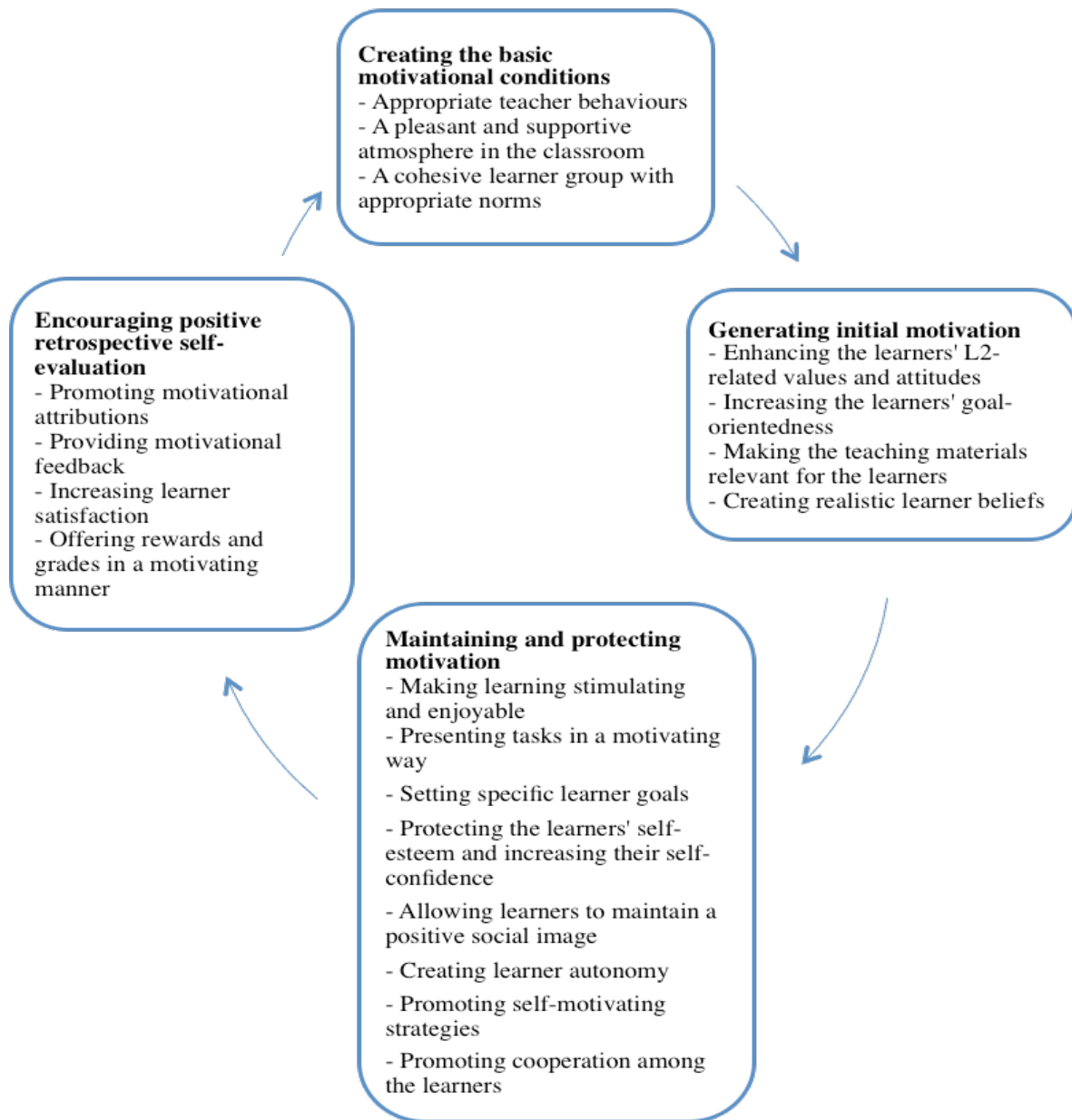**Figure 2.1: The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 2001: 29)**

Creating the basic motivational conditions

The first area of motivational teaching shown in figure 2.1 is creating the basic motivational conditions. According to Dörnyei (2001: 31), no motivational strategy can be employed successfully before the preconditions are in place. He highlights three conditions in particular,

namely *appropriate teacher behaviours, a pleasant and supportive classroom* and *a cohesive learner group with appropriate norms*.

The first condition, *appropriate teacher behaviours*, relates to research showing that the teacher is an effective and important factor in motivating students (e.g. Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Pintrich and Schunk (2002: 311) state that "virtually everything the teacher does has potential motivational impact on students". By demonstrating their enthusiasm for the English subject and sharing the reasons for their interest in the English language, the teachers could influence and affect the students' motivation for learning the language as well (Dörnyei, 2001: 33).

Furthermore, it has proven to be a motivational effect that the teacher shows that he/she cares about the student's learning and for the students as real people (Dörnyei, 2001: 36). Research (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) shows that the teacher's expectations of the students' achievements can influence the students' expectations and their progress through self-fulfilling prophecies, the so-called "Pygmalion effect"[2]. Also, a positive relationship with the learners in which the teacher develops a personal relationship with mutual respect is more likely to inspire learners in academic matters (Dörnyei, 2001: 36). A good rapport with students is a gradual process that is comprised of components such as the teacher's acceptance of the students, the teacher's ability to listen and pay attention to them, and his/her ability for personal contact (Dörnyei, 2001: 37). Wlodkowski (1986) addresses the notion that listening to a person is a remarkable way of conveying that one pays attention:

> … [listening to a person is the] single most powerful transaction that occurs between ourselves and another person that tells that individual that we accept him as a human being … The way we listen tells learners more than anything else how much consideration we are really giving them" (Wlodkowski, 1986: 28).

Several scholars (Anderman & Anderman, 2010; Brophy, 2010; Raffini, 1996) have addressed the issue of how small gestures can go a long way in building a good relationship with the students and influence their motivation. Examples of such gestures are e.g. knowing the students' names, greeting them and showing interest in their lives outside of school.

As previously mentioned, another basic condition for motivation is *to create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom*. This is an important facet of motivation

---

[2]The term "Pygamalion effect" pays homage to the play *Pygmalion* after George Bernard Shaw. The play explores the notion that the way one person treats another can be transforming.

because if the atmosphere is hostile or the learners feel that this is an environment where there is no room for mistakes, they will not feel safe to take risks. In Dörnyei and Czisér's study (1998) where Hungarian teachers of English were asked to identify which motivational techniques they found most valuable and used most frequently, the classroom climate was ranked as the second most important motivational dimension, after teacher behaviour.

Mistakes are parts of the learning process. When producing oral English one has to pay attention to pronunciation, intonation, grammar and content at the same time, and it is easy to make mistakes. Fearing embarrassment or criticism if one should make any mistakes, could hinder a learner from taking risks. Studies on language anxiety show that a tense classroom climate raises students' anxiety, hinders L2 learning achievement and has a negative effect on motivation (MacIntyre, 1999, 2002). Dörnyei (2001: 42) proposes strategies such as establishing a norm of tolerance, which ensures that students will not be embarrassed or criticised if they make a mistake. Other potentially effective strategies are encouraging risk-taking and accepting that mistakes are a natural part of the learning process, humour and encouraging the students to personalise the classroom.

The third basic condition proposed by Dörnyei (2001), *a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms,* speaks to the influential power of a group on its' members' behaviour. While a whole discipline has been dedicated to the study of group dynamics, there are especially two aspects that have direct motivational bearings and that are highlighted in Dörnyei's framework (2001): group cohesiveness and group norms.

Group cohesiveness is defined as the "glue" or "magnetism" that keeps a group together. In a cohesive learner group there is a strong "we" feeling, and the students are happy to belong to it (Dörnyei, 2001: 43). In such a group the students are more likely to influence each other positively in the learning process and to increase the individual member's commitment to learn (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013: 111). Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) propose several factors that the teacher can use to promote group cohesiveness. The general theme appearing in the factors, concerns the group members getting to know each other by, for instance, learning about each other and interacting in pair work and group work. Other strategies focus on the effect of working towards a common goal, like doing a task or completing a project. Studies focusing on cooperation have found that cooperative learning can be quite beneficial for the learning process itself (McGroarty, 1992; Walberg, 1999).

Generating initial motivation

While it is believed that children are naturally curious and have an inherent desire to learn, this does not necessarily mean that they are inherently motivated to participate in every learning activity at school. It is more likely that if the children were allowed to choose freely, academic learning activities would not rank at the top of their list of what they want to do. This notion corresponds with the fact that school is compulsory, and the curriculum reflects what society, not the learners themselves, deem important (Brophy, 2010: 10).

Even if the basic conditions for motivation are in place, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013: 113) imply that the teacher will have to actively try to generate positive student attitudes towards learning. In his framework for motivational strategies, Dörnyei (2001) presents strategies for the teacher to employ such as *enhancing the learners' L2-related values and attitudes* and *making the teaching material relevant for the learners*. The strategies will be elaborated on below.

According to Dörnyei (2001: 51) promoting positive language-related values and attitudes is a strategy that has the potential of generating great motivation for L2 learning. He justifies this claim by stating that a person's value system, which consists of attitudes, beliefs and feelings of the world and who we are in it, to a large extent determines the person's basic preferences and approaches to activities. Thus, Dörnyei (2001: 51) implies that if a student has positive values and attitudes towards language learning, it is more likely that the student expend more effort and persists in the learning process. Dörnyei (2001: 51) presents three value dimensions relevant to motivation and language learning: intrinsic value, integrative value and instrumental value. [3]

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013: 114) define the dimensions as follows: intrinsic value relates to the process of L2 learning and the learner's interest in and anticipated enjoyment of the language learning activity. Integrative value concerns L2 related attitudes, and involves introducing the learners to the cultural background of the L2 in an attempt to encourage a positive and open-minded dispositions towards both the language and its speakers. Instrumental values refers to raising the students awareness of the pragmatic benefits of learning the target language, such as future job opportunities or pursuing leisure activities which require the language.

The next strategy, *making the teaching materials relevant for the learner*, relies on the fact that if learners do not see the subject they are learning as relevant or fail to see the

---

[3] Dörnyei (2001: 51) explains that influencing and changing a person's value system is not necessarily an act that can be easily accomplished through traditional instruction. However, by processes such as exposure to respected models who exhibit said values, persuasive communication and participation in powerful learning experiences, the values can be socialised effectively.

connection between the activity and the world they live in, it is likely that they will not see the point in the activity and fail to be motivated (Chambers, 1999: 37). While a frequent motivational advice to teachers is to customize the curriculum to the learners' interest and make it relevant to them, other factors make this task too time-consuming to manage satisfactorily (Dörnyei, 2001: 63). In schools where much emphasis is placed on achievement standards, there is an increased pressure on teachers to prepare their learners for exams and other standardized tests. A common result is that the teachers narrow the curriculum, teach to the test and rely mostly on the course book (Dörnyei, 2001: 63-64). In the Norwegian context there has been debate on the effect of standardized testing on motivation (Stornes, Tvedt & Bru, 2013). As mentioned in section 1.1, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2011) present findings that Norwegian pupils' motivation for school declines from 4th grade to 10th, and Stornes, Tvedt and Bru (2013) remark with interest that the decline seems to correspond with the increase in testing. If the correlation is accurate, it only supports the claim of how important it is that the teaching material is relevant to the students. To achieve this the general principle is to, according to Dörnyei (2001: 63): "find out what your students' goals are and what topics they want to learn about, then build these into your curriculum as much as possible".

Maintaining and protecting motivation

The intent of Dörnyei's motivational framework (2001) and the process-oriented model (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998) on which it is based, is to recognize motivation as dynamic and fluctuating, something that changes over time. As previously mentioned, even though learners are motivated at one point, they will not remain motivated from then on out. As Wlodkowski (1986: 104) states: "any learning activity can become satiating". The fourth component in Dörnyei's (2001) framework, i.e. maintaining and protecting motivation, reflects this dynamic facet of motivation and suggests strategies to maintain and protect the learners' drive, and one of these strategies entails *making learning stimulating and enjoyable*.

Learning does not have to be tedious or boring, but can be made quite pleasant. If teachers manage to make the learning process more stimulating and enjoyable, it is likely that the learner will stay involved. According to Dörnyei (2001: 72) it is common that teacher practitioners see "motivating" and "interesting" or "fun" as meaning the same thing.

On the one hand, there are certain elements of school and teaching that make it difficult to make learning an enjoyable process. Firstly, the term *enjoyable* has received a bad reputation (Raffini, 1996: 11), because of the belief that learning should be hard work. Furthermore, there is the increasing pressure on teachers to cover the curriculum and to prepare learners for

tests and exams (Dörnyei, 2001; Stornes, Tvedt, & Bru, 2013). In addition, the learners are in an active phase of their lives where sitting motionless for a large portion of the day can be quite difficult for them, due to their physical development (Dörnyei, 2001: 73). Finally, some parts of the learning process will be tedious at one point or another, because the whole curriculum has to be taught and everything cannot be attractive to everyone at all time. As Covington and Teel (1996: 90) put it: "Teachers are not in the entertainment business, and cannot be expected to turn everything into fun".

Dörnyei (2001: 73) suggests that by making the tasks more interesting, the teacher can be successful in making learning more stimulating and enjoyable. He argues that unattractive and boring task will not benefit students' motivation. There are multitudes of ways for the teacher to vary tasks, for instance by presenting tasks that challenge the students. According to Brophy (2010: 215): "the best learning activities are optimally challenging, being neither too easy or too difficult for the learner". Such tasks contribute to motivation if they stimulate the students' interest in pursuing the learning, which is also connected to seeing the value of the learning activity. Furthermore, a task can become more interesting by adapting the content to students' natural interests, personalising learning tasks or altering an activity by introducing a new, different or unfamiliar element to the task (Dörnyei, 2001: 77).

Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence is another strategy highlighted by Dörnyei (2001: 86) in order to maintain student motivation. Schunk, Meece and Pintrich (2014: 211) define self-esteem as "one's perceived sense of self-worth, or whether one accepts and respects oneself", and self-confidence as "the extent to which one believes one can produce results, accomplish goals, or perform tasks competently". The former definition can be linked to Covington's self-worth theory (1992), where self-worth is linked to learning and motivation through the learners' own sense of ability or competence and their need to maintain a sense of personal value and worth in face of competition, failure or negative feedback (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013: 17). The latter is related to Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1997). The results of low self-efficacy will be that the learners focus on their own personal deficiencies and the obstacles when encountering a difficult task, and are more likely to lose faith in their own abilities and give up (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013: 16). Someone with a strong sense self-efficacy will approach a difficult task with confidence and believe that they can accomplish what the situation calls for (Brophy, 2010: 51). Dörnyei (2001: 89) suggests that there are four main strategies the teacher can employ to provide the learners with confidence-building experiences: providing experiences of success, encouraging the learners, reducing language anxiety and teaching learner strategies.

Providing experiences of success can be achieved, for instances, by providing tasks that match the learner's ability – tasks that are not too easy, but demand some effort to succeed. Encouragement is linked to motivational feedback, which will be further elaborated on below. In relation to protecting the learners self-esteem and increasing self-confidence, the focus of encouragement is on the importance of showing learners' that one believes in their effort to learn and their capability to complete the task, as well as drawing the learners' attention to their own strengths and abilities (Dörnyei, 2001: 91).

The importance of a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom was introduced earlier in this section as way of creating the basic conditions for motivation. The strategy is also relevant for reducing language anxiety. In addition, avoiding social comparison, promoting cooperation instead of competition and helping learners to perceive mistakes as a natural and important part of the learning process, are also effective strategies to help diminish language anxiety (Dörnyei, 2001: 94). Finally, by teaching the students learning strategies and communication strategies, the learners will have techniques to employ when encountering certain tasks that make learning more effective. For instances, the techniques could be determining the meaning of a new expression by breaking it down into parts or seeking help from others (Dörnyei, 2001: 95).

Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001: 97) proposes *allowing the learners to maintain a positive social image* as a way of maintaining and protecting the learners' motivation. This strategy acknowledges that school is more than just an educational arena for the students. It is one of their most important social arenas and their peers are their main reference group (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013: 121). Decisions or events in the educational context influences the social lives of the learners, and so, if the learners feel that doing a specific task makes them look small in front of their peers, it will, naturally, strongly affect their motivation negatively (Dörnyei, 2001: 98). It is therefore important to try and combine both the academic and social goals of the learners. Dörnyei (2001: 99-100) suggests that the teacher should try to create "good" roles for the students in activities, so they appear in a favourable light when participating. Furthermore, it is important that the teacher refrain from putting the students in any situations which may result in the learners losing face in front of others, such as giving humiliating criticism or putting them in the spotlight unexpectedly.

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation
The final motivation issue in Dörnyei's framework (2001) concerns the learner's reactions to past accomplishments and is born out of the post-actional phase of Dörnyei and Ottó's

process-oriented model (1998). It is relevant for motivation because the amount of satisfaction the learners experience after successfully completing a task, and what they view as reasons for either succeeding or failing a task, influences how they approach future learning tasks (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013; Williams & Burden, 1997). The following paragraphs addresses the strategy *providing motivational feedback*.

Feedback has been touched upon in several of the strategies presented above (i.e. *protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence*). When presenting the strategy *providing motivational feedback*, the focus here will be on the motivational benefits of "*positive information feedback*" (Raffini, 1993: 147), where the teacher provides comments on the student's progress and competence. Such feedback is meant to "prompt the learner to reflect constructively on areas that need improvement and identify things he/she can do to increase the effectiveness of learning" (Dörnyei, 2001: 123). According to Brophy (2010: 58), such feedback is favoured and preferred by the learners. When providing positive information feedback, Dörnyei (2001: 125) highlights two key issues relating to the effectiveness of the feedback: noticing and reacting to any positive contributions from the students and giving the learners feedback promptly.

This section has introduced Dörnyei's framework for motivational strategies (2001), and elaborated on the strategies relevant for the work carried out in this MA thesis. The following sections will address language teacher cognition.

2.4 Teacher's beliefs and knowledge

This section will address language teacher cognition by defining relevant terms and presenting research and literature related to the purposes of this study.

Borg (2015: 1) defines language teacher cognition as "what teachers think, know and believe - and its relationship to teachers' classroom practices". Due to the recognition of teachers as active, thinking decision-makers and the fact that they heavily influence classroom events, research within language teacher cognition has increased in the past two decades. In addition, studies within psychology have shown that knowledge and beliefs have a strong impact on human action (Borg, 2015: 1).

Language teacher cognition is further characterized as a "tacit, personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic – that is defined and redefined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers' lives". (Borg, 2015: 40). Most often, the psychological labels belief and knowledge has been used to characterize the mental constructs that describe teacher cognition (Borg,

2015: 40). In the interviews of the current study, the teachers were therefore asked about their beliefs and knowledge about motivation, since the language teacher's cognitions, according to Borg (2015: 324) form the basis for what they do. As noted in the previous sections on motivation, the teacher has the potential to positively influence the learners' motivation. Their cognitions about motivation would therefore influence how they approach motivating their learners.

Section 2.4.1 will define the constructs *knowledge* and *beliefs* and explain how teachers' beliefs and knowledge about the teaching profession develop (section 2.4.2).The following section 2.4.3 will discuss how language teachers' beliefs and knowledge influence their classroom practice.

2.4.1 Definition of *belief* and *knowledge*

A well-known issue within the field of language teacher cognition is the inconsistent use of terms by scholars and researchers. One concept may have been researched multiple times, from different perspectives, and may have received varying and overlapping terms (Borg, 2015: 320). Therefore, Borg (2015: 321) highlights the significance of defining the particular psychological constructs drawn on in a study, due to the lack of a shared conceptual and terminological framework.

As has been previously mentioned, this study investigates both the beliefs and knowledge of some Norwegian EFL teachers. Both mental constructs are addressed because previous research shows that treating belief and knowledge as two separate constructs proves to be difficult. Grossman, Wilson & Schulman (1989: 31) set out to study the knowledge of teachers, but reported that because teachers frequently treat their beliefs as knowledge, they needed to investigate teacher beliefs as well. Thus, Grossman et al., (1989: 31) stated that "we recognize that the distinction [between teachers' knowledge and beliefs - CMH] is blurry at best".

According to Woods (1996: 194) it has not been uncommon to treat knowledge and beliefs as separate entities in education literature earlier. However, Woods also experienced it as difficult to distinguish between the teachers' knowledge and beliefs when analysing the data of his study. As a consequence he treated the concepts as points situated on a spectrum of meaning. *Knowledge* was in this case defined as conventionally accepted facts, which meant that the facts in question had been demonstrated or were demonstrable (Woods, 1996: 195). *Beliefs*, which would be situated at the other end of the spectrum, were defined as "an acceptance of a proposition for which there is no conventional knowledge" (Woods, 1996:

195). A belief would not be demonstrable, and it is likely that teachers would disagree about the beliefs they hold.

For this reason, the definition of *teacher knowledge* proposed by Verloop, Van Driel & Meijer's (2001) is adopted in this study, as they do not distinguish between knowledge and beliefs. They view the two constructs as inextricably intertwined, but at the same time indicating, as stated by Parajes (1992: 313), that: "beliefs are seen roughly as referring to personal values, attitudes, and ideologies, and knowledge to a teacher's more factual propositions" (Verloop et al., 2001: 446). Following Verloop et al. (2001: 446) *knowledge* is "an overarching, inclusive concept, summarizing a large variety of cognitions, from conscious and well-balanced options to unconscious and unreflected intuitions". They draw special attention to the fact that knowledge is everything that a person either knows or believes to be true, regardless of whether it as been verified as true (Alexander, Schallert & Hare, 1991, cited in Verloop et al., 2001: 446).

For the purposes of this study, teacher knowledge is defined as "the whole of knowledge and insights that underlie teachers' actions in practice" (Verloop et al., 2001: 446), It includes knowledge of the topic that is the focus of this study, (i.e. L2 motivation and motivational strategies), knowledge about the subject (i.e. English as a foreign language), how to teach the subject, classroom management, knowledge about the pupils and more.

Furthermore, as is stated by Borg (2015: 40), teacher cognition is tacit. Hence, it is relevant to point out that some forms of the teacher knowledge are also tacit. Michael Polanyi coined the term "tacit knowledge" in 1966, explaining that as humans, "we can know more than we can tell" (Polanyi & Sen, 2009: 4).

2.4.2 Origin of teachers' knowledge and beliefs

Borg (2003: 81) claims that teachers have cognitions about all aspects of their work and he indicates that these cognitions are formed by the teachers' experience as learners, teacher education and contextual factors. The following paragraphs will present in more detail how the first two components influence teacher cognition. The impact of contextual factors will be addressed in section 2.4.3.

Research shows that cognitions about the teacher profession start to take form in an individual's early encounters with school (e.g. Lortie, 1975; Holt Reynolds, 1992; Bailey et al., 1996). Lortie (1975: 61) calls this experience the *apprenticeship of observation* and states "it acquaints students with the task of the teacher and fosters the development of identifications with teachers" (Lortie, 1975: 67).

According to Borg (2003: 88) "the teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualisations of L2 teaching during teacher education". However, as Lortie (1975: 62) points out, these cognitions are based more on individual personalities rather than on pedagogical principles. Still, and even despite teacher education, these cognitions are argued to influence teachers throughout their professional lives.

Another important source of teachers' cognitions is their own experience of teaching. During the years of teaching, teachers develop favoured teaching styles, techniques and strategies, i.e. routines, which heavily influence their cognition, and are reinforced if they are felt to be successful (Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Richards, 1998; Tsui, 2003). Also, the school culture, its curriculum and interaction with other teachers are proved to influence teachers' cognitions as a result of teaching experience (e.g. Richardson, 1997; Zeichner, Tabachnick & Densmore, 1987).

There has been much debate on how much teacher education influences teachers' cognitions about the profession, though research does provide evidence that teacher education can have an impact (Borg 2005; Phipps, 2009). However, varied results have been presented regarding the nature of this impact (Borg, 2003: 89). In addition, there is a difference between cognitive and behavioural changes during or after teacher education. It is not guaranteed that a change in cognitions translates into changes in practice, nor the other way around (Borg, 2003: 91). It is also interesting to see that even if the teachers are met with overwhelming evidence that contradict a belief they hold, their cognitions may not change (Pajares, 1992). Borg (2015: 334) states that if teacher trainees' prior cognitions are not challenged or forced to be reflected upon during their professional preparation, teacher education may not have much impact on the trainees' prior beliefs.

2.4.3 Teacher's cognitions and classroom practice

As has been declared in the definition of teacher cognition (see section 2.3), teachers' beliefs and knowledge provide the basis for their actions and guide their classroom practice. A wide range of studies has been conducted to investigate the relationship between teachers' cognitions and classroom practice, and findings indicate that this relationship is symbiotic (Foss & Kleinasser, 1996: 441, cited in Borg, 2003: 91). Borg claims that language teaching "can be seen as a process which is defined by dynamic interactions among cognition, context and experience (2015: 324).

Borg defines contextual factors as "the social, institutional, instructional and physical settings in which teachers work" and they can either lead to changes in the teachers' cognitions or to changes in their practice without affecting the cognitions underlying them (2015: 324). Contextual restrictions such as a rigid curriculum or large classes might discourage the teacher from applying certain teaching methods and materials and rather opt for a safe and well-known teaching strategies (Phipps, 2009: 23).

Furthermore, teachers' cognitions may not always be consistent with their practices. This could be a result of the above-mentioned contextual influence or the previously mentioned fact that deeply rooted beliefs may not change despite being challenged by overwhelming evidence. As it is, studies have shown that teachers' core-beliefs may override other beliefs, for example that a concern with maintaining class control and order and flow of the lesson might prevent teachers from trying out new practices (Johnson, 1992a; Richards, 1996). On a related note, teachers' established routines that have been confirmed by experience as successful are less likely to change (Phipps, 2009: 23).

To summarize, teacher cognition is a complex construct made up of teachers' prior experiences as learners and as teachers. Furthermore, cognition can be influenced or altered by teacher education and contextual factors. Changes in cognitions are not straightforward and are unlikely to happen if the teacher does not challenge and reflect upon existing beliefs.

Because teachers do not always teach according to their stated beliefs, it is also necessary to state that when examining teachers' cognitions the research design would benefit from both interviewing teachers about their cognitions and in addition investigating their practice. It would provide a more complete picture and it would allow the researcher to reveal both congruence and tensions between cognition and practice. By conducting a study in such a way, the participating teachers can benefit by being encouraged to reflect on their beliefs and practices, which could result in a heightened awareness leading to more effective classroom teaching. Also, findings from such studies could inform in-teacher education and possibly promote professional development. As has been stressed earlier (see section 1.2), this study does not include any examination of the teachers actual practice, and could therefore only present findings regarded the participants stated cognitions and practices.

In this section the terms *belief* and *knowledge* have been explained and defined. Furthermore, factors that form teachers' cognitions have been addressed and their influence on teachers' classroom practice. The next section will focus on studies that have examined the relationship between language teacher cognition and L2 motivation.

2.5 Language teacher cognition and L2 motivation

While teacher cognition has been a major area of interest for researchers in the field of L2 teaching in the past 15 years (Borg, 2015: 1), the studies focusing on curricular areas have mostly been occupied with grammar teaching (e.g. Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004) or literacy instruction (e.g. Johnson, 1992b; Meijer, Verloop & Beijaard, 2001). Research investigating the relationship between teacher cognition and L2 motivation are limited compared to the previously mentioned curricular domains. Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) conducted the first study aim at investigating the importance EFL teachers attached to a set of motivational strategies and the frequency they reported using them. The study was conducted in Hungary and based on the findings, Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) presented a "ten commandments" for motivating students, consisting of ten motivational macro-strategies (see Table 2.1). Among these, teacher behaviour, creating a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom and presenting tasks properly were among the top five strategies in terms of importance. Dörnyei & Csizér (1998: 224) also revealed that strategies concerning goal-setting and goal-orientedness were rather neglected in terms of frequency of use. However, Dörnyei & Csizér (1998: 224) indicate that their findings might be context-specific and therefore not valid in other contexts.

Table 2.1: Ten Commandments for motivating language learners (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998: 215)

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

Of the relatively few empirical studies have been conducted in that vein since then, most have appeared in the recent years and in various contexts such as in Iran, South Korea, Saudi

Arabia and Taiwan. Among the studies that have been conducted, several have been based on Dörnyei's (2001) system of motivational teaching practice (e.g. Alrabai, 2011; Alshehri, 2014; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008).

Most of the research focuses on examining EFL teachers' views on a number of motivational strategies (Alrabai, 2011; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013). Cheng & Dörnyei (2007) replicated the study of Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) in the context of Taiwan. Their findings revealed some similarities with the findings from the Hungarian context, such as *appropriate teacher behaviours*, *presenting the tasks in a motivating way* and *protecting the learners' self-esteem and self-confidence* all being ranked among the top five motivational strategies by the teachers. The results also showed that there were some differences. For instance, *promoting motivational attributions* was ranked as the second most important motivational strategy by the Taiwanese teachers, but did not feature in the top ten in the Hungarian context. Also, the least important strategy in the context of Taiwan was *creating learner autonomy*, while the Hungarian teachers ranked the strategy higher. The studies conducted by Alrabai (2011) in Saudi Arabia and Guilloteaux (2013) in the South Korean context reported results showing that *appropriate teacher behaviours* ranked as the most important motivational strategy, indicating that the macro-strategy might be transferable to other cultures. In addition, the motivational strategies concerning the promotion of learners' self-confidence and presenting tasks properly are ranked within the top five results across contexts. Strategies such as *promoting learner autonomy* and *making learning stimulating and enjoyable* appear to be more context-specific.

Some studies have focused on the effectiveness of the teachers' use of specific motivational strategies on student motivation find that there is positive relationship between the two variables, substantiating the claim that teachers can influence the students' motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini & Ratcheva, 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). Still, as mentioned in section 1.1, further research into teachers' perceptions and use of motivational strategies is needed. In addition, research is to investigate if the teachers' views regarding motivational strategies match the perceptions of students in the same context (Alshehri, 2014: 90).

2.6 Summary

This chapter has aimed to present L2 motivation and has introduced Dörnyei's theoretical framework for motivational strategies (2001). Some of the strategies from the framework

have been elaborated upon and it has been illustrated that the strategies proposed by Dörnyei (2001) draw on research from both educational psychology and research within the field of L2 motivation. The theory chapter has also presented teacher cognition, stating that for the purpose of this study, the mental constructs of belief and knowledge are in focus. In addition, the aim of this chapter has been to illustrate that both motivation and teacher cognition are well-researched areas, though there has been limited research regarding teacher cognition in relation to L2 motivation, particularly in the Norwegian context. This present study, therefore, intends to address this gap by discussing the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation and their motivational practices in the classroom.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the research methodology used to provide answers to the research questions will be described. Section 3.2 presents the research approaches, method and design adopted in this study. Then a description of the research sample participating in this research project is provided (section 3.3). Section 3.4 will contains information about the quantitative and qualitative instruments used. The final sections address the study's research quality (section 3.5), ethical concerns (section 3.6) and limitations (section 3.7).

3.2 Research approaches, method and design

This study has used a mixed methods approach, and this section will give a description of the two research approaches that are combined, followed by a definition and explanation of the mixed methods approach. The section ends by describing the design of this study.

While a distinction is commonly made between quantitative and qualitative research approaches, it does not necessarily follow that a study must either be based on a quantitative or a qualitative methodology. One approach may carry elements of the other approach, and it is possible to combine the two.

3.2.1 Quantitative and qualitative research

Quantitative research relies for the most part on numerical data and is generally analysed using statistical methods (Brown & Rodgers, 2002: 12). Examples of quantitative research are questionnaires (survey research), tests and experiments (Alshehri, 2014: 94). Generally quantitative research is associated with objectivity because the use of statistical analytical tools diminishes the impact of the researcher's subjective interpretations (Dörnyei, 2007: 28). Furthermore, the knowledge constructed through quantitative method is generally associated with generalizability (Ercikan & Roth, 2006: 14). In terms of survey research, this is because of the basic idea that "the characteristics, opinions, attitudes, and intended behaviours of a large population (e.g. second language (L2) learners in a country) can be described and analysed on the basis of questioning only a fraction of the particular population" (Dörnyei &

Csizér, 2012: 74). By this definition, a large sample could iron out the differences between the individuals.

While the above-mentioned characteristics of quantitative research also serve as examples for the benefits of the approach, there are some limitations. For instance, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2013: 204) draw attention to how quantitative methods are not sensitive in revealing the reasons for a particular response and depend on the instrument being used to a large extent. If the instrument does not have sufficient items, it can be difficult to present valid and reliable findings.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, generally relies on non-numerical data such as interviews, diaries or field notes (Brown & Rodgers, 2002: 12). It is common to use the qualitative approach when exploring new, uncharted territory as the aim generally is to provide rich descriptions of the phenomena being studied (Friedman, 2012: 182). Furthermore, qualitative research provides the opportunity to paint a detailed and nuanced picture of the phenomenon being studied because the research operates on a small scale. While it then could make up for the limitations of the quantitative method, it also presents a drawback for the approach, as the small number of participants makes it impossible to generalise the findings of a study (Dörnyei, 2007: 41).

Mixed-methods

Mixed-methods could be defined as being a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner (2007: 123) provide a more detailed definition:

> Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.

The combination can occur either at the data collection stage or at the analysis level of a research project (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013: 203). One of the main arguments for using a mixed-methods approach is that it brings out the best of both the quantitative and qualitative research methods, while also compensating for their weaknesses (Dörnyei, 2007: 45). Furthermore, it allows the researcher to obtain data about individuals and a broader social context, hence improving the external validity of the findings (Dörnyei, 2007: 46). There are some limitations to this approach as well. For instance, it demands that the researcher(s) have

knowledge of a wide range of methodologies and possibly insight into how different methodologies work together (Ercikan & Roth, 2006: 21). According to Dörnyei & Ushioda (2013: 205), most researchers do not have the skills to handle both quantitative and qualitative data equally well.

The research project presented in the master's thesis has adopted the mixed methods approach because it provides the opportunity to collect a breadth of information using a questionnaire, and to enquire in depth by means of interviews, thus increasing the validity of the results. The two methods have to a certain degree been used in a separate and parallel manner, meaning that they did not "influence operationalization of each other and that the results are integrated in the interpretation phase" (Dörnyei, 2007: 172). The questionnaire was developed before the interviews, and parts of the questionnaire did influence the interview guide. This will be elaborated on in section 3.2.2.

One of the methods is assigned more weight than the other when responding to the individual research questions. For research question 1 (*what are the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation?*), the data collected from the interviews are treated as primary while data collected in the questionnaire are seen as supplementary. For research question 2 (*which motivational strategies do the Norwegian EFL teachers report to most frequently make use of?*), the quantitative data are treated as primary while the qualitative data are secondary. More details regarding the research method will be provided in section 3.2.2 below.

3.2.2 Research design

As indicated above, this study made use of two instruments: a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. As mentioned above, the design follow a QUAL+quan, QUAN+qual mixed method design in responding to the three research questions. As stated in the previous section, the quantitative method did influence the qualitative method to a degree in the operationalization. The questionnaire was divided in two sections, first asking the teachers to rate on a five-point scale ("not part of my teaching" -> "very often") the frequency at which they made use of a set of motivational strategies. The second section provided a set with statements to which the teachers imparted their level of agreement on a four-point scale ("strongly disagree" -> "strongly agree"). The statements concerned the source of the teachers' knowledge and beliefs, the teachers' evaluation of their skills in motivating language learners and their desire to learn more motivational strategies. The topics addressed in the second section of the questionnaire were included in the interview guide. The

development of the questionnaire and interview will be explained in more detail in section 3.4.1.

The findings and conclusion of the study were based on the data of the questionnaire and the interviews. The study started by collecting the quantitative data because the questionnaire also served as a preparation for the participants who were interviewed. By responding to the questionnaire the participants in the interviews would to some extent have reflected upon their motivational practice. As has been established, teacher cognitions are often tacit, leaving it probable that if the teachers were asked about their knowledge and beliefs in the interview without having the opportunity to reflect a little upon their practice, they might not be able to respond fully to the questions in the interview.

Regarding the procedure of mixing the research methods, the quantitative and qualitative approaches were combined in the conclusion and the interpretation of the results, after having analysed both data sets.

Having presented the research approach and design of the study, the next section will provide information about the research sample before explaining the research instruments.

3.3 Participants

The target population in this study is teachers in Norway who teach English. The sample for the current research project was selected partly based on a convenience sample, and partly based on random sampling. The key characteristics defining the sample are that all participants are EFL teachers teaching classes from 5th to 10th grade.

A convenience sample is an example of non-probability sampling and is a among the most common sample types in L2 research (Dörnyei, 2007: 98). A convenience sample is in essence a sample that meets "certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or the willingness to volunteer" (Dörnyei, 2007: 99). The sampling procedure was used to find participants for the interviews and to some extent the questionnaire. The language teachers selected on a convenience sample were easily accessible to the researcher and geographically close. They were in-service teachers studying English as continuing education at a local university. The researcher visited in one of their lessons and informed them of the research project and their possibility to participate. The survey was made available for the EFL teachers at their *It's Learning* web page (www.itslearning.no) leaving it optional for them to respond.

A random sample is an example of probability sampling, meaning that the participants for a study are selected on probability and chance, "thus minimizing the effects of any

extraneous or subjective factors" (Dörneyi, 2007: 97). The random sample for this study was selected by means of emails sent to headmasters and department heads at all schools in Bergen offering 1st to 10th grade education. The emails informed of the research project, provided the web link for the survey and enquired whether the headmaster could forward the email to the EFL teachers at his/her school teaching at 5th to 10th grade. In all cases the potential participants were informed that participation was voluntary.

As a result, 62 participants responded to the survey. Due to incomplete contribution, 21 of the responses are not accounted for in the analysis process and presentation of findings. 40 of the EFL teachers completed the survey, while one of the participants only replied to the items in the survey concerning background information and use of motivational strategies. In conclusion, the 41 English teachers (N = 41; 33 women and 8 men) ranging in age from 25 to 63 years old (M = 40,1 years, SD = 8,7 years) volunteered to respond to the questionnaire. Informed consent was obtained from all participants by means of an information sheet stating the purpose of the questionnaire and stressing that participation was voluntary. Four of the English teachers (N = 4; 2 women and 2 men) ranging in age from 25 to 43 years old (M = 35,8 years, SD = 9,5 years) voluntarily participated in an in-depth interview following the questionnaire.

Not all 41 participants responded to every single item in the questionnaire. The items range from having 38 to 41 responses, though the majority have either 40 or 41 responses. The variation in responses did not have a considerable impact upon the results, however when presenting the results it will be made clear for the individual item how many respondents there are.

Having explained the sample of the study, the following section will explain the instruments used in.

3.4 Research instruments

The research instruments included a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. In addition a pilot study was conducted to ensure that the items in the questionnaire were clear and understandable for the participants. In the following section the instruments used will be explained, including the design of the quantitative instrument and the pilot study.

3.4.1 Quantitative component: constructing the questionnaire

This section will explain how the quantitative component was constructed, including the piloting of the questionnaire and the final items.

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire was developed based on Dörnyei's motivational framework (2001) and also aimed to reveal the teachers' perception of their own skills of motivating, desire to learn more motivation strategies and the source of their knowledge.

The questionnaire was constructed in the online survey development software SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com). The software was chosen because it allowed the researcher to distribute the questionnaire easily by providing the participants with a web-link and without any extra expenses. Furthermore, the software made it possible to ensure that the respondents remained anonymous by excluding the respondents' IP addresses in the data collection.

The questionnaire made use of closed-ended Likert scale items. As previously mentioned, in the first section of the questionnaire the teachers rated on a five-point scale how frequently they made use of a motivational strategy. The teachers were given the opportunity to comment on each strategy, either by explaining how they interpreted the strategy or made use of it. The teachers were also encouraged to comment if they found an item confusing or did not understand it. Within every macro motivational strategy there are numerous micro strategies. Each macro strategy could in theory mean something slightly different for each teacher and can be realised in different ways. If three language teachers claim that they very often make use of the macro strategy of "using the teacher's own behaviour as a motivational tool", it is not clear if they have the same understanding of what it entails. Thus, to each motivational strategy the respondents were provided with the opportunity to write a comment, describing or exemplifying their understanding of the strategy. The second section of the questionnaire provided the teachers with statements to which they rated their level of agreement on a four-point scale.

One of the main challenges of constructing the questionnaire was to phrase the strategies in a brief and concise way, so the items were clear and unambiguous. The pilot study was essential in this respect. The items concerning the motivational strategies were based on Dörnyei's framework (2001), but the pilot study showed that some of the micro-strategies were hard to decipher and understand. Therefore, some of the items in the questionnaire correspond with the macro-strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001), while other items have been rephrased or are referred to by means of one or two micro-strategies. Ideally, several variations of each macro-strategy should have been listed to increase the questionnaire's reliability (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 76). However, when designing a questionnaire it is also important to avoid making it too long (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 76).

Had every macro-strategy been presented using a variation of micro-strategies, the questionnaire would have been too long. Based on the feedback from the pilot study and the researcher's own evaluation, some macro-strategies were presented by using an explanatory micro-strategy instead, and in two cases more than one variation of the macro-strategy were presented. The remaining macro-strategies were phrased in the same way they are phrased in Dörnyei's framework (2001), because the participants in the pilot study deemed them self-explanatory (e.g. "a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere" and "make the teaching materials relevant for the students").

Table 3.1 shows the final items that were included in the questionnaire. The first column gives the macro-strategies as they are presented in the framework (2001). The second column shows which macro-strategies were substituted by micro-strategies, while the third column shows which macro-strategies that had to be rephrased. All changes were made on the basis of the feedback from the pilot study. The aim of using micro-strategies or rephrasing the macro-strategies was to increase the validity and reliability of the study.

Table 3.1 Items in the questionnaire concerning motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001)

Macro-strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001)	Micro-strategies used in quantitative instrument	Macro-strategy rephrased in quantitative instrument
Appropriate teacher behaviours	The teacher's own behaviour as a motivational tool	
	A good relationship with the students	
A pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom		
A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms		A learner group where there is a strong "we" feeling and which students are happy to belong to
Enhancing the learners' L2 related values and attitudes	Raise the learners' interest in and anticipated enjoyment of the language learning activity	
	Encourage a positive and open-minded disposition (norsk: gemytt) towards the English language and its speakers	
	Promote the students' awareness of the benefits and usefulness of having learnt English	

Increasing the learners' expectancy of success		
Increasing the learners' goal orientedness		
Making the teaching material relevant for the learners		
Creating realistic learner beliefs		
Making learning stimulating and enjoyable		
Presenting the tasks in a motivating way		
Setting specific learners goals		
Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence		
Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image	Allowing the learners to maintain a positive social image when performing an oral task	
Creating learner autonomy		Encourage the learners to take increasing control over their own learning process
Promoting self-motivating strategies	Increase the students' self-motivating capacity	
Promoting motivational attributions		Play down the importance of ability, and highlight the role of effort
Providing motivational feedback	Providing students with positive information feedback	
Increasing learner satisfaction		Take the time to celebrate any student victory
Offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner		

The final items in the quantitative instrument consisted of a set of statements to which the teachers rated their level of agreement of on a four-point scale. The topics of the statements, as previously mentioned, concerned the source of their knowledge of how to motivate

learners, the degree to which they believe to succeed in motivating language learners. The questionnaire in its entirety is presented in Appendix III.

The subjects were told that the study aimed to shed light on Norwegian EFL teachers' practices and knowledge of motivational strategies in L2 learning. It was explicitly stated that there were no right or wrong answers.

3.4.2 Qualitative component: Semi-structured interview

Semi-structured interviews are widely used in educational research, including the field of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2007: 136) and language teacher cognition (Borg: 2015: 238). A semi-structured interview is generally directed by a set of themes rather than a fixed set of specific questions. It provides the researchers with flexibility, allowing a degree of freedom in terms of the direction the conversation takes and in terms of encouraging the respondent to talk about the topics in an open-ended manner (Borg, 2015: 236). The aim of using the semi-structured interviews in this study was to get the teachers to talk about their knowledge and beliefs regarding L2 motivation and how to motivate learners for foreign language learning. The guidelines for the interviews were based on Dörnyei's framework of motivational strategies (2001) and theory from language teacher cognition research. The themes of the interview were inspired by language teacher cognition: beliefs, thoughts, knowledge, practice. Within each theme was a set of questions to guide the researcher during the interviews, though all questions were not posed to all participants. The questions within each theme drew on literature from L2 motivation. Also, the participants were asked questions that were not part of the interview guide, since they were inspired by the topic of the particular conversation. The guidelines are attached in Appendix II.

Four participants were interviewed in this study, all of whom had responded to the questionnaire in advance. Borg (2015: 224) states that mental constructs such as beliefs are often abstract, which can make it difficult to elicit beliefs in an interview and it is not necessarily a productive elicitation strategy to ask the teachers directly about their beliefs. Asking the teachers to respond to the questionnaire before conducting the interviews was done in an attempt to make the teachers reflect upon their motivational practice and their beliefs, increasing the likelihood of valid and reliable responses.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted in the participants' place of employment or at their home. They were conducted face-to-face and were recorded. All participants were allowed to choose if they wished to be interviewed in Norwegian or English. One of the participants preferred to be interviewed in Norwegian because it allowed

her to express herself more clearly. The purpose of the interview had been explained to the participants in advance through an informed consent form that had been distributed prior to the interviews. The consent form also informed the participants that all data collected in the study was anonymous and that the interviews would be sound recorded. Furthermore, it was explicitly stated that participation was voluntary and they could withdraw at any time. If they chose to withdraw, all data collected would be deleted. The interviews took between 40 to 60 minutes. The following table shows the duration of each interview.

Table 3.2: The duration of the interviews

Participants	Interviews' duration
Participant 01	47:55
Participant 02	58:03
Participant 03	60:01:28
Participant 04	40:55
Total:	3:28:21

An IPhone 6s was used to tape the interviews. The device was chosen because of easy accessibility for the researcher and since the quality of the recordings was satisfactory. Most importantly the device could be password protected, ensuring that only the researcher had access to the recordings.

3.4.3 Data analysis

The interviews were transcribed, and in one case, translated. During transcription the focus was on the content of the teachers' responses. Times when they stuttered, started a sentence and abandoned it, had pauses to think or uttered thinking sounds like "eh", or "uhm" were not noted. How the teachers responded or the amount of thinking they needed to respond was not deemed relevant. This was due to the fact that the topic of the interview dwelled on beliefs or practices that they might not be completely conscious of all the time, and would need time to reflect over before responding.

In the coding process the data were read and examined multiple times in order to identify themes and patterns corresponding with the themes from the interview guide. During the process some themes emerged based on references from the participants that corresponded with theory from L2 motivation and language teacher cognition. The data were organized in a table where the first column listed the themes and the following four columns represented the

individual respondent's corresponding utterance. The data were also organized in a second table aimed at identifying potential references of motivational practice that corresponded with the motivational macro-strategies presented in Dörnyei's framework (2001). See Appendix IV and V for excerpts of the tables from data analysis.

Throughout the process of analysing the researcher kept an analysis diary, where every step in the analysis process was written down and every thought about the next step in the analysis process was noted and where initial interpretations were noted. The aims were to make sure that the researcher at any point could go back and see what has been done and also see where the root of one interpretation started. It made it more transparent and provided the researcher with the opportunity to question an interpretation and see why a certain interpretation was made. The researcher could then either discard the interpretation, because the reasons might not be reliable or valid, or to find more proof for making a certain interpretation, or to steer the interpretation in a different direction.

3.5. Research quality

The terms *validity* and *reliability* are traditionally used to address research quality within quantitative studies, and Lincoln & Guba (1985) introduced the concept of "trustworthiness" as an equivalent for qualitative studies. Though according to Dörnyei (2007: 49), the alternative term for research quality in qualitative inquires is still debated, and there is precedent for addressing research quality of qualitative research by using the terms *validity* and *reliability*. Therefore, and because this study has adapted a mixed-methods approach, this section will address the validity and reliability of the present research project.

Brown & Rodgers (2002: 241) divide *validity* in two parts, namely, *internal validity*, i.e. "the degree to which the results can be accurately interpreted" and *external validity*, i.e. "the degree to which the results can be effectively generalized". As mentioned in section 3.2, the choice to combine quantitative and qualitative research approaches was made as an attempt to increase the internal validity of this MA thesis. In doing so the strengths of one method could overcome the weaknesses of the other method. By administrating a questionnaire, it was possible to collect the opinions of a larger sample. Qualitative methods tend to collect rich data from a small sample, which has its advantages, though it is less likely that the findings can be generalized. On the other hand, by interviewing some of the participants it was possible for the researcher to add depth to the quantitative results.

Hammersly (2008: 23) states that people have a tendency of giving more socially desirable answers in a face-to-face interview, and more honest responses in an anonymous

questionnaire. To reduce the chances of reaching a false conclusion on the data collected in the interview, some of the items in the interview correlated with the items from the questionnaire. The intent was to use the responses from the questionnaire to check the validity of conclusions drawn on the basis of the data collected in the interviews. In terms of external validity, the sample size of this research project is too small to provide findings that can be generalized. The issue of generalization will be further addressed in section 3.7.

In an attempt to increase the reliability of this research project, i.e. "the degree to which the results of a study is consistent" (Brown & Rodgers, 2002: 241), some of the macro-strategies in the questionnaire were replaced by micro-strategies or rephrased. This was done because, as Dörnyei & Csizér (2012: 75) state, when assessing abstract, mental variables, such as motivation, minor differences in how a question is phrased could produce radical different responses. Thus, the macro-strategies that are presented in the questionnaire could be interpreted and utilized by the participants in numerous of ways. As mentioned in section 3.4.1, each macro-strategy should have been addressed by more than one item. However, this would have resulted in a long questionnaire to which the consequences could have been that the respondents would not have completed the survey. Moreover, the fact that I had the opportunity to ask follow-up questions and address potential misunderstandings in the interviews, could also contribute to the reliability of this study in a constructive manner. However, as already mentioned, this research project operates on a small scale. Therefore, more research focusing on Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions about L2 motivation and their motivational practice is needed to see if the result of this study is consistent.

3.6 Ethical concerns

This research project was guided by ethical consideration throughout the process. Essential ethical principals and guidelines were based on suggestion from scholars such as Kvale & Brinkmann (2009), Dörnyei (2007) and the Belmont Report (US Department of Health and Human Services [HHS], 1979). These principals include informed consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality and beneficence. When distributing the questionnaire and conducting interviews, all the EFL teachers were voluntary recruited and were informed that they could withdraw at any time. In terms of informed consent, information about the purpose of the study, what the teachers' participation involved and reassurance that all data collected in this study would be treated with confidentiality was included in the questionnaire and sent to teachers who had volunteered to be interviewed. Some steps were taken to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of the participants. First, the questionnaire did not ask for any

information that could identify the participants, and, as previously mentioned, the survey results did not include the respondents' IP addresses. Second, no personal information was collected in the interviews. Third, interviews were coded. Fourth, data was kept confidential and stored in a safe place, and will be destroyed after the project is completed. In terms of beneficence the respondents were reminded that there are no right or wrong answer in regard of which motivational strategy one utilizes. Use of motivational strategies varies from teacher to teacher, and what works with one group of learners may not work with the next group.

3.7 Limitations

The research project is based on data collected from a "non-probability sampling", meaning that the researcher has used the resources available to gather a reasonably representative sample (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012: 81). One of the weaknesses of using a non-probability sample is that the opportunities to generalize the results are negligible. The research project is based on a small sample. Within the qualitative approach, a small sample is in general normal, but it still represents a weakness as far as generalization is concerned. In quantitative methods the issue of individuality would be solved by taking a large enough sample so the individual differences would be ironed out by the sample size, hence the pooled results would be more likely to reflect the shared features and attributes of the target population (Dörnyei, 2007: 27). Though the sample size of the present research project is at 40 to 41 participants in relation the questionnaire, the sample is not large enough to be representative for the target population (i.e. Norwegian EFL teachers). Hence, the findings of this MA thesis are not generalizable. The results might be able to show potential tendencies, but without further research on the matter, no conclusions made in this paper can be said to apply for the target population.

The use of the qualitative instrument could be another limitation of this MA thesis. While interviews provide the researcher with a great opportunity to collect rich data and allow the researcher to follow up statements from the interviewees with questions to clarify and elaborate, the method do have some weaknesses. For instance, since the interview format does not allow for anonymity, the respondents might try to display themselves in a better than real light. The respondents could also be too shy or inarticulate to produce sufficient data (Dörnyei, 2007: 145). Mackey & Gass (2012: 188) state that the purpose of an interview is to explore a topic from the perspective of the interviewer – thus the interviewer should take care to not dominate. Dörnyei (2007: 144) claims that because interviewing is such a common way of retrieving information, most people will have models of good interviewers in their minds, which makes it likely that even beginning researchers will be able to obtain rich data in their

very first interview. Though I always took care to let the interviewees do most of the talking and to only pose follow up questions that could stimulate reflection and provide elaboration, there is a chance that I at times dominated the interview. This is due to the fact that I am not an experienced interviewer and in an unaware moment might have become too dominating.

A final limitation of this MA thesis is that the only instruments used to collect data were a self-report questionnaire and interviews. In order to validate the teachers' claim that they make use of the motivational strategies in their classes, it seems necessary to use classroom observation. In addition, this study does not reveal how the students respond to the utilization of the motivational techniques in the EFL classroom. Therefore more research is needed to empirically examine how the implementation of motivational strategies in the Norwegian EFL classroom influence students language learning motivation as well as their EFL achievements.

3.8 Summary

This chapter has presented the research design of this study and describe the research instruments that have been applied. The steps taken to ensure the quality of this research project have been addressed, in addition the limitations of the study. The ethical considerations that have been made have also been explained.

Chapter 4

Data presentation and discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the results from the data collection and discuss the findings of this study. The findings will be presented and discussed according to the research questions. All findings are based on both the quantitative and the qualitative data. The findings relevant to the first research question, *what are the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation* are presented in section 4.2. The data from the interviews are treated as primary, while the results of the questionnaire are supplementary when addressing two themes (i.e. the source of the teachers' knowledge and perceived ability to motivate learners).

Section 4.3 concerns the findings of the second research question, *which motivational strategies do the Norwegian EFL teachers report to most frequently employ?* The data from the questionnaire indicate how often the participants report to employ the motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001). The results from the interviews and the open-ended responses from the questionnaire provide information on how the participants interpret and make use of the strategies. In addition, these non-numerical data are used to connect the use of strategies to the teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation.

Section 4.4 will provide a closing discussion where findings of this MA thesis will be discussed in relation to previous research, and overarching conclusions will be presented. In section 4.5 this chapter will be summarized.

When describing the findings from the interviews, the participants will be referred to as Participant 01, Participant 02, Participant 03 and Participant 04.

4.2 Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation

This section will present and discuss the results regarding research question 1, *what are the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation?* The aim was to learn more about the Norwegian EFL teachers' beliefs and knowledge of L2 motivation.

To provide an answer to the research question, the findings of this study will be structured according to the following themes: how the EFL teachers define and perceive motivation, and the EFL teachers' evaluation of own motivational practice. Section 4.2.1 will address which factors the participants claim have formed their knowledge and beliefs about motivation and motivational practice. In section 4.2.2 the findings to research question 1 will be summarized.

According to Borg (2015: 1), language teacher cognition concerns the language teachers' thoughts, knowledge and beliefs, and how these mental constructs affect the teachers' practice. At the same time, as noted in section 2.3.1, Dörnyei's framework (2001) is based on the process-oriented model by Dörnyei & Ottó (1998). The model is, in turn, based on a dynamic view of motivation, where it is recognized that the pupil's motivation fluctuates over time and is affected by social and contextual influences (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998: 45). To establish which motivational strategies the participants make use of, it seemed reasonable to first present findings that could give indications as to which cognitions lie behind the teachers' actions. These findings draw on results from the interviews. Furthermore, to supplement the findings from the qualitative research, results from the questionnaire will be presented as well. Items in the questionnaire concerning where the teachers learned how to motivate their pupils and their evaluation of own ability to motivate learners were also relevant for research question 1.

Definitions and perceptions of L2 motivation

In an attempt to decipher the EFL teachers' definition of motivation, the participants were asked to described what they believed characterised an unmotivated pupil and a motivated pupil. According to all the four interviewees, a key characteristic of an unmotivated pupil was that an unmotivated pupil tends not to be engaged in the learning activity in the classroom. Participant 01 and 02 made use of the term *passive* to describe unmotivated pupils, while Participant 03 and 04 characterised them as those students "who does not want to do anything" (Participant 03). According to Dörnyei (2001: 6), claiming that a student is unmotivated is a simple and convenient way of explaining why the student is not doing anything or is reluctant to do something in a learning situation. It allows one to refrain from elaborating on the many potential reasons why the pupil is disengaged and/or display a negative attitude. The majority of the respondents (3 out of 4) explicitly expressed that the antecedents of lack of motivation could be numerous. The interviewees mentioned conditions such as hunger, a feeling of not succeeding, finding a situation meaningless, not knowing

what to do or that the subject is compulsory as examples of antecedents for lack of participation in a learning activity (i.e. lack of motivation). The teachers' examples indicate knowledge of motivational theories. For instance, Participant 02 belief that hungry students were more likely to become distracted could be supported by needs theories (e.g. Maslow, 1962). Brophy (2010: 23) argue that the humans' basic needs, such as hunger, are among the preconditions that must be attended to for any other motivational strategies to be effective. While the participants' references to experiences of success are connected to expectancy-value theories (e.g. Brophy, 1999; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995) (see section 2.3.1).

These statements are important because even though the teachers describe an unmotivated pupil in simplistic terms (e.g. a pupil who does not do anything), their elaboration indicates that the teachers have an understanding of the complexity of motivation and what drives human behaviour. In terms of how beliefs and knowledge influence teaching practice, this indication could indicate that the teachers modify their approach to motivate learners by assessing the individual learner's situation and needs. Even though the teachers' examples are few and do not cover ever reason why a pupil might be perceived as unmotivated, the examples signify that the teachers are aware of the fact that a student's lack of involvement can be traced back to a broad spectrum of possible explanations why. However, Participant 01 indicated that years of experience made it easier to adjust ones motivational approach to the individual student. He explained:

> You move as you see which pupils you have. If you have a lot of experience, you know which day it is. Who is having a bad day or a good day? And you will have learned through experience what different pupils need.
> (Participant 01)

The few examples provided by the teachers also indicate that the interviewees view motivation as dynamic and fluctuating. For example, an unmotivated pupil could be unmotivated for only a short time, if hunger is the cause of his disengagement. Not knowing what to do as a source for being unmotivated could either be resolved immediately or it could result in a learner being disconnected from the learning experience for a longer period, depending on when the task or the purpose of an activity is explained and whether or not the learner understands the explanation. Participant 03 claimed that: "a pupil can be very motivated one day and be unmotivated the next day". Participant 01 sums up the complexity of motivation and unmotivated pupils in the following statement:

There are as many types of unmotivated pupils as there are pupils. You can have very intelligent and motivated pupils in general who can be not motivated for a specific task, and then there could be those who are not motivated generally, or you feel that they are not motivated. So they come in many colours.
(Participant 01)

In terms of defining a motivated pupil, the participants described characteristics such as active and independent. Participant 01 stated that motivated pupils are "often very independent, so they can go on even with very poor instructions. They still want to learn and have strategies for almost any situation". Participant 02 thought that motivated pupils "are more active within learning [English]". Participant 03 believed that learners who read English books or talk English outside of school, just for fun, could be characterised as motivated. She said that a motivated pupil is "a pupil who is positive and who really enjoys working with the subject and uses English outside of school". While Participant 04 added that a motivated pupil would in general show up to class prepared: "A motivated pupil is a pupil who is activated and interested. He shows up with all the equipment he needs and shows an interest in the topic or subject you teach. [It is] a pupil who takes initiative and who asks questions and finds his/her own way".

Based on the participants' characterisation of motivated and unmotivated pupils, it could be argued that the interviewees display a belief that motivation is important for learning. Participant 01 and 02 appeared to believe that if one is not motivated, it reduces the chances of learning. Participant 01 claimed that: "you need to be motivated to learn. You can do tedious rehearsing, but I do not think you will learn over time if you are not motivated". While Participant 02 stated that: "I think motivation is very important. It is kind of the fuel of learning in a way". Their statements are in line with Dörnyei's (2001: 5) claim that with sufficient L2 motivation, any student can achieve a working knowledge of an L2, regardless of language aptitude or other cognitive characteristics. Participant 03 and 04 however, seem to disagree with Dörnyei's statement to some extent. While expressing a belief that motivation is important, they seemed to believe that other factors could influence the students' achievements in a negative way. Participant 03 stated that in her experience, students could be motivated, but it did not necessarily mean that they were high performing students. Participant 04 stated that:

Motivation is a great determiner for whether one succeeds or fails [in language learning], but I do not believe that it is everything. I think it is important, but I think that there is more than just motivation that influences [the pupils] success. I think their

aptitude and self-discipline plays a role as well. I will not put all my money on motivation, even though it is important.
(Participant 04)

It is possible that the beliefs the participants display in their statements are a product of their experiences as learners or from their time as teachers, which could explain why they to some degree disagree regarding the how much they weigh the importance of motivation.

All the four participants who were interviewed explained that they did not think in terms of motivation or motivational strategies when planning lessons. However, that is not to mean that the participants attempt to make lessons as motivating as possible. The participants explained that they used other terms. Participant 02 stated that he tried to find activities that students would enjoy and learn from. He said: "I think if they enjoy it and they learn from it, that will cause motivation to go on and do the tasks, and to do them as well as possible". His statement could be interpreted to mean that he is aware of the motivational benefits of making learning stimulating and enjoyable, which is one of the macro-strategies from Dörnyei's framework. *Making learning stimulating and enjoyable* ranked as one of most frequently employed strategies by the participants in this study, and will be further discussed in section 4.3.2. Participant 04 stated that even though she did not plan a lesson thinking that it should be motivating, she also never aimed at planning the most boring lesson ever. She explained that when planning lessons she "look[s] for material that can make it as interesting as possible and engage as many as possible. Motivation is there, but not explicitly. (…) I have other words for it, like it should be fun, exciting and engaging". Participant 03 also stated that she equated motivation with fun. As mentioned in section 3.2.1, it is common for practitioners to equate the adjectives *motivating* with *interesting* or *fun* (Dörnyei, 2001: 72). It could be that the teachers use terms such as *enjoy, fun,* or *engaging* because they believe that if one enjoys an activity, one is more likely to invest a great deal of time thinking and learning, which is one of the underlying assumptions for the macro-strategy *make learning stimulating and enjoyable*. Participant 01 also stated that in addition to defining motivation as a level of interest, he also thought that motivation is driven by a sense of necessity. That the student realises that what he/she is learning is useful and necessary, even if it might not be interesting. Participant 01 explained:

> [Motivation is based on a level of] interest or necessity. You might not be very interested, but there is a necessity for you to learn. If you could have left it out, you would have done so. But you are not allowed for some reason. Either because your life

depends on it or you need it for something else. So both interest; "this is fun", and "I need this". And I think there is a small distinction between those two.
(Participant 01)

This belief is also connected to motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework (i.e. promote instrumental values and *make learning relevant for the learners*) that will be further elaborated on in section 4.3.2.

The teachers' evaluation of their ability to motivate learners

The teachers were asked to impart the degree to which they felt they were able to motivate their learners. This issue has been addressed because it could reveal whether the teachers believe they know enough about motivation and motivational practice to motivate their learners. The teachers were asked to evaluate their motivational skills in the questionnaire and the interviews.

Participants: 40

-(0%): **1 Strongly disagree**

 7 (17.50%): **2 Disagree**

26 (65%): **3 Agree**
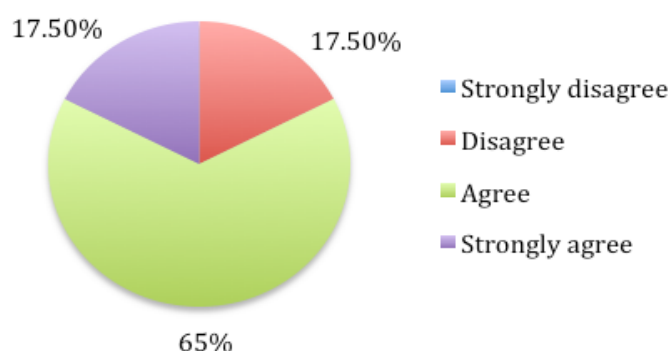
7 (17.50%): **4 Strongly agree**

Figure 4.1: The EFL teachers' evaluation of their ability to motivate learners to foreign language learning

Figure 4.1 illustrates the degree to which the participants agreed with the following statement: *I feel I have the skills to motivate all my students to learn English*. When combining the agreement-percentages, one finds that 82.5% believed they were able to motivate pupils to foreign language learning. 17.5% of the participants disagreed with the statement, though none strongly disagreed. There is the possibility that some of the respondents have claimed that they believe they have the skills to motivate language learners because they believe it is the socially correct answer. Dörnyei (2007: 54) states in a study, participants could sometimes produce responses that do not reflect their true attitudes or beliefs, because they try to meet social expectations. Thus, even if some of the participants believe that they do not have the skills to motivate language learners, they might still agree with the statement.

The interviews provided a more nuanced picture of how the respondents perceived their motivational skills. While none of the participants in the interviews thought that they were not able to motivate their language learners, they all stated that there was still more for

them to learn. Participant 03 believed that she had some experience and some strategies, but students had different needs. Therefore she would always learn new ways to motivate pupils. Participant 01 also stated that even though he believed he had a comprehensive set of tools for motivating pupils, both as groups and as individuals, he believed that there is always something new to learn: "I do not think the tank is full. There is always something new to learn. The minute I think there is not, I will stop".

Participant 04 stated that even though she always tried to plan lessons that the students would perceive as motivating, and felt that in general, she was successful at this, there would always be some students that were left behind. Participant 02 seemed to agree with Participant 04. He said: "You have your ups and downs. Sometimes you are to blame, sometimes it is circumstance, and sometimes it is just a mixture of many reasons. But I think generally, yes [I have the skills to motivate my pupils]". Participant 01 also addressed this fact. He claimed that he believed he had enough knowledge to be able to motivate students for foreign language learning. However, in reality, in the actual language classroom, it is tough to challenge and motivate all the pupils at the same time. To motivate pupils for language learning, according to Participant 01, was ultimately a matter of losing them and picking them up again. He explained:

> I think that a part of teaching is about losing pupils and picking them up, all the time. When [I] work on a topic in English, [I] will lose one pupil while [I am] talking to another. I will [try to] pick them up again. Some pupils I will have lost a good deal of a session or for a full topic because it is so difficult to hold these 27-30 strings. [I] can give them a general task and criteria and try to motivate them, but I will still lose them, and I will pick them up.
> (Participant 01)

As was mentioned above, Participant 01 and 03 explicitly stated that they believed there would always be more to learn regarding motivational strategies. Their belief seems to be supported by the results of the questionnaire concerning this issue. One of the items in the questionnaire asked the teachers to impart their level of agreement with the following statement: *I would like to learn more about how to motivate my pupils in their English learning*.

Participants: 40

-(0%): **1 Strongly disagree**

2 (5%): **2 Disagree**

25 (62.50%): **3 Agree**

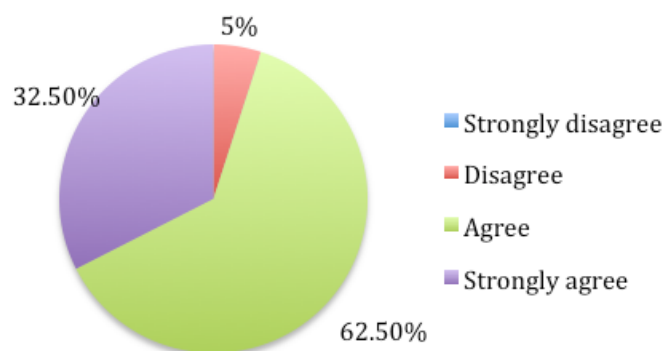13 (32.50%): **4 Strongly agree**

Figure 4.2: The EFL teachers' desire to learn more about how to motivate learners to foreign language learning

Figure 4.2 reveals that a vast majority of the respondents (95%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. 5% disagreed with the statement, while none of the respondents strongly disagreed.

It could be that the participants' desire to learn more about motivational strategies reflects a feeling of inadequacy regarding their ability to motivate language learners. As has been mentioned, there is a possibility that some participants have agreed to the statement *I feel I have the skills to motivate all my students to learn English* because they perceive it as a more socially accepted response. On the other hand, it could also be that the EFL teachers wish to learn more about motivational strategies stem from a belief that "the tank is not full" (Participant 01). It might be connected with the challenge of motivating learners in large classes. While the teachers believed that all students could be motivated under the right conditions, they did not believe that they were able to provide these conditions at all times. Large classes and time pressure seems to be the cause of this. Large classes were challenging because no pupil is alike, thus no pupil share all the same interests. With a larger set of motivational techniques, the teachers might believe they are better equipped to handle large classes.

4.2.1 Main sources of the EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs

The findings presented and discussed in this section are related to the first research question and aim to reveal the degree to which the teachers claim that experience or education has formed their knowledge of L2 motivation and how to motivate language learners. The findings presented here draw on both the quantitative and the qualitative data.

Three out of the four teachers interviewed claimed that they were unfamiliar with the term L2 motivation. The fourth one could not say where he heard about it, but concluded that it most likely was during his higher education: "I do not remember where I heard about it. Probably it must have been at university" (Participant 02). However, lack of familiarity with

the term L2 motivation does not necessarily mean that the other interviewed participants have no knowledge of how to motivate for foreign language learning. After all, the findings that will be presented in section 4.3 show that the teachers report making use of strategies that are based on research from the field of educational psychology and L2 motivation. It is, therefore, plausible to see the interviewed participants unfamiliarity with the term "L2 motivation" as only being connected with the term, not as unfamiliarity with how to motivate to foreign language learning. Still, it could indicate that L2 motivation has not been a specific topic in their teacher education.

The participants were asked to rate the degree to which they agreed to the statement *I have learned how to motivate my students from experience*. Figure 4.3 below presents the results.
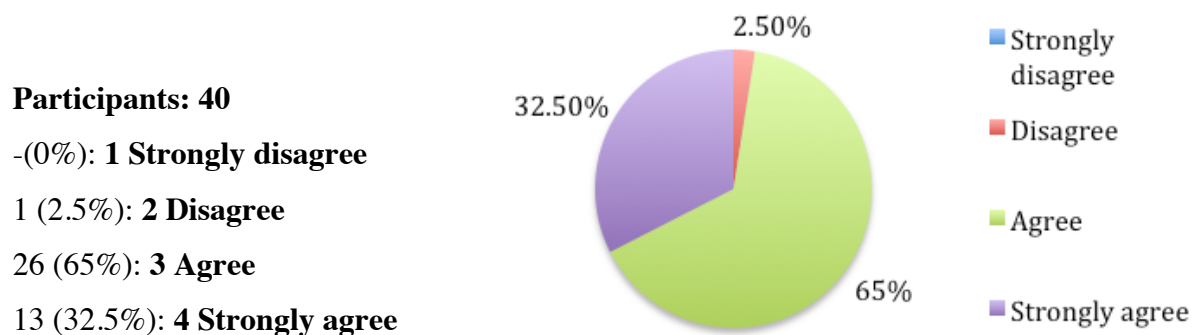
Participants: 40

-(0%): **1 Strongly disagree**

1 (2.5%): **2 Disagree**

26 (65%): **3 Agree**

13 (32.5%): **4 Strongly agree**

Figure 4.3: Experience has formed the EFL teachers' cognitions about motivational practice

The results presented in figure 4.3 reveal that a vast majority agreed with the abovementioned statement: 65% agreed, while 32.5% strongly agreed. 2.5% disagreed with the statement, while none of the participants strongly disagreed.

The high percentage of the agree scores combined indicate that the teachers believe experience has influenced their knowledge of how to motivate learners to a large extent. The results were supported by the findings from the interviews. Participant 01 was quite adamant when he was asked where he acquired his knowledge about motivation. He said: "Experience. I think experience solely". The other interviewees also claimed that experience had taught them much about motivational practice. Participant 03 argued that most of her knowledge come from "experience, things I have tried out in the classroom". She referenced her years as an in-service teacher and the experience she collected from teaching practice during her education. She believed that she learned more about motivation from being in the classrooms with practice teachers than she did from classes at the university. Participant 04 seemed to agree with Participant 03's statements. Participant 04 claimed that knowledge about how to motivate learners comes from trying things out in the classroom, and either succeeding or

failing. She thought that education could provide some ideas for good motivational techniques and approaches, but did not provide many opportunities to test it in the classroom. She claimed that "some of it sounds interesting, and then later you test it in the classroom. Sometimes [the techniques] will work, while some [techniques] do not". Participant 02's statements could also be interpreted to mean that the amount one can learn about motivational practice by reading theories is limited. He said: "Out in the field, that is the most useful. I think [motivation] is something that is a bit hard to read about". Participant 02 stated that he could read other's suggestions of motivational strategies, but he needed the confirmation from trying it out himself or the feedback from pupils to know that techniques had motivational benefits.

Participant 01 also suggested that knowledge of motivational practice came with figuring out one's role as a teacher. He stated: "I had to find a manner of doing my job properly with what I am good at and try to use that to motivate my pupils and be a teacher. Define my role, as it is". His claim could be supported by Dörnyei's (2001: 30) statement that motivational strategies may not be applicable in every context, and may not be suitable for every teacher and all learner groups. It could be that the participants credit their knowledge of motivational practice to experience because it is only through experience they learn which motivational approaches they are comfortable with and feel they are successful in employing. The assumption is supported by language teacher cognition research, which presents findings that indicate that the teachers' development of favoured teaching styles and strategies have a great impact on their cognitions, especially if the teachers feel that their teaching style and strategies are successful.

Regarding which kind of experiences that have provided the teachers with knowledge of motivational practice, the interviewees mentioned own experiences as learners and their experiences from testing techniques in the classroom and co-workers. Participant 03 explained that how she got motivated as a student was a source of knowledge for how she motivated her learners. While Participant 01 stated that the teachers he had as a child taught him how not do things, how to do things, but mostly how to be in the classroom. As mentioned in section 2.4.2, prior language learning experiences form the teachers' cognitions and can influence them throughout their professional lives.

The participants were also asked if they believed they had learned how to motivate learners in their education. The results are based on two sets of statements, the first asking if they believed they had learned about motivational strategies in their teacher education and the second asking if they thought that their formal education had taught them how to motivate

pupils. It was not explicitly stated in the two items that the statements concerned L2 motivation, and there is, therefore, a possibility that the teachers might have thought of their ability to motivate pupils in general. This being said, the respondents to the questionnaire were reminded in the explanatory introduction to respond to the items with motivation for foreign language learning in mind.

Participants: 40

2 (5%): **1 Strongly disagree**

19 (47.5%): **2 Disagree**

16 (40%): **3 Agree**
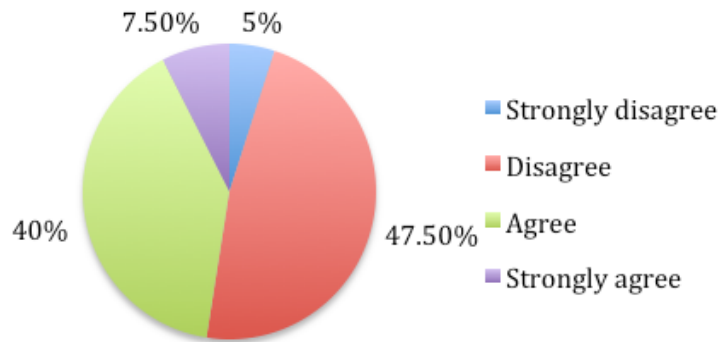
3 (7.5%): **4 Strongly agree**

Figure 4.4: Teacher education has taught the EFL teachers about motivational strategies

Figure 4.4 illustrates the participants' agreement to the first statement. The results show that the participants appear to be divided. 40% of the participants agreed with the statement, while 7.5% strongly agreed. However, a slightly larger percentage of participants disagreed with the statement: 47.5% disagreed, while 5% strongly disagreed. The same tendencies can be observed about the second statement.

Participants: 40

2 (5%): **1 Strongly disagree**

21 (52.5%): **2 Disagree**

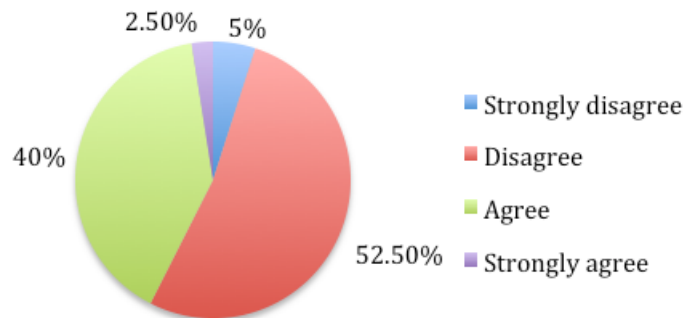16 (40%): **3 Agree**

1 (2.5%): **4 Strongly agree**

Figure 4.5: Formal education has taught the teachers how to motivate learners

In Figure 4.5 one can observe that the participants are of divided opinion regarding the second statement as well. A somewhat larger number disagree (52.5%) or strongly disagree (5%), while 40% of the participants agree and 2.5% strongly agree with the statement.

When the interviewed participants were asked what they learned about motivational practice in their education, they claimed that they did not remember. In Participant 04's case, it seemed like she felt obliged to say that she had learned something from her teacher

education: "I probably have to give the university some credit. They must have taught me something". It might be that some of the participants that claim education taught them about motivational strategies and practice, thought the same way as Participant 04. However, it could also be that they believe it is the socially correct answer, as was addressed in section 4.2 as well.

However, the interviewees suggested that the reason why they found it difficult to remember what they learned about how to motivate learners was because it was not addressed explicitly in their education. Rather, it was embedded in subjects such as pedagogy and English didactics. Participant 04 said: "You do learn strategies when you learn that to do something in a certain way is smart, because etc. It's baked into it, though it's very diffuse". Participant 03 indicated that the extent to which the English courses provided practical advices for teaching and motivating language learners depended on the teacher of the course. She said:

> The last teacher we had was very good and gave many advices on how to teach and motivate pupils. But we also had teachers who did not teach us anything about what to do in the classroom, who only taught us theory.
> (Participant 03)

It could be that the reason why the participants were of divided opinion regarding whether their teacher education had taught them how to motivate learners is that motivational strategies are embedded in pedagogy and didactics, as suggested by Participant 03 ad 04. As was mentioned in section 2.4.3, teacher education may not have much effect on teachers' pre-existing cognitions, if these cognitions are not made explicit, discussed and challenged. Thus, teacher students receiving the same teacher education could have vastly different experiences from it depending on whether the teacher of the course made explicit the motivational aspects of a topic addressed. It is also possible that the teachers who disagreed with the two abovementioned strategies believe that their experience have taught them more about motivational practice than education. Based on the interviews it would appear that the interviewees credit experience more than education. More research is needed in order to ascertain why some of the teachers do not think that their education taught them how to motivate language learners. It could also be interesting to investigate the degree to which teacher education addressed teacher students' prior beliefs about *L2 motivation*.

4.2.2 Summary

The findings of related to research question 01 suggest that the EFL teachers' believe motivation to be necessary for learning. The results indicate that the interviewees do not consciously make use of the term motivation, but rather have other words for it in their everyday terminology. The respondents claimed that they used words such as *interest*, *necessity*, and *fun* or *enjoy* as synonyms for motivation. Moreover, the findings of this study suggest that both education and experience has formed the participants' cognitions about motivation and how to motivate language learners. Though based on the results from interviews, experience appears to be more weighted than education. Finally, it seems like the participants of this study believe they have the necessary knowledge and skill-set to motivate their learners for foreign language learning, though they would still like to learn more about the issue.

4.3 Norwegian EFL teachers' reported use of motivational strategies in the language classroom

This section will present and discuss findings concerning the second research question, namely, *which motivational strategies do the Norwegian EFL teachers report to most frequently make use of?*

The aim was to investigate which of the strategies from Dörnyei's framework of L2 motivational techniques (2001) the participants utilize of the most. Section 4.3.1 will present a figure (figure 4.6) that illustrates on average how frequently the participants reported to make use of the macro-strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001). Section 4.3.2 will present the nine strategies that ranked as being most frequently employed by the EFL teachers in this study. The data from the interviews and the open-responses items in the questionnaire will be used to discuss how the reported frequent use of a strategy corresponds to the teachers' claimed beliefs and knowledge of motivation. Also, the nine strategies will be examined in relation to theory and previous research. Section 4.3.3 will provide a summary of the findings presented in this section.

4.3.1 Frequent use of motivational strategies

As mentioned earlier, the participants received a list of motivational strategies in the questionnaire, based on Dörnyei's framework (2001). The EFL teachers rated on a five-point scale the frequency of which they made use of the strategies ("not part of my teaching -> very

often). Figure 4.6 below presents the median frequency of reported use for each strategy. The median is a measure of central tendency, meaning the median represents the typical answer of a particular group of people (Brown, 2001: 118), i.e. the EFL teachers participating in this study. The x-axis in figure 4.6 illustrates the frequent use of strategies by displaying numbers from 1-5. Number 1 on the x-axis represents the label "not part of my teaching" from the Likert scale. Number 2 and 3 represent the labels "almost never" and "occasionally" respectively. The numbers 4 and 5 indicates the number of respondents who answered "often" and "very often".

As can be observed in figure 4.6, columns have been colour-coded. The colours indicate the interquartile range (IQR) of each strategy. The interquartile range was used to indicate the dispersion of the quantitative data. The columns coloured green had an interquartile range of 5 to 4. The strategy *protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence* is the only column coloured yellow, which illustrates that it is the only strategy to receive an interquartile range of 4.25 to 4. The columns coloured orange had an interquartile range of 4 to 3, while the IQR of the two blue columns was 5 to 3. The strategy *increase learner satisfaction* was the only strategy with an IQR of 4 to 2. The final strategy *offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner* is coloured dark blue and had an IQR of 3 to 2.
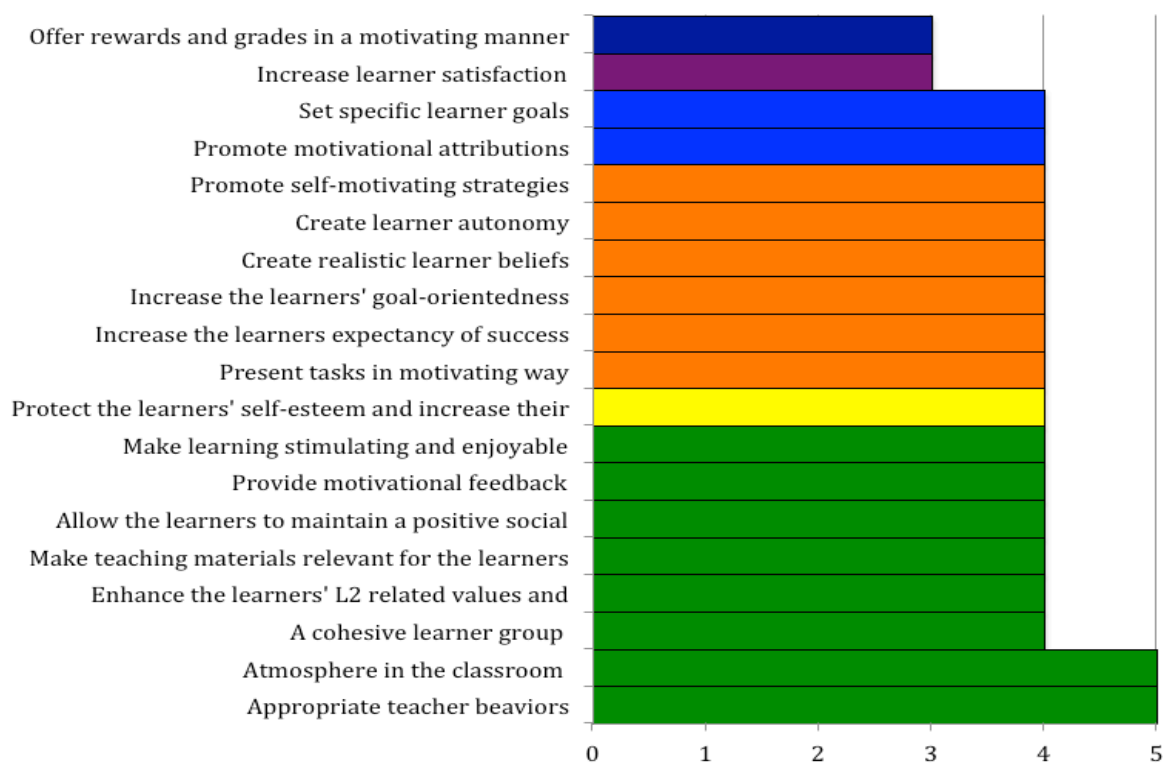

Figure 4.6: Measure of central tendency for the reported frequent use of motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001)

As can be observed in figure 4.6, the EFL teachers claimed to employ the identified motivational strategies relatively evenly. Two strategies distinguish themselves by being used very often according to the median, i.e. *appropriate teacher behaviours* (Mdn=5, IQR=5 to 4) and *a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* (Mdn=5, IQR=5 to 4). At the other end of the scale, two strategies were, in general, reported to be occasionally used: *increase learner satisfaction* (Mdn=3, IQR=4 to 2) and *offer rewards and grades in a motivating manner* (Mdn=3, IQR=3 to 2).

The measure of central tendency indicates that the remaining strategies were often used according to the teachers (Mdn=4), though the interquartile range for the strategies differed. The following strategies had an interquartile range of 5 to 4: strategies *create a cohesive learner group, enhance the learners' L2-related values and attitudes, making the teaching material relevant for learners, making learning stimulating and enjoyable, allowing the learners to maintain a positive social image* and *providing motivational feedback*. The IQR indicates that the majority of teachers claimed to make use of these strategies often or very often.

One strategy showed a remarkable consensus among the teachers regarding reported frequent use. *Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence* had an interquartile range of 4.25 to 4, meaning that most of the respondents indicate to agree that they make use of this strategy often.

The measure of central tendency for the strategies *increasing the learners' expectancy of success, increasing the learners' goal-orientedness, creating realistic learner beliefs, presenting tasks in a motivating way, creating learner autonomy* and *promoting self-motivating learner strategies* indicated that the teachers felt they made use of these strategies often (Mdn=4). However, as can be observed in figure 4.6, the interquartile range of these strategies were 4 to 3, indicating that the majority of the teachers believed they made use of these strategies often or occasionally. Due to the interquartile range of these strategies, it cannot be claimed that the reported use of these strategies is often as the median suggests. Furthermore, since this study cannot show how the individual respondents interpret the labels of the Likert scale (e.g. how do the teachers interpret *often* in comparison to *occasionally*?), it would be misguiding to take the interquartile range of these strategies to mean that the teachers are in agreement of the frequency of use. In this study, if a strategy has an interquartile range of 1, it could indicate that most respondents are in agreement with how frequently they employ a strategy. However, when the interquartile range deviates from 4 (often) to 3 (occasionally), even though it is an IQR of 1, it would be unreasonable to claim

that the teachers agree upon how often they employ a strategy. The opinion of the teachers is therefore viewed as divided concerning the strategies in question.

The median of the strategies *setting specific learner goals* and *promoting motivational attributions* also indicated that the teachers employed the strategies often (Mdn=4). The interquartile range of these strategies was 5 to 3, indicating that the teachers were not in consensus regarding how often they felt they made use of these strategies. However, for the former strategy, *setting specific learner goals* the majority of the respondents (N=28, 71.83%) indicated that they made use of the strategy often or very often, while some of the respondents (N=9, 23%) claimed to make use of the strategy occasionally. A low number of respondents (N=2, 5%) indicated that they almost never made use of the strategy. Despite reporting an interquartile range of 5 to 3, the percentages reveal that a large number of the respondents report making use of the strategy *setting specific learner goals* often or very often.

Based on the interquartile range, opinions seemed to be divided regarding the latter strategy (*promoting motivational attributions*) as well. Nevertheless, the majority of the respondents (N=26, 63.49%) reported making use of the strategy often or very often. Some of the respondents claimed to make use of the strategy occasionally (N= 11, 26.83%), while the remaining respondents reported that they almost never used the strategy (N=2, 4.88%) or that it was not part of their teaching (N=2, 4.88%). Despite the interquartile range showing that the data disperse from 5 to 3, it seems like the majority of the respondents do claim to make use of the two strategies very often or often, leaving it reasonable to accept the reported frequent use to be often, as indicated by the measure of central tendency.

The remaining two strategies that have not yet been addressed (i.e. *increase learner satisfaction* and *offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner*), distinguished themselves by having the lowest reported frequency of use (Mdn=3). The former strategy's interquartile range (IQR=4 to 2) suggested that the respondents were of divided opinion regarding how often they claimed to make use of it. The interquartile range of the strategy *offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner* indicates that this is the most underutilized strategy from Dörnyei's framework (2001).

This section has presented figure 4.6, which informs of how frequently the participants claim to make use of the motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001). The following section will present the strategies that the teachers claimed to use most frequently (i.e. strategies with a median of 5 or 4) and that the teachers appeared to most in agreement over regarding frequency of use (i.e. the strategies had an interquartile range of 5 to 4 or 4.25 to 4). The participants' statements from the interviews and open-ended items from the

questionnaire corresponding to the strategies will be taken into account. The strategies will also be discussed in relation to theory and previous research.

4.3.2 Nine frequently used motivational strategies

The following section will present the nine most frequently used strategies as reported by the respondents. It will include responses from the interviews and the open-responses from the questionnaire corresponding to the individual strategies. The strategies will be discussed in reference to previous research and theory. This section will address the following motivational approaches: *appropriate teacher behaviours, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, create a cohesive learner group, enhance the learners' L2 related values and attitudes, make teaching materials relevant for the learners, allow the learners to maintain a positive social image, provide motivational feedback, make learning stimulating and enjoyable* and *protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence*.

Appropriate teacher behaviours

The macro-strategy *appropriate teacher behaviours* was presented in the questionnaire as two micro-strategies: *the teachers' behaviour as a motivational tool* and *a good relationship with the students*. The following paragraphs will present the frequencies of the teachers' reported use of the two micro-strategies and present findings from the interviews and open-item responses from the questionnaire to ascertain the teachers understanding and use of the strategies. The strategies will also be discussed in relation to previous research and theory.

Participants: 41

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

7 (17%): **3 Occasionally**

16 (39%): **4 Often**
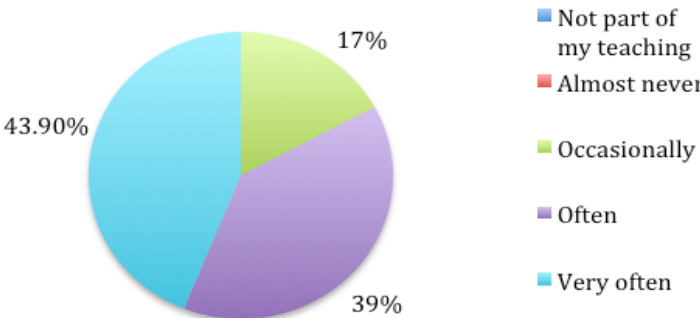
18 (43.90%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.7: The teachers' own behaviour as a motivational tool (Mdn= 4, IQR= 5 to 4)

Figure 4.7 shows how often the teachers claim to use their behaviour as a motivational tool. As can be observed, none of the participants reported never or almost never to use this strategy. 43.90% stated that they used the strategy very often and 39% said they used it often, while 17% claimed to use it occasionally.

The comments from the open-responses indicated that the teachers practice this strategy by sharing their enthusiasm for the language and its speakers, and by speaking English in the classroom. The teachers who were interviewed also provided statements that corresponded with the open-response comments about speaking English in the classroom. Participant 04 was the only one who explicitly mentioned the motivational effect of an enthusiastic teacher, though that does not mean that the three other teachers interviewed disagree or were unfamiliar with it. She said: "I find it motivating when I meet people who really know their subject, who are passionate and competent. They can talk about anything, whether it is interesting or not".

Many scholars view showing passion and enthusiasm for the subject one is specialised in as an essential ingredient of motivational teaching (Dörnyei, 2001: 33). Csikszentmihalyi (1997: 21), for instance, argued that if teachers do not find the subject matter they are teaching enjoyable and worthwhile in and of itself, they convey the message to students that "learning is only a means to other ends and lacks intrinsic motivation". While none of the other teachers interviewed mentioned enthusiasm, as stated above, they did focus on the importance of being competent and specialised in the subject one is teaching. Participant 01 thought that his English pronunciation could contribute to the students' motivation. He explained it as following:

> I think that pupils believe that I am better in English than I am because of the way I speak English. And it makes pupils trust me. So when they ask me questions, they ask questions to a teacher who knows. And that is motivation, I think.
> (Participant 01)

Participant 01's statement could be interpreted as a way of saying that the pupils view him as competent due to his English pronunciation, and that to have a teacher who is specialised in the subject is a motivating factor. Participant 02 also addressed the issue of being specialised in one's subject and how this relates to trustworthiness and ultimately student motivation. Participant 02 said:

> I think [being specialized in the subject one teaches] gives you confidence. And I think a certain level of confidence in what you are teaching is necessary to be trustworthy and actually come across. I think that if the pupils see or realise that the teacher is not confident or not quite up to date or does not seem comfortable teaching this subject at all, they will start to pay less attention. Even if you are doing an all right job, they might not pay attention, because you do not come across as trustworthy or as a person with authority within that subject anymore.

(Participant 02)

Though being specialised is not explicitly mentioned in Dörnyei's framework (2001), it can be argued that it is implicit. For the teacher to be able to implement the motivational strategies that Dörnyei proposes, a certain amount of subject-matter knowledge is necessary as well. For instance, it can be argued that the teacher has a greater advantage to provide learners with regular experiences of success, provide positive information feedback or vary learning tasks, if he/she has studied English. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001: 34) highlights commitment and expectations to students' progress as a factor in appropriate teacher behaviours. Ways of expressing that the students' learning matters are e.g. to offer concrete assistance and to help the students move forward in their learning progress. It is conceivable that if the students do not view their teacher as competent within the subject they are teaching, they will not believe that the teacher is capable of helping them. Or that if the teacher does not feel confident or comfortable in teaching English, he/she will not explore new or different ways of presenting or working on a subject. In addition, it is debatable whether a teacher who lacks competence, confidence or is uncomfortable in teaching English, will be able to demonstrate enthusiasm for the course, and in relation to that, instil in students a willingness to pursue knowledge.

As mentioned in section 1.1, the belief that students learn more if the teachers know their subjects well has lead to measures for improving Norwegian schools, such as investments in continuing education and requiring that teachers who teach English, Norwegian or mathematics need at least 30 or 60 credits (Ministry of Education and Research, 2016). However, while such measures can be effective, findings from teacher cognition show that contextual factors can inhibit teachers in realising the beliefs and knowledge they have in practice. Participant 04, in particular, explicitly stated that hectic days prevented her from trying out new things in the classroom.

In the future, it would be interesting to investigate whether if the government's course of action indeed has improved the schools, and how these steps have affected student motivation. If the teachers do not learn how to deal with the contextual constraints and are not encouraged to reflect upon their beliefs and practices during their education, there is a possibility that the government's program will fail to have the full desired effect.

The following paragraphs will address the micro-strategy *a good relationship with students*, before viewing the reported use of the macro-strategy *appropriate teacher behaviours* as a whole in relation to previous research.

Participants: 40

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

1 (2.50%): **3 Occasionally**

10 (25%): **4 Often**
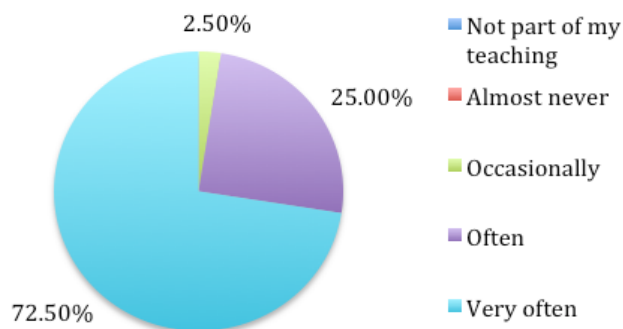
29 (72.50%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.8: A good relationship with the students (Mdn= 5, IQR= 5 to 4)

Figure 4.8 illustrates the frequency of the respondents' reported use of the motivational strategy *to build a good rapport with the pupils*. 97.5% of the participant reported making use of the strategy very often or often, while 2.5% made use of it occasionally. None of the participants reported almost never to make use of strategy, and none of them claimed that the strategy was not part of their teaching.

Most of the comments in the questionnaire illustrated that the teachers tried to give the students attention every day and that they believed this to be important. The teachers highlighted the importance of being a presence in the classroom and seeing every student. Participant 01 also mentioned that: "[The act of motivating students] starts when you enter the classroom. It starts with seeing and being seen"

Giving the students personal attention is listed by Dörnyei as a way of developing a good rapport with students (2001: 39). One can argue that being present in the classroom is a precondition for the teacher to be able to listen and pay attention to students and to recognize what is going in the classroom. If the teacher is absentminded during an entire lesson, it is likely that he/ she does not notice if some students are struggling with a task, if they achieve goals or whether the students are having a good or bad day. As an extension of that, and especially if it is the norm that the teacher is absentminded in the classroom, it is also possible that the students might feel that the teacher does not care about them as people or about their learning.

The participants claimed that they showed acceptance and interest in the students by talking to them, asking the students about their lives outside of school and getting to know the students in general. One of the respondents stated: "I hope all my students feel that I like them and enjoy their company" (Comment from the open-ended items in the questionnaire).

The participants' comments can be connected to "the teacher's ability to listen and pay attention to the students", which is viewed as one of the components of developing a personal relationship with students (Dörnyei, 2001: 36). Dörnyei (2001: 38) states that small gestures such asking students about their lives outside of school and showing an interest in their hobbies are ways of conveying personal attention that does not take up much time, but could still have significant effect on the students. In addition to creating a good rapport with the students, Participant 04 claimed that getting to know the students was necessary to be able to adapt teaching materials to the students' competence and to be able to motivate them.

> It is easier to challenge [the students] when you know them, when you know if this is a low achieving student who needs much accommodation or if this is a high achieving student who is able but needs to be pushed. I find that it is a great advantage to know [the students] because you cannot tell from looking at them what their reason [for being unmotivated is].
> (Participant 04)

Participant 04's statement could be used as an example of why it is important to develop a good relationship with the students. It can be argued that there are limits to how well one can know one's students if one does not have a good rapport with them. However, Participant 04's statement also shows how Dörnyei's motivational strategies (2001) overlap and interconnect. The reference to whether a student would need more help or more challenges could be connected to the strategy *protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence* because one of the proposed ways of achieving that is providing the learners with regular experiences of success (Dörnyei, 2001: 89). If the learner is given tasks that he/she is not able to accomplish, it could affect their self-esteem and/or confidence. Participant 04's statement could also be related to the strategy *making learning stimulating and enjoyable* because when addressing this strategy Dörnyei (2001: 77) specifies the importance of challenging tasks. However, in order to provide the students with tasks that challenge them and contribute to their self-esteem and self-confidence, it is reasonable to claim that the teachers must know their students, and thus, develop a good relationship with the students.

Regarding motivation, the teachers' statements about showing an interest in the students' lives outside of school and getting to know them, is supported by Brophy (2010: 23). He states that when the teacher conveys that he/she likes his/her students, it tends to result in higher motivation to learn and a sense of belonging in the classroom for the students.

The participants' comments in the questionnaire pertaining to the strategy *a good relationship with students* also signified that motivational approaches are not mutually exclusive. The participants claimed that they achieved a good relationship with their students by using humour and allowing mistakes in the classroom, which Dörnyei presents as ways of creating *a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* (2001: 42). The participants also mentioned actions such as praising effort and progress and giving positive feedback as ways of developing good relationships with the students. These actions could also be used to illustrate the motivational strategies *promote motivational attributions* and *provide motivational feedback*. Yet, as mentioned previously, Dörnyei (2001: 34) states that showing commitment to and expectations of students' academic progress are among the ways *appropriate teacher behaviours* can have motivational influence on students. It is reasonable to characterise "praising effort and progress" and "giving positive feedback" as ways for the teacher to show their commitment to the students learning and progress.

Having presented and discussed the findings in this study concerning the motivational strategy *appropriate teacher behaviours*, the following paragraphs will address the strategy *pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere*.

Create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere

The strategy *pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* is one of the macro-strategies presented in Dörnyei's framework (2001) and is, as previously mentioned, characterised as one of the preconditions to employ motivational strategies successfully. The other preconditions is the aforementioned strategy *appropriate teacher behaviours* and *a cohesive learner group*, which will be discussed below.

Participants: 39

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

- (0.0%): **3 Occasionally**

16 (41.03%): **4 Often**

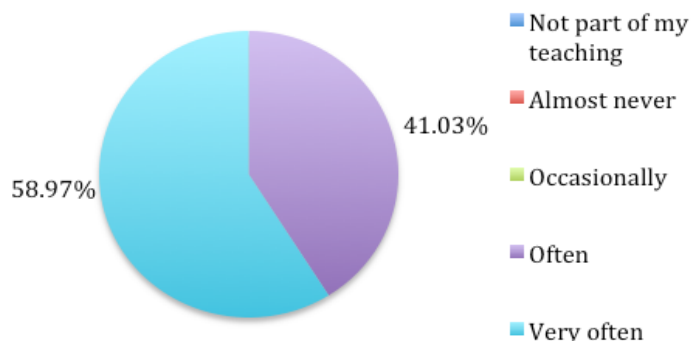23 (58.97%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.9: Create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere (Mdn=5, IQR= 5 to 4)

In figure 4.9 one can observe that all of the participants claimed that they either employed this strategy often (N=16, 41.03%) or very often (N=23, 58.97%). As none of the participants claimed to use it occasionally, almost never or never, it could seem like the teachers perceive the strategy as highly valuable. Participant 01 explained that for him, the most important job he did as a teacher was working with classroom and school environment. He also explained how this was connected to motivation:

> I think the most important motivating factor I can work with is not motivating for a topic, but motivating for being in the school situation by creating good classes. So I think the most important job I do is working with classroom environments and school environment. Because therein lies the key for pupils to work on a topic.
> (Participant 01)

In Participant 01's uttering one can detect an understanding for how positive classroom environments are a precondition for any motivational strategies to be effective. While this study cannot claim that all the respondents share this understanding, it can speculate that since all respondents reported to use the strategy often or very often, they do find it valuable. Comments in the questionnaire such as: "make a safe learning environment" and "allow the learners to feel safe to contribute in the classroom" indicate that the teachers view it as essential that the students feel safe in the classroom.

The need to feel safe has been addressed by several researchers and scholars, such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1962) or Ford's taxonomy of human goals (1992). According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, the feeling of safety is among a person's basic needs, and it has to be fulfilled for the human to develop further (Schunk, Meece & Pintrich, 2014: 199). While Ford present safety as a goal that humans pursue that also address the reasons an individual is motivated (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000: 197). It is possible that the teachers' recognize that the feeling of safety is a basic need that needs to be fulfilled in order to perform in class and to be motivated to learn. Participant 02 explained why he thought feeling safe was vital:

> If you do not feel safe, I think you will (…) go into your shell and avoid, if possible, exposing yourself too much. They are teenagers, so if some people are chuckling over something completely unrelated in the corner, this could be construed as being somebody chuckling over what I just said, or I made a slip-of-the-tongue, or I said the wrong word. They are at a very sensitive age in 8th-10th grade. So I think feeling safe is a prerequisite for performing.
> (Participant 02)

Several of the teachers responding to the questionnaire seemed to agree with Participant 02 regarding the effect of laughter. In addition, they revealed that negative comments were not allowed in the classroom. For instance, one of the teachers commented that: "I am very strict when it comes to negative comments from other students when students talk in class". The responses to the open-ended item also focused on teaching the learners that making mistakes is allowed and natural part of the language learning process. This can be observed from comments such as: "we consider wrong answers/mistakes to be an opportunity to learn. I often say that I love mistakes", "talk about the classroom as a learning arena where mistakes are important to make because we learn from them." "Take the time to talk about how it is OK to say something wrong" (Comments from the open-ended items in the questionnaire).

These two foci points could be viewed as intertwined. It could be difficult to perceive mistakes as a natural thing if someone laughs or comments every time a word is mispronounced or used in the wrong context. Moreover, as Participant 02 notes, one of the consequences could be that students become hesitant to perform and/or talk English in the classroom.

The participants' responses reflect L2 motivational theories well. Dörnyei (2001:40) clearly states that language learning is "one of the most face-threatening school subjects" because the learners are forced to express themselves in a language they most likely do not master perfectly. The students run the risk of making some mistake whenever they open their mouth. Learners' fear of misspeaking in the classroom could fall under the category of language anxiety, which has been proved to have adverse effects on students' L2 achievement (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Horwitz et al. (1986: 127) state some students carry the belief that nothing should be uttered in the foreign language classroom until it can be said correctly, and that it is not accepted to guess unknown words in the target language. When the teachers in this study claim that they try to establish a norm in their classroom that mistakes are welcomed, it could also be construed as an attempt to correct erroneous learner beliefs.

Being successful in creating a classroom climate that is safe, pleasant and supportive does not necessarily result in learners who communicate willingly without any hesitation in the target language. As Participant 01 said: "If you perform a poem in class you are nervous. It's not comfortable. But the setting should feel safe, rather than comfortable. And that is really important".

To create a safe environment takes more than imprinting on the learners that mistakes are a natural part of the language learning process. When the participants mention that they do not allow negative comments and laughter, they touch upon the importance of having a

learner group that show respect to each other and that the students' relationship with each other affect the classroom climate. Creating a cohesive learner group was also ranked high in this study and will be presented below.

Create a cohesive learner group

The motivational strategy to create a cohesive learner group was phrased in the questionnaire as: "a learner group where there is a strong "we" feeling and which students are happy to belong to". The reason for this was that the feedback from the pilot study indicated that the participants were not familiar with the term "cohesive" and thus did not understand what the strategy implied.

Participants: 41

2 (4.88%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

8 (19.51%): **3 Occasionally**

14 (34.15%): **4 Often**
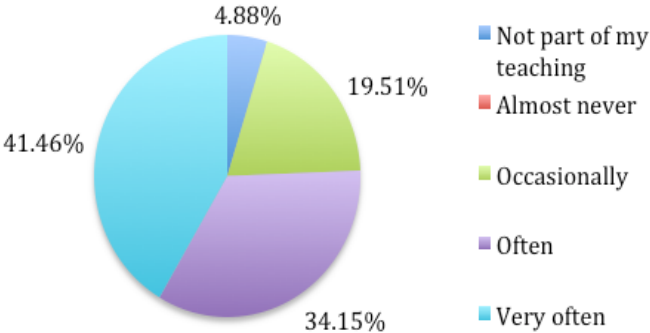
27 (41.46%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.10: Create a cohesive learner group (Mdn= 4, IQR= 5 to 4)

Figure 4.10 show that 41.46% of the respondents claimed to make use of this strategy very often, while 34.15% reported that they used it often. While none of the participants claimed almost never to employ the strategy, 19.51% stated that they used is occasionally and 4.88% said that the strategy was not part of their teaching practice.

The respondents were encouraged to explain how they understood each strategy or give examples of how they operationalized the strategies. Still, it does not seem like the respondents who claimed this strategy was not part of their teaching practice gave any explanations for why. One can speculate that it might be because they do not perceive it as important, or they did not understand the strategy, or perhaps there are contextual constraints that make it difficult for them to create cohesive learner groups. Nonetheless, the majority of the participants claimed that they applied this strategy often or very often, ranking it as among the nine most frequently used strategies in Norwegian EFL classrooms, according to the participants in this study.

In the comments from the questionnaire the participants stated that they tried to make sure every student felt like a part of the group and claimed that though it takes time to build such groups, it is important. Concerning how they went about to create cohesive groups, only one theme seemed to recur, namely working together in groups or pairs. The participants mentioned that having the students do activities together that required cooperation and encouraging the learners to help each other were techniques used to bring the learner group closer. Dörnyei labelled this technique "proximity, contact and interaction" (2001: 44) and stated that working in groups and pairs is an effective way of allowing the students to come into contact with each other and interact.

Some of the participants mentioned that it was important to create a safe atmosphere and made references to the classroom climate, which makes sense seeing as cohesive learner groups, in turn, could contribute to create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. Johnson & Johnson (1975, cited in Jones & Jones, 1998: 113) also stressed the importance of feeling safe, liked, accepted and supported by fellow students for establishing group cohesion. Once again it could be argued that the motivational strategies affect each other and are not isolated techniques working towards only one goal.

It seems like the participants also acknowledge the effect of group dynamics in relation to learning environments and motivation. Participant 01 stated that to feel that one is part of a group and that the group is keen on learning: "is the essence of being motivated". Thus indicating that if the group does not value learning, it could be harder for the individual go against the group and make an effort in his/her academic progress. In relation to another motivational strategy concerning goal-orientedness, Dörnyei (2001: 61) states that if the class group can agree upon a common purpose and sense of direction, the teacher has won half the motivation battle. Even though the participants in this study relate that they have experienced the effect of group dynamics on learning and motivation, they do not claim to talk to the group about the overreaching goal of learning English and how to reach it. In the questionnaire's comments concerning goal-orientedness, the teachers focus on setting specific individual goals and informing the students of the objective of lessons.

The quantitative and qualitative data in this study corresponding with the teachers' efforts to create cohesive learner groups indicate that the teachers frequently use the motivational strategy. However, besides claiming to let students work in pairs and stating that it is important to feel safe and part of the group, the data does not reveal much about how the teachers go about to achieve cohesiveness. It could be that the teachers view group cohesiveness as a way to create a positive classroom climate, and are not tuned into the how

to deal with the effect of group dynamics on the student motivation and learning. Though it must also be noted that the way the strategy was presented to the participants in the questionnaire could have an impact on their understanding of the strategies, rating of frequent use and explanatory comments. The item in the questionnaire focused on creating learner groups with a strong "we" feeling and which students are happy to belong to. It could be the reason why the explanatory comments reflected working in pairs and helping each other, but not working towards a common goal.

Enhance the learners' L2-related values and attitudes

As has been mentioned earlier (see section 2.3.1), enhancing the learners' L2 related values and attitudes involve techniques aimed to influence students' intrinsic, integrative and instrumental values towards the target language. In the questionnaire distributed one item addressed one value. As can be observed from figure 4.6 in section 4.3.1, the macro-strategy *enhance the learners' L2 related values and attitudes* was on average employed often by the EFL teachers participating in this study, with an interquartile ranger of 5 to 4. In the following paragraphs the participants' responses to the specific value will be presented.

Participants: 41

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

2 (4.88%): **2 Almost never**

7 (17.07%): **3 Occasionally**

21 (51.22%): **4 Often**
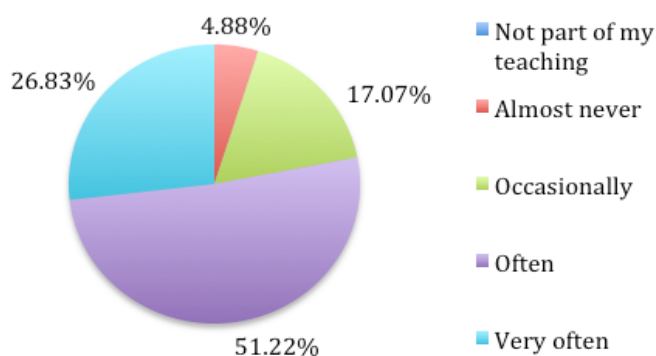
11 (26.83%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.11: Raise the learners' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

Figure 4.11 illustrates the participants stated frequent use of techniques to raise the students' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process. 26.83% claimed to do so very often, and 51.22% stated that they employed such techniques often. 17.07% reported that they used the strategy occasionally, while 4.88% almost never made use of this strategy. None of the participants claimed that the strategy was not part of their teaching.

The motivational strategy to aimed to raise the learners' intrinsic interest in learning the target language was phrased as following in the questionnaire: "raise the learners' interest in and anticipated enjoyment of the language learning activity". The researcher chose not to include the term "intrinsic", as the pilot study showed that the word caused some confusion.

When the participants explained which techniques they employ to raise the learners' intrinsic interest, the majority of the comments focused the use of a variety of teaching methods and learning activities. The teachers gave examples such as using games, short video clips, fun facts about the target language and culture and introducing the students to interesting literature.

By using activities such as games, songs, and drama it could be that the teachers are trying to connect language acquisition to activities the students are likely to find already interesting. According to Dörnyei (2001: 53) that is a way of demonstrating for the students that learning English can be enjoyable. It could also be a potential way of providing the students with powerful learning experiences, which was presented in section 2.3.1 as a method for socializing positive language-related values and attitudes.

The same can be said regarding the teachers claim to make use of many different approaches and activities. In a classroom with 25 or more students, it is not likely that all students will find the same activities interesting. However, by varying activities chances are that at some point all students will come across interesting and enjoyable ways of learning English. Also, by varying, the teacher demonstrates for the learners that language proficiency can be achieved in numerous ways and the process can be stimulating.

It seems like the teachers believe that making the learning experience stimulating and enjoyable is the best way to raise the students' intrinsic interest in the language learning process. While this view is supported by Dörnyei's suggestions on how to influence students' inherent interest (2001: 53), it is also presented by Dörnyei as a macro-strategy in its own right. The macro-strategy *making learning stimulating and enjoyable* is among the nine most frequent used strategies in this study, and will, therefore, be discussed in detail later in the thesis.

The participants also rated the degree to which they made use of techniques to promote integrative values. The pilot study indicated the term "integrative" was unfamiliar for the teachers. Therefore, the motivational strategy was presented in the following form in the questionnaire: "encourage a positive and open-minded disposition (norsk: gemytt) towards the English language and its speakers".

Participants: 39

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

3 (7.69%): **3 Occasionally**

23 (58.97%): **4 Often**
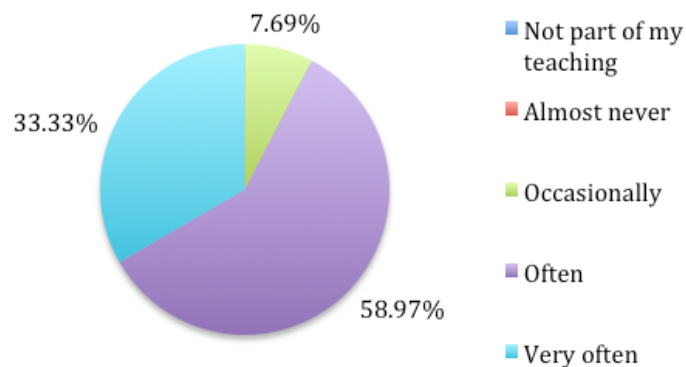
13 (33.33%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.12: Promote "integrative" values (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

In figure 4.12 one can observe that the strategy is reported to be frequently used by the participating teachers in this study. 33.33% of the respondents claimed to make use of this strategy very often, while 58.97% claimed they used it often. 7.69% reported making use of the approach occasionally, while none of the participants stated to almost never or never take advantage of it.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 159, cited in Dörnyei, 2001: 54) said that integrative values related to the L2 and its speakers refer to a metaphorical integration: "the individual's willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups". Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001: 54) states that in order to be motivated to learn a language, it is an advantage to be positive and open-minded towards the culture of the language, its speakers, and its influence.

In the questionnaire's comments section to the strategy in focus here, the teachers mentioned cultural awareness and talking to the students about different cultures and meeting people with an open mind. What is interesting is that only three teachers explicitly mentioned that they included the language's culture in their teaching practice. Another participant stated that he made sure the learners became familiar with different English accents, which could indicate that he also familiarized the learners with different cultures.

When reviewing the participants' comments to the other strategies, the topic of culture was mentioned on two occasions. Both times the participants claimed that they tried to share their enthusiasm for English speaking cultures with their students. One participant stated so about the strategy *the teacher's own behaviour as a motivational tool* (see section 4.3.2), while the other teacher mentioned it in relation to raising the learners' intrinsic interest in the learning process (section 4.3.2). Moreover, two teachers stated that they introduced the learners to fun facts to raise the students' interest and anticipated enjoyment of the language learning activity (i.e. intrinsic value). It was not made clear what these fun facts were about,

though it could be they meant fun facts about cultures where English is spoken. None of the interviewed participants talked explicitly about teaching the students about culture.

It does not mean that it is not part of the teachers' practice. In the open-ended items to the questionnaire the teachers repeatedly mention that they make use of books, music, and movies in their lessons. Dörnyei (2001: 55) states that bringing cultural products, such as music and films, to the classroom is a way of raising cross-cultural awareness. However, this study does not show how the teachers utilize the cultural products and can therefore not conclude that the teachers use them to promote integrative values and teach intercultural competence. It can only speculate that there is a possibility the teachers' do.

The teachers did, however, mention that they talked about the influence of the English language in the world. Several mentioned that they spoke to their learners about English as a lingua franca or as an international language. Perhaps they do so in order influence the learners' willingness to talk to and interact with people who either are native speakers of English or who speak English as a second or foreign language. Participant 03 believed that her learners might be motivated to learn English for this reason. She said: "Motivation [to learn English] is perhaps driven by a wish to communicate with other people who speak the language" (Participant 03). She also talked about the different possibilities that were made available when being a proficient user of English, though this will be addressed when presenting instrumental values below.

Though the teachers did not provide much information about how they encouraged the learners to be positive and open-minded towards the English language and its speakers, they did claim that they did it frequently. Perhaps the teachers' ratings regarding the frequent use of this strategy reflected their belief that it is important more than their actual practice. As has been mentioned earlier (section 2.4.3), teachers can carry beliefs about learning that they are not able to transfer to their teaching practice. It is also possible that the teachers were not able to give more examples because they did not have time to reflect deeply on their practice when they were responding to the questionnaire. It is also important to note that it was voluntary for the teachers to provide explanatory comments to the strategies in the questionnaire.

The final value addressed to enhance L2-related values and attitudes is the instrumental value. In figure 4.13 below the teachers has indicated how often they believe they make use of techniques to promote student awareness of the instrumental values associated with being able to speak English. In the questionnaire, the term *instrumental values* was substituted by the terms *benefits* and *usefulness* to ensure that the teachers understood the strategy.

Participants: 38

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

1 (2.63%): **2 Almost never**

8 (21%): **3 Occasionally**

16 (42.11%): **4 Often**
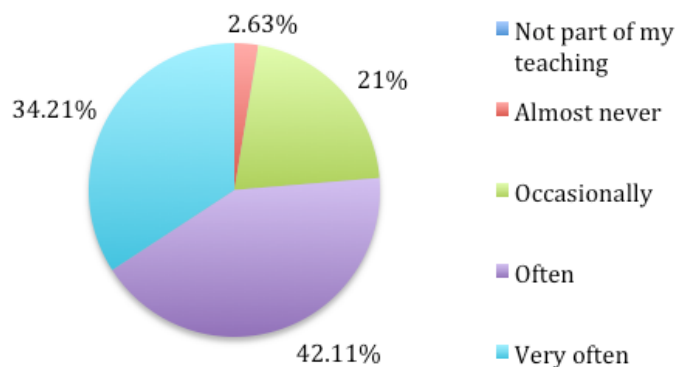
13 (34.21%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.13: Promote student awareness of the instrumental values associated with knowing English (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

In figure 4.13 one can see that the majority of the participants claimed to make use of the strategy very often (34.21%) or often (42.11%). 21% claimed they used it occasionally, while 2.63% claimed they almost never did. Still, none of the participants stated that the strategy was not part of their teaching practice.

In the questionnaire, the participants claimed that they spoke to their students about situations when it would be useful to know English. They statements such as: "Talk about different situations [in which] they [the students] will need to communicate in English", "Trying to point out situations where it is useful to be able to speak English" (Comments from the open-ended items in the questionnaire). One of the participants stated that: "English is one of the easiest subjects to motivate the kids in. They consider it a useful subject, and everyone has a story about when they needed it, both right now and later in life" (Comment from the open-ended item in the questionnaire).

By making the relevance and usefulness of the knowing English explicit and discussing it, the life application potential of the learning English is made obvious to the learners, which according to Brophy (2010: 142) can be powerful incentives for motivating learning efforts. Participant 03 stated that she calls the students' attention to the influence of English on the world today and the life application of what they are learning:

> I have told all my students that they need to learn English, because it is an international language and it enables them to talk to people from other countries. Also, that English surrounds them today, for instances, [almost] everything on TV is in English. So it's important to know that language.
> (Participant 03)

When the teachers talk to their students about the benefits of learning English and potential life applications, both immediate and in the future, the teachers capitalize on the learners

69

existing extrinsic rewards for learning English. Though, not all aspects of learning English may be interesting and yield motivation, despite the learners wishing to harvest the advantages of knowing the language. In a comment from the questionnaire, a participant states that: "Grammar is often hard to motivate for". In relation to this, both Participant 02 and Participant 01 stressed the importance of helping the learners to see potential tedious or boring learning activities/tasks as enabling opportunities:

> It is good if you enjoy it, but some things are just plain boring, but still necessary. (…) Even if it seems unrelated to them [the learners], they need to understand that this, what you're learning here, or the strength you're building here is because you will use this [later on]. It is something you will employ when you're doing that task or when you're doing this test.
> (Participant 02)

Participant 01 used a sports analogy to explain his point:

> Like athletes, [take football players], they know they have to have a fundament in their physical training to be able to do the fun stuff, which is playing football. So the necessity part comes as an obligation to do the fun stuff.
> (Participant 01)

"The fun stuff" referenced in Participant 01's statement could be the ability to understand and communicate in English. However, to be able to achieve the overarching goal, the students might have to do tasks that they initially view as boring and are not motivated to do. Thus, the findings suggest that the teachers are aware of the importance of helping the students appreciate the potential applications of what they are learning.

Make the teaching material relevant for the learners

To make the material of instruction relevant for the learners is related to the abovementioned importance of understanding and seeing the relevance of a learning activity. As Dörnyei (2001: 63) states "one of the most demotivating factors for learners is when they have to learn something that they cannot see the point of because it has no seeming relevance whatsoever to their lives".

Participants: 40

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

3 (7.50%): **3 Occasionally**

22 (55%): **4 Often**
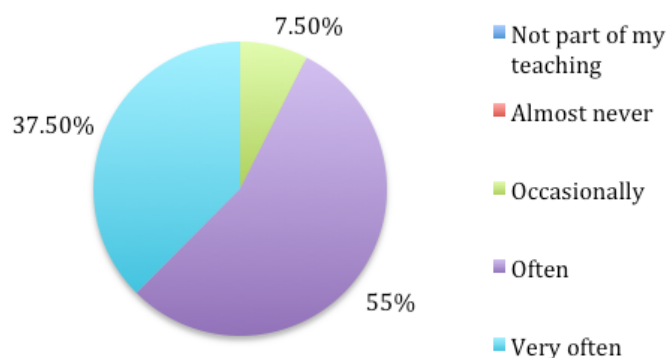
15 (37.50%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.14: Make the teaching material relevant for the learners (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

In figure 4.14 one can observe that 37.5% of the participants claimed to employ this strategy very often, while 55% reported to employ it often. A significantly smaller number (7.5%) stated they employed it occasionally, while none of the participants indicated that they almost never used the strategy, or that it was not part of their teaching practice.

As was mentioned previously in relation to *appropriate teacher behaviours* (see section 4.3.2) Participant 04 stressed the importance of knowing her learners, so she could draw on the learners' interests to generate motivation. While her statement could be interpreted to mean that she finds it necessary to develop a good relationship with her students, it could also indicate that she believe incorporating students' interests in the curriculum can have a great impact on their motivation. It is not an unreasonable belief, as it stands to reason, "students will not be motivated to learn unless they regard the material they are taught as worth learning" (Dörnyei, 2001: 63).

Participant 04's belief that drawing on students' interests could generate motivation seems to be supported by Participant 03: "[If a pupil is unmotivated] I would try to find methods that fit him/her, like draw on their interests. If a pupil likes football, for instance, we could try something with that as a topic".

As mentioned in section 2.3.1, contextual restraints such as an emphasis on achievement standards in school could make it challenging for the teachers to realise this strategy. Passe (1996:88, cited in Dörnyei, 2001: 64) claim that especially standardized tests create an enormous pressure on teachers to "cover" the curriculum. The participant of the present study did not mention the possible demotivating effect of standardized testing, although it has been addressed by Stornes, Tvedt & Bru (2013) in relation to the Norwegian context (see section 1.1 and 2.3.1). Still, Participant 02 indicated that he believed certain restrictions inhibited teachers from deviating from the course books and/or customize the curriculum to the learners' interests. He said:

71

In a class with 25-35 [pupils], you will at times have diverging interests and so on. I guess there's always the possibility of trying to find as many possible angles within a given topic of curriculum that you are working on. I think students could have benefitted from a freer syllabus. But at the same time, I think some restrictions might inhibit the teacher as well as the learner from achieving that all the time, at least. (Participant 02)

Participant 02 made references to large classes. This contextual restriction is referred to in all four interviews. It is also addressed by Phipps (2009: 23), who claims that large classes might hinder teachers in applying certain teaching methods and materials. Thus, large classes could make it challenging for the language teachers to make the material of instruction relevant for all students. As Participant 04 points out "You cannot tailor make plans for each and every one".

When asked to elaborate on which restrictions he thinks inhibits teachers, Participant 02 said:

I think [teachers] are still confined by spatial restrictions or by syllabus restrictions or by the fact that we tend to use the book a lot. I think most teachers would like to break free from that a little bit more, but it is very time consuming to undertake and I do not really feel that enough time is given to exploring different ways of teaching. (Participant 02)

Participant 02' and Participant 04's statements are supported by Dörnyei (2001: 63), who declares that the constant time pressure most teachers work under makes it challenging to meet the students' needs. The reality is that there is not enough time for most teachers to personalise the curriculum, to elaborate on certain points and to supplement the material where necessary (Dörnyei, 2001: 63).

Guilloteaux's (2013) study in the Korean context revealed contextual constraints such as class size and administrative workload interfered with the participants' ability to help students design individual study plans. Studies that were done in the Norwegian context (e.g. Grindheim, Skutlaberg, Høgestøl, Rasmussen & Wøien Hansen, 2014; Jordfald, Nyen & Seip, 2009) indicate administrative workload is a relevant contextual restriction for Norwegian teachers as well.

In the comments from the respondents in the questionnaire, the teachers claim to choose material they know the students are interested in, to deviate from the textbook and make use of TV-shows, movies or YouTube links to make the teaching material more

relevant for learners. However, as previously mentioned, teachers' beliefs and actual practice may not always match. It is possible that if one investigated the degree to which language teachers actually manage to make teaching material relevant for learners, the findings might not match the frequency of use that is reported in this MA thesis. It does however seem like the teachers are aware of the motivational benefits of building students interests into the curriculum.

Allow the learners to maintain a positive social image

As mentioned in section 2.3.1, school is not only an educational environment for the students. It is also their main social arena in life, and thus as a consequence every educational decision and event has implications about the social lives of the learners (Dörnyei, 20001: 97). The motivational strategy *allowing the learners' to maintain a positive social image* aims at accommodating the learning process so it does not threaten their social image while attending to academic issues (Dörnyei, 2001: 98).

Participants: 40

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

4 (10%): **3 Occasionally**

21 (52.50%): **4 Often**
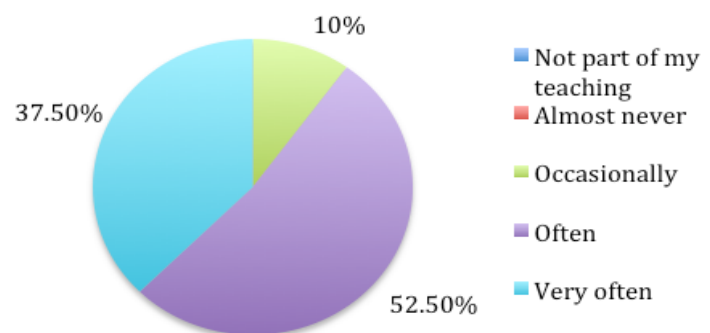
15 (37.50%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.15: Allow the learners to maintain a positive social image (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

In figure 4.15 one can see that the majority of the teachers reported to employ this strategy very often (37.5%) or often (52.5%). 10% of the participants reported using the strategy occasionally. None of the participants claimed to almost never or never make use of the strategy.

The relatively high report of frequency of use could indicate that the participants are aware that academic achievement not only affects intellectual development but also affects the students' self-worth and social standing in the class. Also, it might signify that the participants are aware that failure in a subject matter not only causes personal disappointment but also could be experienced as public embarrassment by the students (Dörnyei, 2001: 97).

In the questionnaire's comment section, the EFL teachers provided statements that could indicate that they are familiar with what one should not do to make classes socially

desirable. For instance, the teachers mentioned that they avoided correcting the pupils in front of the whole class: "I never correct them or pick on their mistakes in front of the whole class", "By not correcting them in front of the class". The participants seem to believe that it is equally important that fellow students do not pick on or make fun of each other's mistakes. Dörnyei (2001: 99) states that to be criticised or corrected in front of the whole class could be a humiliating experience for the students. As has been stated earlier (see section 2.3.1 and section 4.3.2), when producing English orally the learners are at a high risk of making mistakes because they have to express themselves in a language that they do not yet master. If the learners already have a low opinion of themselves, their fear of making mistakes or being humiliated might result in face-saving strategies or restricted efforts to avoid failure (Dörnyei, 2001: 99). If they experience that their mistakes are highlighted and corrected in front of the whole class, it might have a adverse impact on their motivation and efforts in language learning.

The issues of correction and not picking on mistakes is connected to the previously mentioned strategy *creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* and the importance of teaching the students to accept mistakes as a natural part of the learning process. Participant 02 believed that performing in large groups could be an issue for some students, due to the risk of public embarrassment:

> I think some students feel safer when they are in smaller groups. I think that to some it is a barrier to be performing in the eyes of so many other students. (…) They are at a very sensitive age in [lower secondary education]. If some people are chuckling over something completely unrelated in the corner, it could be construed as somebody chuckling over what I just said, or I made a slip-of-the-tongue, or I said the wrong word. So I think feeling safe is a prerequisite for performing, at least to the maximum of your potential. If you do not feel safe, I think you will go into your shell and avoid, if possible, exposing yourself too much.
> (Participant 02)

Participant 02 also stated that in his experience, one could try to convince students that the rest of the class is not paying attention to any mistakes that might be made. One of the participants stated in a comment in the questionnaire that it takes time to teach the students to not comment on each other's mistakes. Hence, it seems reasonable that it also takes time to build a classroom climate where the students feel safe and trust that all classmates accept any potential mistakes they make.

In the comments from the questionnaire the teachers also claimed that they provided their pupils with some degree of freedom regarding presentations, such as letting the students

choose if they wish to perform to the whole class or to a smaller group, allowing students to perform in pairs, and making it voluntary to read aloud in class. As one participant said: "No force, only encouragement". These practices could correlate to a second suggestion by Dörnyei (2001) about how to decrease the chances of having students experiencing it as embarrassing to speak the L2 in front of the class. Dörnyei (2001: 99) states that until the teacher feels confident that the students are able to do themselves justice, the students should not be put in the spotlight unexpectedly or without their agreement. This involves knowing which challenges one's students are ready for and listening to them when they express that a certain task or activity makes them feel unsafe. Thus, it can be argued that the strategy discussed here is correlated to the motivational strategy *appropriate teacher behaviours* as well. Ultimately, the results indicate that the participants are aware of the motivational benefits of not doing anything that might result in a student being humiliated or losing face in front of the others.

Provide motivational feedback

In the questionnaire the macro-strategy *provide motivational feedback* was rephrased and presented for the participants as *provide the students with positive information feedback*. The strategy was rephrased because motivational feedback is more than positive information feedback. Motivational feedback could also include encouraging the students or helping the learners see that low effort exerted could be the cause of underachievement. Dörnyei (2001) linked these aspects of motivational feedback to the motivational strategies concerning *protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence* and *promote motivational attributions*. The main focus of the macro-strategy *provide motivational feedback* was the effect such feedback had on the students learning. As presented in section 2.3.1, motivational feedback "should prompt the learner to reflect constructively on areas that need improvement and identify things that he/she can do to increase the effectiveness of learning" (Raffini, 1993: 147). Such feedback is often termed *positive information feedback*, which is why the term was included in the questionnaire.

Participants: 41

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

4 (9.76%): **3 Occasionally**

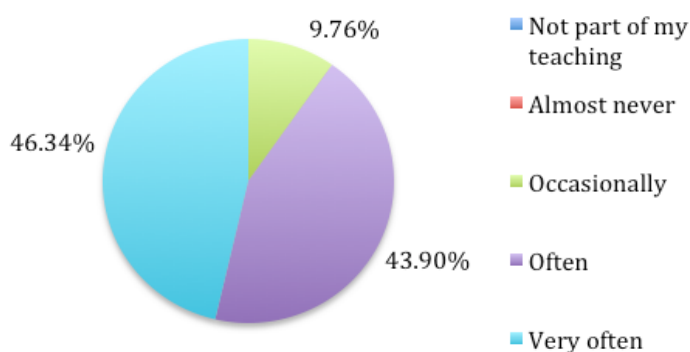18 (43.90%): **4 Often**

19 (46.34%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.16: Provide motivational feedback (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

As can be observed figure 4.16, 46.34% reported to give their students positive information feedback very often, and 43.90% claimed they did it often. 9.76% stated that they provided such feedback occasionally, while none of the participants indicated that they almost never did it, or that it was not part of their teaching practice.

In the comments from the questionnaire the teachers claimed that they gave positive feedback, either orally or in writing. They provided some examples of what the feedback they gave contained. The general consensus seemed to be that they aimed at giving feedback that "point the way forward" and "focus on the positive" (Comments from the open-ended items in the questionnaire). One of the participants stated that she generally tried to point out the things that the students were good at, and then pointed at "one or two things to practice on to improve" (Comment from the open-ended items in the questionnaire). While Dörnyei (2001: 124) states that *positive information feedback* involves positive, descriptive feedback about the students' strengths and achievements, Brophy (2010: 57) stresses that the feedback must include information regarding aspects of the learners' performance that were unacceptable and how to improve. He states that feedback that only highlights what the students' achieved, is unhelpful. On the other hand, Dörnyei (2001: 124) states that for the feedback to have a motivational effect, any indication of progress and achievement must be remarked upon. If not, the risk is that students develop a "why bother?" attitude, because their positive contributions go unnoticed (Dörnyei, 2001: 124).

The comments in the questionnaire suggest that the participants know that in order for the feedback to drive the students on in their learning process, the students must receive both praise for what they achieved and information on how to improve. One of the participants stated in the questionnaire that she "always indicates something to work on, no matter what grade [the students] achieve" (Comment from the open-ended items in the questionnaire).

Dörnyei (2001: 124) also state that for feedback to have a motivational effect, it is far more effective if the feedback is made promptly available for the students. Only one of the participants mentioned in the questionnaire that she gave "instant" feedback. This does not necessarily mean that the other participants tend to give delayed feedback. Still, there is the possibility that contextual factors such as time pressure or heavy workload inhibits the teachers in giving the students feedback straight away. It is also likely that the students tend to receive feedback on oral assignments faster than on written, because in an oral assignment the teacher can evaluate the students' contribution while the students perform. However, the present study can only remark that in this research project only one participant claimed to give the students feedback right away.

Participant 04 revealed that in her experience positive feedback could generate motivation when the students encounter similar tasks later. She stated:

> If students succeeds at something and receive positive feedback on that, it is easier to get them going the next time. Then I can remind them about the last time they attempted a similar task and how well they did. Such remarks work with some students, but not all.
> (Participant 04)

While addressing the potentially motivational effect of positive feedback, Participant 04's statements also relates to the motivational strategy *increasing the learners' expectancy of success*. Reminding the students that they have encountered similar tasks before, and they did it well, could increase their expectancy of succeeding. Though as Brophy (2010: 16) explains, if the students do not value whatever rewards that successful performance will bring, or appreciate the opportunity to engage in the process, they might not invest effort in the activity. This could explain why Participant 04 experience that calling the students' attention to past achievements do not always generate motivation. This could also illustrate the point noted in section 2.2, that teachers must draw on strategies derived from several motivational theories in order to motivate their students.

Make learning stimulating and enjoyable

Learning does not have to a tedious or boring chore, it is possible to make it into an enjoyable and stimulating process. If the teacher succeeds at this, it could result in sustained learner involvement (Dörnyei, 2001: 72). As mentioned in section 2.3.1, this assumption has resulted in that many teachers tend to equate the adjective *motivation* with *interesting*. And as the

findings presented in section 4.2.1 indicates the interviewed participants in this study also seemed to use *fun* or *interesting* as synonyms for *motivation*.

Participants: 39

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

1 (1.56%): **3 Occasionally**

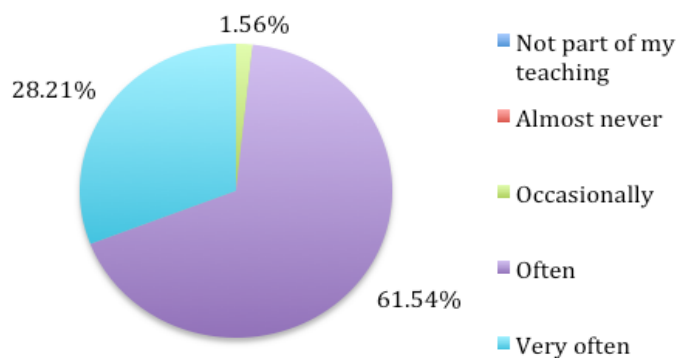24 (61.54%): **4 Often**

11 (28.21%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.17: Make learning stimulating and enjoyable (Mdn=4, IQR=5 to 4)

As can be observed in figure 4.17, the majority of the respondents (61.54%) reported that they often attempted to make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the students. 28.21% of the participants claimed that they did so very often, while 1.56% stated that they occasionally made use of the motivational technique. None of the participants reported never or almost never to take advantage of the strategy.

As examples of how they made learning stimulating and enjoyable for learners, the teachers focused on variation, both in the questionnaire and in the interviews. Participant 04 said that:

> It is important [that the teacher] knows the importance of variation and does not go ahead with the same lesson plan every time, but tries to do different things - that he introduces the students to different things. You do not have to do reading, translation and talking in groups every time. You have to vary it. And it is important that the teacher knows that students learn in different ways and that what one student enjoys, another student might find dreadful.
> Participant 04

In the comments from the questionnaire, the teachers claimed that they varied language tasks by varying the channel of communication, i.e. presenting tasks that involved singing, watching videos, reading, writing or drama. They also seemed to vary the organisational format of working with a task by sometimes giving the learners task to work on individually, in groups or pairs, or in whole-class. The teachers also provided comments indicating that they provided the students with tasks that activated various language skills, i.e. a reading activity, speaking activity or writing activity. The comments did not reveal if the teachers present various language tasks in the same lesson, or if the teachers meant that they, in

general, vary the language tasks from lesson to lesson. Though in the interviews, Participant 03 stated she made use of the teaching technique *learning stations* to provide the students with variation in a lesson. She explained that she then could have different tasks on each station, and like that varied the learning tasks within one lesson.

Some of the comments from the questionnaire also indicate that the teachers vary the learning materials and the extent of student involvement. For instance, one teacher claimed that she "let the pupils influence how we work with some topics" and another stated that she "let the students decide some activities" (Comments from the open-ended items in the questionnaire). The examples the teachers' provided in the questionnaire correspond with Dörnyei's (2001: 73) proposed techniques for livening up classroom learning. One of which is to *break the monotony of learning*. He states that monotony is inversely related to variety, and that to break the monotony the teachers need to vary as many aspects of the language learning process as possible (Dörnyei, 2001: 74). In addition to the abovementioned ways of varying e.g. language tasks, learning materials and degree of student involvement, Dörnyei (2001: 74) also suggests varying the linguistic focus of a task or the teachers' presentation style. The point is not that teachers at all times should systematically vary every aspect of their teaching. As Dörnyei (2001: 74) points out, that could ultimately lead to teacher burn-out. Still, to avoid that classroom learning becomes filled with routines that in the end might feel like a monotonous "daily grind" for the learners, the teacher could at times vary aspect of the learning process. Though this MA thesis cannot show if the participants manage to vary their learning to the degree they report to do; the findings suggest that the teachers believe it is important. For instance, Participant 03 stated that he "strive for some degree of variation". It could indicate that even though he believes variation to be necessary. It could also suggest that he might not always be able to transfer this belief to his classroom practice.

In the abovementioned statement from Participant 04, it is suggested that even though the teachers' try to vary language tasks, organisational format or other aspects of their teaching practice, it might not lead to a stimulating and enjoyable learning experience for all students at all times. Participant 02 stated that this is related to the "eternal problem of adapted education": "In a class with 25-35 [pupils], you will at times have diverging interests" (Participant 02). Dörnyei (2001: 73) also addressed this point and stated that because the whole curriculum has to be taught, everything cannot be made attractive at all times. Thus, it seems important that learners be aware that some times assignments will not match their interest, but they should still invest time and effort in the assignments because what they learn from it is valuable. The findings of this study suggest that the participants

recognize that it is important that students understand the usefulness of a task. The issue was addressed when discussing the participants' use of the micro-strategy related to promoting students instrumental values (see section 4.3.2).

What is interesting is that even though Participant 04 indicated that she believed variation to be important in the quote above, she also stated that she tended to settle into familiar routines. She said:

> Sometimes I think of the tasks [the pupils] get. It must be very boring and demotivating after some time. They attend here for three years,[5] and I have to give them some grades. Then it is safest to do an oral presentation, and it is safe to do a mock exam and maybe a test and a conversation about the subject. Then I have four grades, and I have a basis for giving the pupils their mid-term grades. We have done this so many times before, so we know how to do it, and we have the criteria for assessment ready – it is easy. But I also think that it must be very boring [for the pupils] after three years of the same routine.
> (Participant 04)

Participant 04 expressed that she wished she were the kind of person who easily adopted new things, though more often than not the easiest thing was to do things she were familiar with and knew worked. She explained:

> It is connected to the fact that I do not know of the new methods. For instance, there are so many digital things you can use, but I have no clue about these things. Sometimes I pick something up from others, and I try to use it. But it is absolutely most comfortable to do the things I know.
> (Participant 04)

When asked why she settled into the comfortable routine, even though she seemed to express a wish to use more variation, she claimed that hectic days and not knowing what to do were the most dominating challenges. It is possible that if one investigated the real degree to which the participants managed to vary their practice, one might find incongruence between their reported and actual practice. Perhaps hectic days and lack of knowledge are challenges that other teachers experience as well. Dörnyei (2001: 72) points out that even though motivational psychologists and classroom teachers seem to agree that it is important to make learning stimulating and enjoyable, available research indicates that the general characteristics

---

[5] Participant 04 references the three years pupils attend lower secondary school.

of classroom learning are the opposite. Hence, for future studies, it could be interesting to investigate Norwegian teachers actual practice regarding this macro-strategy.

Protect the learners' self-esteem and increase self-confidence

The last macro-strategy to be presented and discussed in this MA thesis regards the teachers' practice in relation to protecting their pupils' self-esteem and increasing the students' self-confidence. As was mentioned in section 4.3.2, it appears to be the strategy where the respondents agree the most about in relation to the frequency of use.

Participants: 39

- (0.0%): **1 Not part of my teaching**

- (0.0%): **2 Almost never**

1 (1.56%): **3 Occasionally**
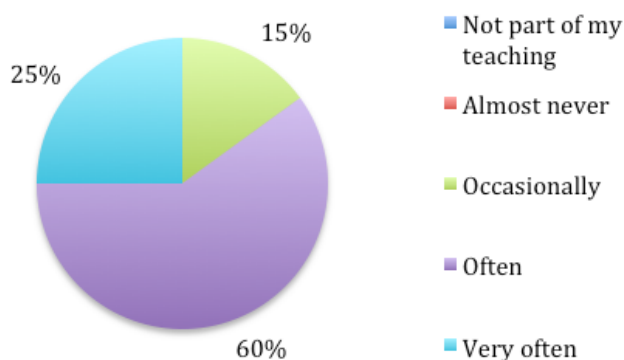
24 (61.54%): **4 Often**

11 (28.21%): **5 Very often**

Figure 4.18: Protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence (Mdn=4, IQR=4.25 to 4)

As can be observed in figure 4.18, 60% of the respondents claim to make use of the strategy often, while 25% claim to use it very often and 15% claim to do it occasionally. None of the participants reported almost never to employ the strategy or contended that it was not part of their teaching practice.

According to Dörnyei (2001: 86), the strategy addresses a crucial aspect of motivational teaching practice. This is because pupils who lack self-confidence are more likely to see difficult tasks as a personal threat and conclude that they do not have the skills or competence to succeed. This increases the probability that the pupils lose faith in their skills and give up. Participant 02 stated that this was particularly common with students who struggle with language learning. He said:

> A lot of the times pupils tend to downgrade themselves. Especially weaker students, because they kind of have the empirical evidence of not having achieved the same grades as their peers, so they kind of feel that they are right when they conclude that they are bad at this or that it is futile to try.
> (Participant 02)

Dörnyei (2001: 92) addresses the issue of social comparison and states that there is nothing more detrimental to a students' self-esteem than the constant threat of being compared to others. What is interesting is that Participant 02 claims that is important to show that one understands the students' feelings and that it is not illogical for them to have these feelings. He believes that one needs to enter a dialogue. Participant 02 said:

> I feel you kind of have to enter a talk where you say: "OK, you might not be the best. But then again, if you were doing everything all right, we would have a different problem. We would have the problem of you not getting the challenges which learning require, or things just being too easy for you. You are here now. You need to take this one step. Right now you are a 2 or 3[6]. It is possible for you to be a 4, 5 or 6 some time in the future, but you have to have a certain patience with yourself".
> (Participant 02)

On the one hand, this sort of dialogue is in line with motivational theory because the teacher signals that he believes in the student's ability to achieve and this is connected to the motivational effect of teacher expectations, which were addressed in section 2.3.1. On the other hand, Dörnyei (2001: 92) explains that even seemingly innocent remarks such as "you are a bit behind the others" could increase the students' attention to social comparison, which could imply that the kind of dialogue Participant 02 exemplifies could be counter-productive. At the same time, in relation to the macro-strategy *creating realistic learner beliefs*, Dörnyei (2001: 66) explains that it is important to talk to students about the difficulty of language learning, the realistic rate of progress students can expect and what is required from the learners to be successful. The kind of talk Participant 02 claims to have with students who downgrade themselves, do to some extent contain the main points presented by Dörnyei (2001: 66) in relation to confronting learners' unrealistic beliefs. In relation to social comparison, one of the participants stated in the questionnaire that she encourage the students to only compare themselves with their own past achievements: "The students have one very important goal: I am better than me. That is their main goal in every subject, and they are not allowed to compare [themselves] to the other students". Though the participant does not reveal which techniques she employs to instil such an attitude in her learners. However, another participant claimed that in order to protect learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence, she presented students' work in front of the class. Dörnyei (2001: 92) states that displaying selected papers and achievements could increase students' tendency to make

---

[6] Participant 02's reference to the numbers 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 relates to the grading system in Norwegian upper and lower secondary school.

social comparison. It may be that the issue of social comparison and how teachers' deal with it is a matter that could benefit from being more researched in Norwegian schools.

As mentioned in section 2.3.1, social comparison is an issue that is connected to language anxiety. Thus, taking measures to reduce language anxiety could increase learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence. Dörnyei (2001: 92) state that if one manages to create a classroom climate that is warm and supportive, half the job is done in relation to reducing/removing the factors that can lead to anxiety and fear. Based on the comments in the questionnaire, it appears like the participants believe this too. Many of the participants claimed that it is important to create a classroom environment where mistakes are seen as a natural part of the learning process. As could be observed above (see macro-strategy *create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere*, section 4.3.2), the teachers also addressed accepting mistakes as technique to develop a positive classroom climate.

In addition, the participants stated that they tried to make all achievements and any progress the learner makes, explicit for the learner. Their remarks are related to the macro-strategy *providing motivational feedback* discussed above. This could increase the learners' self-confidence because when the students experience success, they are more likely to believe in themselves and their abilities, thus it might enhance the learners' achievement behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001: 87). As mentioned in section 2.3.1, for experiences of success to have an impact on students' confidence and self-esteem it is important that the tasks they are assigned are not too difficult or too easy. Participant 04 stated she found it important to provide the students with tasks that are manageable for both lower performing students and higher performing students. She appeared to display knowledge of the motivational effect of achieving tasks that demand some effort, but are still manageable:

> [The pupils] have to feel that they are reaching for something. So you have to find tasks that are manageable for both lower performing and higher performing students. [Because] it will not be very motivating for those who thought [the task] was too difficult. And will not be very motivating for those students who found it too easy, because then it will become boring. They need to reach for something.
> (Participant 04)

The participants' statements in the questionnaire about giving positive comments to the students, acknowledging their contributions and emphasizing progress, could be a way of drawing the students attention to their strengths and abilities. Dörnyei (2001: 91) states by encouraging the students in this manner, the teacher shows faith in the students' abilities, which could have a powerful effect on the students' self-esteem and self-confidence. One of

the participants in the questionnaire claimed that she tried to implement a growth mind-set in her classroom. A student with a growth mind-set believes that his/her intelligence can be developed (Dweck, 2015). When the teacher indicates that he/she believes in the students' efforts to learn and capability to achieve, it increases the chances of the learner believing in his abilities too.

However, Dörnyei (2001: 86) states that even though the macro-strategy *protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence* is very important for students motivation, it is very often ignored or played down in the classroom. The findings in this MA thesis indicate that the participants report to make use of the strategy often, and they have given examples of how they employ it that corresponds with motivational theories.

4.3.3 Summary

This section has presented the findings in relation to research question 2 *(which motivational strategies do the Norwegian EFL teachers report to employ?)*. In section 4.3.1, Figure 4.6 was presented, showing the central tendency of reported frequency use of the motivational macro-strategies from Dörnyei's framework. Based on the reported median and the interquartile range of the individual strategies, nine macro-strategies were reported to be more frequently utilized relative to the other strategies from the framework (2001). The nine strategies are presented in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Nine frequently utilized motivational strategies as reported by the Norwegian EFL teachers in this MA thesis

- Appropriate teacher behaviours
- A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere
- Create a cohesive learner group
- Enhance the learners' L2 related values and attitudes
- Make the teaching material relevant for the learners
- Allow the learners to maintain a positive social image
- Provide motivational feedback
- Make learning stimulating and enjoyable
- Protect the learners' self-esteem and increase their self-confidence

This MA thesis cannot provide a full description of how the teachers make use of each strategy. Comments from the questionnaire and the interviews have been presented in an attempt to gain some insight to how the participants understand and practice the nine strategies. The participants' statements and explanations indicate that they have some knowledge about what is important to remember to fulfil the nine strategies. Though as has been mentioned, this study cannot reveal the degree to which the participants manage to transfer their knowledge and beliefs to practice. In the following section (section 4.4) the findings of this study will be discussed in relation to previous research.

4.4 Closing discussion

This section will provide a closing discussion of the findings in this thesis. The aim of the section is to see the findings in light of previous research and present the overarching conclusions of the study.

All the macro-strategies from the first component in Dörnyei's framework (2001), i.e. creating the basic motivational conditions, ranked among the nine most frequently employed strategies in this MA thesis. It could indicate that the participants acknowledge that certain preconditions must be in place before any other attempts at generating motivation can be effective. The participants reported to make use of the macro-strategies *appropriate teacher behaviours* (Mdn= 5, IQR= 5 to 4) and *creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* (Mdn= 5, IQR= 5 to 4) slightly more than the final strategy from the first component, i.e. *create a cohesive learner group* (Mdn= 4, IQR= 5 to 4). The findings correlate with previous research. Particularly *appropriate teacher behaviours* ranked high in both importance and frequent use in earlier studies investigating teacher cognition and motivational strategies (i.e. Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, Guilloteaux, 2013). These studies have been done in other contexts; though it would seem *appropriate teacher behaviours* are among the motivational strategies that are universal and valid in different contexts. *Appropriate teacher behaviours* is a quite broad strategy, and a many of the teachers' actions and techniques could potentially be subsumed under this label. Therefore, it is possible that the way the strategy is practiced could be more context-specific. In the Norwegian context, the teachers talked about showing enthusiasm, being specialised in the subject one teaches, paying attention the students and showing that one cares about the students. It is not necessarily so that all cultures value the expression of personal feelings (Dörnyei, 2001: 33), and therefore there might be differences in how the strategy is practiced.

Creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere ranked high in studies done in other contexts as well. In the Hungarian study by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), the motivational approach was perceived by the teachers to be the second most important motivational tool, after the appropriate teacher behaviours. When Dörnyei replicated the study with Cheng in the context of Taiwan (2007), the strategy ranked among the top five in terms of importance. Alrabai's (2011) study in the Saudi context showed that diminishing learners' anxiety and building their self-confidence was the second most employed motivational strategy by the participants. The findings from this study indicate that the Norwegian EFL teachers are also aware that language learning can be a face-threatening experience and have accepted that it is their responsibility to create a safe learning environment for the students.

Creating cohesive learner groups ranked low on perceived importance in Guilloteaux (2013) study and was among the strategies least often used in Alrabai's study (2011). It did not even make the list of Dörnyei & Csizér's (1998) ten commandments for motivating learners. It could be due to contextual or institutional factors. Alrabai (2011: 274) explains that the nature of EFL teaching/learning practice in Saudi Arabia made it difficult for teachers to create cohesive learners groups. One of the reasons were contextual constraints such as a rigid curriculum, which resulted in teachers using the Grammar-Translation Method to ensure that they covered the syllabus in time, thus limiting the chances for cooperative learning. Yet, the teachers in Cheng & Dörnyei's study (2007) ranked the strategy as the ninth most important strategy. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007: 163) brought attention to how group-related matters have not been given due importance in L2 studies.

The strategy related to the learners' L2-related values and attitudes ranked relatively low in previous studies compared to other motivational strategies. For instance, introducing students to L2 culture was viewed as least important regarding motivating students by the Hungarian teachers (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). The strategy received low ranking in Guilloteaux's (2013), Cheng & Dörnyei's (2007) and Alrabai (2011) studies as well in regard of perceived importance and frequency of use. It might be that the utilization of the strategy is contextually specific for Norway, though more research is needed to determine the degree to which Norwegian EFL teachers employ the strategy in their actual practice.

It is interesting to note that the macro-strategy *allow learners to maintain a positive social image* does not rank high or is not featured at all in previous studies (e.g. Alrabai, 2011; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013). It could indicate that the strategy is context-specific and that the Norwegian context distinguishes itself in

terms of the reported frequency of use. However, as discussed in section 4.3.2, certain techniques to ensure that students maintain a positive social image correlate with other macro-strategies. The results presented in this MA thesis indicate that the techniques the participants made use of are also relevant for the macro-strategy *creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere*. The macro-strategy concerning classroom climate is featured in previous studies and rank among the top five strategies in the Hungarian (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) and Taiwanese (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) context in terms of importance. However, the strategy was viewed as the second least important strategy in the South Korean context (Guilloteaux, 2013).

Providing motivational feedback did not make the list of the ten most important motivational strategies as perceived by the language teachers in either of Dörnyei's studies (i.e. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). In Alrabai's study (2011), *diminish learners' anxiety and build their self-confidence* ranked as the second most used macro-strategy. The macro-strategy was represented by nine micro-techniques, among which were providing learners with positive motivational feedback. Guilloteaux (2013) reported that the South Korean teachers considered *encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation* as the second most important motivational macro-strategy. In her study the fourth component in Dörnyei's framework (2001) (see section 2.3.1) was presented as one macro-strategy, subsuming the motivational technique to give positive motivational feedback. It might be that the strategy *providing motivational feedback* is culturally specific for Norway. As noted, the strategy was presented as a micro-strategy and combined with other micro-strategies to introduce the frequency of use (Alrabai, 2011) and teachers' perceived importance (Guilloteaux, 2013) of an overarching macro-strategy in the two studies from previous research. Thus more research across cultural context is needed to ascertain whether the strategy is universal and valid in different contexts.

The findings of this MA thesis suggest that the teachers believe their presence, interactions with the students and their teaching practice can influence student motivation. In terms of how the teachers realise the strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001), there appears to be some consensus. Though when analysing the open-ended responses from the questionnaire, the results suggest that the teachers may interpret the labels for the motivational strategies somewhat differently. For instance, when responding to how frequently they employ the strategy *good relationship with the students*, the some of the teachers' comments corresponded with other strategies, such as *providing the learners' with self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence* or *promote motivational feedback*. It

indicates that the motivational strategies overlap and that one micro-strategy can be used in relation to more than one macro-strategy. Thus, when the teachers are asked to report how frequently they make use of one macro-strategy, their response might be based on different micro-strategies. Still, the comments in the questionnaire indicate that the teachers agree upon some techniques within each macro-strategy.

Even though the teachers are not familiar with the term *L2 motivation*, they may have much knowledge about it, either through prior learning experiences, education or through experiences from their professional lives. The knowledge may be stored under other terms in their cognition, which could explain why they all claimed to be unfamiliar with *L2 motivation*. When expressing how they approach the task of motivating for language learners, their reported practice revealed that the teachers were familiar with many strategies that are addressed in Dörnyei's framework (2001). Perhaps, if the topic had been introduced to them in the terms they were more familiar with, more of their knowledge and practices would be revealed.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has presented and discussed the findings related to research question 1 (*what are the Norwegian EFL teachers' knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation?*), and research question 2 (*which motivational strategies do the Norwegian EFL teachers report to most frequently employ?*). The thesis argues to have found that the EFL teachers believe motivation to be important for language learning. Even though the teachers claimed that they have enough skills and knowledge to be able to motivate their language learners, they would still like to learn more about the topic. Furthermore, the findings from the thesis suggest that both experience and education has formed the teachers' cognitions about motivation, though the qualitative data indicates that the participants weighted experience somewhat more. Lastly, nine macro-strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001) have been identified as being more frequently used relative to the other strategies from the framework (2001). *Appropriate teachers' behaviours* and *creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere* received the highest level of frequency by the participants, with a median of 5 indicating that participants believe they utilize the strategies very often. The findings reveal similarities with previous research where the *appropriate teacher behaviours* have been ranked at the top of the list on perceived importance by EFL teachers in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) and South Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013). It also ranked as the most utilized strategy by the teachers in Saudi Arabia (Alrabai, 2011). Thus, it seems like the

strategy is transferable to a variety of cultural contexts. Moreover, the participants of this study reported making use of motivational strategies concerned with the students' well-being, making the learning experience enjoyable and relevant for the pupils and providing motivational feedback. More research is needed to validate the findings of this study and to investigate the degree to which EFL teachers are able to transfer their knowledge and beliefs about L2 motivation to their classroom practice.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

The present study aimed to investigate some Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions about L2 motivation and their reported motivational practice. The enquiries made in this study have been inspired by findings from previous research indicating that student motivation in Norwegian schools decline from 4th and is at its lowest in 10th grade (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). Suggestions have also been made that Norwegian schools are not able to motivate students for school and that lack of motivation could be an antecedent for the high rate of school withdrawal in Norwegian upper secondary education, and (Svarstad, 2015). To narrow the scope of the research project, the focus of this study is on motivation to learn foreign language learning. Thus, this MA thesis attempts to examine Norwegian EFL teachers' beliefs and knowledge about L2 motivation and to identify the main sources of their cognitions. It also seeks to determine the motivational strategies most frequently utilized by the EFL teachers. It is important to note that the findings of this study only reveals the participants reported practice.

The research project has adopted a mixed-methods approach, comprised of a questionnaire and four semi-structured interviews. By mixing the two methods 41 EFL teachers responded to a questionnaire where they rated on a five-point scale ("not part of my teaching -> "very often") the degree to which they made use of a set of motivational strategies. The motivational strategies presented in the questionnaire were based on the macro-strategies from a framework for motivational practice developed by Dörnyei (2001). The teachers also responded to a set of statements where they were asked to impart their level of agreement on a four-point scale ("strongly disagree" -> "strongly agree"). The statements concerned the teachers' evaluation of their motivational skills, their desire to learn more about how to motivate language learners and whether they believed experience or teacher education had formed their knowledge and beliefs about motivational practice. Four EFL teachers agreed to participate in an interview about L2 motivation and their motivational practice. The results of the two approaches were combined in the interpretation of the findings.

The participants of this study confirmed that they utilized motivational techniques in their English language classroom and the findings indicate that Dörnyei's L2 motivational strategies are valid in the Norwegian context. They reported that they most frequently

demonstrated appropriate teacher behaviours and also employed a variety of techniques to create a pleasant and supportive classroom environment. The respondents indicated that they made use of strategies to make the learning material relevant and the learning experience stimulating. Also, the teachers' believed that they employed strategies to protect the learners' social image and self-esteem and to increase the students' self-confidence. The respondents also reported utilizing techniques to raise the students' attitudes and values towards the English language and cultures.

The fact that research shows that the motivational strategy *appropriate teacher behaviours* rank highly in terms of perceived importance by EFL teachers across context (e.g. Alrabai, 2011; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Guilloteaux, 2013) and that the Norwegian EFL teachers reported to make frequent use of this strategy, could suggest that helping teachers develop skills to motivate learners could be a valuable and constructive action. While the results of this study indicate that the participants are familiar with techniques to motivate learners, findings also suggest that most of the teachers' knowledge originates in experience. Thus, a more systematic training in teacher education might be constructive. As the findings revealed, few of the participants were familiar with the term L2 motivation, indicating that the design and summarising of motivational techniques to be applied in the classroom that has been done by several L2 scholars, has not been presented and/or made explicit for the teachers. On the basis of the findings of this research project, it also seems worthwhile to investigate which challenges and contextual constraints the teachers face and that potentially inhibits the teachers in their motivational practice, and incorporate advice and suggestions for how to deal with such restrictions in teacher education.

The findings indicate that the teachers participating in this study carry beliefs and knowledge about how to motivate their learners that are supported by motivational theories. Based on the frequency of use of the motivational strategies, it seems like the teachers believe that they in general practice the motivational strategies occasionally, often or very often. The open-comments responses from the questionnaire and findings from the interviews indicate that the teachers have some knowledge about how to practice the motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework. The extent of the teachers' knowledge cannot be ascertained from this study, though the findings do indicate that they have some knowledge of most of the strategies. Concerning the decline in student motivation in the Norwegian context, the findings from this study do not indicate that the decline can be traced back to teachers' lack of knowledge about how to motivate learners. Rather, the findings suggest that contextual restraints pose a challenge in allowing the teachers to transfer their knowledge and beliefs

about how to motivate learners to practice. In addition, the findings imply that teachers trace their knowledge of motivational practice back to experience and teacher education. From research in language teacher cognition, it is known that teacher education may have a limited impact on teacher cognition if prior beliefs are not made explicit, discussed and challenged. Since contextual factors tend to have such a great impact on teaching practice, it may be relevant for teacher education to make motivational practice more explicit in teacher education and offer advice and help for pre-service teachers, so experiences affected by contextual factors do not limit teachers motivational practice.

For future studies it would be relevant to examine Norwegian EFL teachers actual use of motivational strategies. It would also be interesting to launch a research project aimed at identifying potential contextual restrictions that inhibit the teachers in their motivational practice. Finally, more research is needed to reveal how students' respond to the teachers' utilization of motivational strategies.

References

Alderman, M. K. (2007). *Motivation for achievement: Possibilities for teaching and learning* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Alrabai, F. A. (2011). Motivational instruction in practice: Do EFL instructors at King Khalid Univeristy motivate their students to learn English as a foreign language? *Arab World English Journal, 2*(4), 257-285. Retrieved from http://www.awej.org/images/AllIssues/Volume2/Volume2Number4Dec2011/9.pdf

Alshehri, E.M. (2014). *Motivational strategies: the perceptions of EFL teachers and students in the Saudi higher education context* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Salford. Retrieved from http://usir.salford.ac.uk/31666/1/Final_thesis_9.pdf

Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (2010). *Classroom motivation*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Arnold, J., Puchta, H., & Rinvolucri, M. (2007). *Imagine that! Mental imagery in the EFL classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B., Braunstein, B., Jagodzinski Fleischman, N., Holbrook, M. P., Tuman, J., Waissbluth, X., & Zambo, L. J. (1996). The language learners' autobiography: examining the "apprenticeship of observation". In D. Freeman, & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching*. (pp. 11-29). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: the exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*(2), 243-72. doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.2.243

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81-109. doi: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Borg, S. (2005). Experience, knowledge about language and classroom practice in grammar teaching. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Applied linguistics and language teacher education*. (pp. 325-340). New York: Springer.

Borg, S. (2015). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. London: Bloomsbury.

Brophy, J. (2010). *Motivating students to learn* (3rd ed.). Hoboken: Taylor and Francis.

Brown, J., & Rodgers, T. (2002). *Doing second language research* (Oxford handbooks for

language teachers). Oxford: Oxford University Press

Chambers, G. N. (1999). *Motivating language learners*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Chen, J. F., Warden, C. A. & Chang, H., T. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: the case of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *TESOL Quarterly, 39*(40), 609-633. Retrieved from http://ejournals.ebsco.com.galanga.hib.no/Article.asp?ContributionID=29869465

Cheng, H., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, (1)*1, 153-174. Retrieved from http://www-tandfonline-com.galanga.hib.no/doi/pdf/10.2167/illt048.0?needAccess=true

Covington, M.V. (1992). *Making the grade: A self-worth perspective on motivation and school reform*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Covington, M. V., & Teel, K. M. (1996). *Overcoming student failure: Changing motives and incentives for learning*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Cox, R. H. (2012). *Sports psychology: Concepts and applications* (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Crookes, G., & Arakaki, L. (1999). Teaching idea sources and work conditions in an ESL program. *TESOL Journal, 8*(1), 15-19. doi: 10.1002/j.1949-3533.1999.tb00151.x

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1982). Intrinsic motivation and effective teaching: A flow analysis. *New directions for teaching and learning 10,* 15-26. Retrieved from file:///Users/carinahelle/Downloads/documentslide.com_intrinsic-motivation-and-effective-teaching-a-flow-analysis.pdf

Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour*. New York: Plenum.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 273-284. Retrieved from http://www.zoltandornyei.co.uk/uploads/1994-dornyei-mlj-a.pdf

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies* (Oxford applied linguistics). Oxford: Oxford University Press

Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research, 2*, 203-229. Retrieved from http://www.zoltandornyei.co.uk/uploads/1998-dornyei-csizer-ltr.pdf

Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(4), 421-462. doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/23.4.421

Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (2012). How to design and analyze surveys in second language acquisition research. In: A. Mackey, & S.M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (Vol. 3, Guides to research methods in language and linguistics). (pp. 74-94). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell

Dörnyei, Z., & Ottó, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics, 4*(1), 43-69. Retrieved from http://www.zoltandornyei.co.uk/uploads/1998-dornyei-otto-wp.pdf

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York: Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z. & Ushioda, E. (2013). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Dweck, C. (2015, 22. September). Carol Dweck revisits the "Growth Mindset". *Education Week*. Retrieved from http://www.edweek.org/ew/articles/2015/09/23/carol-dweck-revisits-the-growth-mindset.html

Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (1995). In the mind of the actor: The structure of adolescents' achievement task values and expectancy-related beliefs. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 21*, 215-225. doi: 10.1177/0146167295213003

Ehrman, M., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). *Interpersonal dynamics in second language education: The visible and invisible classroom*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ford, M. E. (1992). *Motivating humans: Goals, emotions and personal agency beliefs*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Friedman, D.A. (2012). How to collect and analyze qualitative data. In: How to design and analyze surveys in second language acquisition research. In: A. Mackey, & S.M. Gass (Eds.), *Research methods in second language acquisition: A practical guide* (Vol. 3, Guides to research methods in language and linguistics). (pp. 180-200). Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Grindheim, J. E., Skutlaberg, L. S., Høgestøl, A., Rasmussen, I., & Wøien Hansen, V. (2014).

Rapporterings- og dokumentasjonskrav i skolesektoren. (ideas2evidence-rapport 12:2014). Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/globalassets/upload/kd/vedlegg/rapporter/rapport_endelig.pdf

Grossman, P.M., Wilson, S. M., & Schulman, L. S. (1989). Teachers of substance: subject matter knowledge for teaching. In M. C. Reynolds (Ed.), *Knowledge base for the beginning teacher* (pp. 23-36). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Guilloteaux, M. J. (2013). Motivational strategies for the language classroom: Perceptions of Korean secondary school English teachers. *System, 41*(1), 3-14. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com.galanga.hib.no/science/article/pii/S0346251X13000067

Hadfield, J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). *Motivating learning*. Harlow: Longman.

Hammersley, M. (2008). Troubles with triangulation. In: M. Bergman, *Advances in Mixed-Methods Research: Theory and Applications*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Holt Reynolds, D. (1992). Personal history-based beliefs as relevant prior knowledge in course work. *American Educational Research Journal, 29*(2), 325-49. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org.galanga.hib.no/stable/1163371

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125-132. Retrieved from http://hyxy.nankai.edu.cn/jingpinke/buchongyuedu/foreign%20language%20classroom%20anxiety.pdf

Johnson, K. E. (1992a). Learning to teach: Instructional actions and decisions of preservice ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly, 26*(3), 507-535. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org.galanga.hib.no/stable/pdf/3587176.pdf

Johnson, K. E. (1992b). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behaviour, 24*, 83-108. Retrieved from http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/10862969209547763

Johnson, R.B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Turner, L.A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(2), 112-133. Retrieved from http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/1558689806298224

Jones, V.F., & Jones, L.S. (1998). *Comprehensive classroom management: Creating communities of support and solving problems*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Jordfald, B., Nyen, T., & Seip, Å. A. (2009). *Tidstyvene: En beskrivelse av lærernes arbeidssituasjon*. (Fafo-rapport 2009: 23). Retrieved from http://www.fafo.no/index.php/nb/zoo-publikasjoner/fafo-rapporter/item/tidstyvene

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Det kvalitative forskningsintervju* (2nd. Ed). Oslo:

Gyldendal Akademisk

Lortie, D.C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign and second language learning*. (pp. 24-25). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

MacIntyre, P. D. (2002). Motivation, anxiety and emotion in second language acquisition. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Individual differences in second language acquisition*. (pp. 45-68). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1987). Possible selves: The interface between motivation and the self-concept. In K. Yardley, & T. Honess (Eds.), *Self and Identity: Psychological Perspectives* (pp. 157-172). Chichester: John Wiley and Sons.

Maslow, A. H. (1962). *Toward a psychology of being*. Princeton, N.J: Van Nostrand

McCombs, B., & Pope, J. (1994). *Motivating hard to reach students*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

McGroarty, M. (1992). Cooperative learning: The benefits for content area teaching. In P. A. Richard, & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *The multicultural classroom: Readings for content-area teachers* (pp. 58-69). NY: Longman.

Meijer, P.C., Verloop, N., & Beijaard, D. (1999). Exploring language teachers' practical knowledge about teaching reading comprehension. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 15*, 59-84. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(98)00045-6

Ministry of Education and Research. (2011). *Motivasjon – mestring – muligheter*. (St.meld. nr. 22 2010-2011). Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/0b74cdf7fb4243a39e249bce0742cb95/no/pdfs/stm201020110022000dddpdfs.pdf

Ministry of Education and Research. (2016). Promotion of the status and quality of teachers. Retrieved from https://www.regjeringen.no/en/topics/education/innsikt/larerloftet/id2008159/

Paivio, A. (1985). Cognitive and motivational functions of imagery in human performance. *Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences, 10*, 22-28.

Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Clearing up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(2), 307-332. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org.galanga.hib.no/stable/pdf/1170741.pdf

Phipps, S. (2009). *The relationship between teacher education, teacher cognition and*

classroom practice in language teaching: A case study of MA students' beliefs about grammar teaching. (Doctoral dissertation). The University of Leeds, Leeds, UK. Retrieved from http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/715/1/uk_bl_ethos_496521.pdf

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). *Motivation in education: Theory, research and applications* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Polanyi, M., & Sen, A. (2009). *The tacit dimension*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

Raffini, J. P. (1993). *Winners without losers: Structures and strategies for increasing student motivation to learn*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Raffini, J. P. (1996). *150 ways to increase intrinsic motivation in the classroom*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Renandya, W. A. (2015). L2 Motivation: Whose responsibility is it? *English Language Teaching, 27*(4), 177-189. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/299836236_L2_motivation_Whose_responsibility_is_it

Richards, J. (1996). Teacher maxims in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(2), 281-296. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org.galanga.hib.no/stable/pdf/3588144.pdf

Richards, J. (1998). *Beyond training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, V. (1997). Constructivist teaching and teacher education: Theory and practice. In V. Richardson (Ed.), *Constructivist teacher education: Building a world of new understandings*. (pp. 3-14). London: Falmer Press.

Rosenthal, R. & Jacobsen, L. (1968). *Pygmalion in the classroom*. NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Sansone, C., & Harackiewicz, J. (2000). *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: The search for optimal motivation and performance (Educational Psychology)*. Burlington: Elsevier Science.

Scheidecker, D., & Freeman, W. (1999). *Bringing out the best in students: How legendary teachers motivate kids*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Schunk, D., Pintrich, P., & Meece, J. (2014). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (4th. ed.). Harlow: Pearson.

Skaalvik, E., & Skaalvik, S. (2009). Elevenes opplevelse av skolen: sentrale sammenhenger og utvikling med alder. *Spesialpedagogikk, 74*(8), 36-47. Retrieved from https://www.utdanningsforbundet.no/PageFiles/121609/skaalvik_skaalvik_v2.pdf

Skaalvik, E., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). *Motivasjon for skolearbeid*. Trondheim: Tapir akademisk.

Steffensen, K. (2016, 15. June). Norge bedre enn EU-snittet på fem av åtte utdanningsmål.

Retrieved from https://www.ssb.no/utdanning/artikler-og-publikasjoner/norge-bedre-enn-eu-snittet-pa-fem-av-atte-utdanningsmal

Stornes, T., Tvedt, M. S., & Bru, E. (2013). Best med test? – Et motivasjonsteoretisk perspektiv på bruk av normative tester i grunnskolen. *Norsk pedagogisk tidsskrift, 97*(4-5), 315-325. Retrieved from https://www-idunn-no.galanga.hib.no/npt/2013/04-05/best_med_test_-_et_motivasjonsteoretisk_perspektiv_paa_bruk

Svarstad, J. (2015, 17. August). Derfor dropper elever ut av skolen. *Aftenposten*. Retrieved from http://www.aftenposten.no/norge/Derfor-dropper-elever-ut-av-skolen31848b.html

Tsui, A. (2003). *Understanding expertise in teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univeristy Press.

US Department of Health and Human Services. (1979). The Belmont Report. Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP). Retrieved from https://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/regulations-and-policy/belmont-report/index.html

Verloop, N., Van Driel, J., & Meijer, P.C. (2001). Teacher knowledge and the knowledge base of teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research, 9*, 47-66. Retrieved from http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0883035502000034/1-s2.0-S0883035502000034main.pdf?_tid=f32165b0-241d-11e7-b8b4-00000aab0f01&acdnat=1492509851_18514249bcfe24ab7d1874ae854c62c6

Walberg, H. J. (1999). Productive teaching. In H. C. Waxman & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), *New directions for teaching practice research* (pp. 75-104). Berkeley, CA: McCutchen.

Weiner, B. (1992). *Human motivation: Metaphors, theories and research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage

Wigfield, A. J., Eccles, J. S., Schiefele, U., Roeser, R. & Davis-Kean, P. (2006). Development of achievement motivation. In W. Damon & N. Eisenberg (eds.), *Handbook of child psychology*. *Vol 3: Social, emotional, and personality development*. New York: Wiley

Wiliam, D. (2011). *Embedded formative assessment*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press.

Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wlodkowski, R. J. (1986). *Enhancing adult motivation to learn*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Zeichner, K., Tabachnick, R., & Densmore, K. (1987). Individual, institutional and cultural influences on the development of teachers' craft knowledge. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Exploring teachers' thinking*. (pp. 21-59). London: Cassell.

Appendices

Appendix I   Informed consent form

To the participants

About the research project

The aim of my research project is to shed light on language teachers' practices and knowledge of motivational strategies in second language (L2) learning. The purpose of my study is to find out how language instructors encourage their pupils to learn English.

Individuals will differ in their motivational approaches. It is therefore important to stress that there is no right or wrong answer.

About the interview

In the interview the topics will be motivation and what you do to encourage your students. I am aware that as a teacher you have a lot do, and your time is precious. If you decide to spare the time to participate in my study, it would be of great help to me and I will be very grateful.

The initial plan is to carry out the interview in English, but feel free to provide your answers partly or entirely in Norwegian if you find it more desirable.

The interview should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. I hope to complete the interviews in due time, hopefully before the Christmas holiday. However, should that be difficult to achieve, I am sure we can agree on a time that is more appropriate for you. Should you wish to participate, we will decide upon a place and time that you find suitable.

Confidentiality

The data collected in this study is anonymous. It will not be possible to identify you or your school in the results when they are published in the MA thesis. The interview will be sound recorded. I hope it will be acceptable. The recordings will be deleted when the official results of the MA will be published.

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. Should you wish to withdraw during or after the interview, the recordings will be deleted immediately.

I am looking forward to your partaking in my research project.
Thank you.

Best regards,
Carina M. Helle
Phone:
E-mail:

Appendix II   Interview-Guide

Beliefs

1. Are you familiar with the term L2 motivation?
2. What characterises an unmotivated pupil to you?
3. What characterises a motivated pupil to you?
4. "All students are motivated to learn under the right conditions and you can provide these conditions in your classroom" – Level of agreement and why.
5. "I feel the pupils' motivation plays a key role in determining their success or failure in language learning" – Level of agreement and why.
6. Whose responsibility is it to encourage a learner?

Think

7. Do you feel you have the skills to motivate your students to learn English?

Knowledge

8. From where would you say your knowledge of how to motivate your students to learn English come from?
    a. Experience (as a learner / as a teacher) – education
9. How would you weight the influence of having studied English yourself on your motivational practice?
10. What would you highlight as important teacher knowledge to be able to motivate students for learning English?

Practice

11. Challenges
    a. What is challenging?
    b. How do you manage challenges?
        i. Manage having students with varying degree of motivation?
12. How do you motivate your learners in the EFL classroom?
    a. Lesson planning
    b. Decision-making in the classroom
    c. Conscious choice – routine practice?

       d.   Approach task of motivating students?

13. To which degree would you say you reflect on your motivational practice?

14. If not able to motivate students

       a.   Proceed if techniques to motivate are not successful?

       b.   Attempt new/unfamiliar motivational techniques?

Appendix III The Questionnaire

About the research project and questionnaire

About the research project
The aim of my research project is to shed light on teachers' practices and knowledge of motivational strategies in second language (L2) learning. I wish to find out how teachers encourage their pupils to learn English.

To the participants
Individuals may differ in their motivational approaches. I rely on your expertise to describe to me you work and opinion as accurately as possible. It is possible that some of the questions do not fit very well within your context. In these cases, please answer as best you can.

Feel free to provide your answers partly or entirely in Norwegian if you find it more suitable.

Confidentiality
The data collected in this study is anonymous. It will not be possible to identify you or your school in the results when they are published in the MA thesis.

Participation in this survey is voluntary and any individual may withdraw at any time.

About the Questionnaire
- **This questionnaire should take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete.**
- **Guidelines for answering the questions are typed in italics. Some questions can be answered by marking the one most appropriate answer. Others are open questions where I hope you will take the time to give elaborate and as detailed answers as possible. Please note that the commentary boxes in <u>question 6</u> are optional.**
- **When in doubt about any aspect of the questionnaire, or if you would like more information about the questionnaire or the study, you can reach me by using the following contact details:**
  - ~~91603104~~
  - ~~unemach@gmail.com~~

Thank you very much for your participation!

Background information

These questions are about you, your education and the time you have spent teaching. In responding to the questions, please mark the appropriate choice(s) or provide figures where necessary.

1. Gender

○ Female

○ Male

2. Age
Please mark your age on the scale

0	100	

3. How many years of work experience do you have as a teacher?
Please round up to whole years and provide your answer in numbers.

Year(s) working as <u>a teacher</u> in total

Year(s) working as <u>an English teacher</u> in total

7

---

[7] The data collected from items regarding the teachers' gender, age, years of experience and educational background have not been used in the present study.

4. In which grade(s) have you been an English teacher?

For some, most of their experience may be centered around a specific level in school.
Please use the final column to mark this.

	Teach this/these grade now	Have taught this/these grade previously	I have taught this/these grade the most
1st grade	☐	☐	☐
2nd grade	☐	☐	☐
3rd grade	☐	☐	☐
4th grade	☐	☐	☐
5th grade	☐	☐	☐
6th grade	☐	☐	☐
7th grade	☐	☐	☐
8th grade	☐	☐	☐
9th grade	☐	☐	☐
10th grade	☐	☐	☐

5. What is your educational background?

Please mark one choice in each row. Please leave a comment if the choices available do not fit your educational background.

	Yes	No
Allmennlærer	☐	☐
Adjunkt GLU 1-7	☐	☐
Adjunkt GLU 5-10	☐	☐
Lektor	☐	☐
I have studied English as part of my teacher education	☐	☐

Other (if non of the alternatives fit you or if you want to add information to the answer you have given)

Motivational strategies

If you currently teach grade 1-4, please keep in mind your practice from motivating learners from 5th to 10th grade. If you have no experience from 5th to 10th grade, answer based on your motivational teaching practice from 1st to 4th grade.

Keep in mind as you answer that the focus of the study is how to motivate language learners.

There is no right or wrong answer. Use of motivational strategies will vary from teacher to teacher and what may work with one group, may not work with another. This is simply an inquiry.

6. Below there is a list of different motivational strategies. Please rate how often you make use of them as an English teacher.
The strategies might be interpreted differently. To illuminate your understanding of the strategy, please consider giving a brief comment on how you make use of it. The commentary box is optional. If you are unsure what is meant with a strategy, please state so in the commentary box.

	Not part of my teaching practice	Almost never	Occasionally	Often	Very often
The teacher's own behaviour as a motivational tool	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

How do you do this?

[ ]

A good relationship with the students	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

How do you do this?

[ ]

A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

How do you do this?

[ ]

A learner group where there is a strong "we" feeling and which students are happy to belong to	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

8

---

7. Please rate how often you make use of the following motivational strategies.
Please mark one choice in each row.

	Not part of my teaching practice	Almost never	Occasionally	Often	Very often
Help the students construct a vision of their future selves as proficient in English	○	○	○	○	○
Guide the students through a number of possible future selves that they have entertained in the past	○	○	○	○	○
Presenting the students to powerful English-speaking role models	○	○	○	○	○
Use techniques such as guided imagery to strengthen the students vision of their future English-speaking selves	○	○	○	○	○
Help the students make their vision plausible/realistic	○	○	○	○	○
Help the students develop an action plan for their vision	○	○	○	○	○
Remind the students of what would happen if their desired selves are not realised	○	○	○	○	○

9

---

[9] The motivational strategies presented in question 7 are from the L2 Motivational Self System, a recently developed motivational framework. These items have not been included in this MA thesis.

Statements

Below you will be presented with some statements regarding motivation. Please keep in mind that the focus of this questionnaire is on foreign language learning.

9. Please rate on the scale the degree to which you agree with the following statements.
Please mark one choice in each row.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I can motivate students who show low interest in school work	◯	◯	◯	◯
I feel I have the skills to motivate all my students to learn English	◯	◯	◯	◯
I learned about motivational strategies in my teacher education	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have learned how to motivate my students from experience	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have read about the strategies I use in research articles	◯	◯	◯	◯
I keep up with recent research within the field of L2 motivation	◯	◯	◯	◯
I try out new motivational strategies that I have learned from recent research in the field of L2 motivation	◯	◯	◯	◯
I feel that pupils' motivation decline in the course of their education	◯	◯	◯	◯
My school encourages me to keep up to date on recent research in the field of L2 motivation	◯	◯	◯	◯
My school makes sure I have the time to read up on recent research in the field of L2 motivation	◯	◯	◯	◯

10

---

[10] The data from items concerning recent research has not been included in this MA thesis.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I find it important to follow up on recent research in L2 motivation	○	○	○	○
I feel my formal education has taught me how to motivate my pupils	○	○	○	○
My school offers courses/seminars on motivational strategies and techniques	○	○	○	○
I would like to learn more about how to motivate my pupils in their English learning	○	○	○	○
I am familiar with the L2 Motivational Self System	○	○	○	○

10. Do you have any other comments?

If there is anything you wish to make clear, some information you wish to impart or otherwise something you would like to comment on, please do so.

Appendix IV Example of table from data analysis – beliefs and knowledge

Codes	Participant 01	Participant 02	Participant 03	Participant 04
Words instead of motivation	You pick up, then you lose, and then you pick up. That's what teaching is about, I think.	I would say that I try to find activities that [the pupils] will enjoy, because that would motivate them. I'm not reflecting upon it using the words motivation.	I use the word fun a lot because I think that is a way to motivate.	I don't think: "I have to remember the motivation bit here, how…" I'm not sitting and thinking about that exact term [motivation]. But I never think: "Now I'm going to plan the most boring lesson ever. I am aiming to catch as few as possible." I plan a lesson and look for material that can make it as interesting as possible and engage as many as possible.
	The thing that will make a task easy or fun to do	That they stay active and that they use English as much as possible.		Motivation is there, but not explicitly. I do not have a structured way of handling it. But it is there when I plan a lesson. Perhaps I have other words for it, like it should be fun …
	I don't think in terms of motivational strategies. I not thinking about motivation or how I can motivate the pupils. I think I do, but I don't tend to have words like motivation flying about in my head. I think: "will they enjoy this?" "Will they learn from it?" And I think if they enjoy it and they learn from it	I wouldn't say that I'm not thinking about motivation or how I can motivate the pupils. I think I do, but I don't tend to have words like motivation flying about in my head. I think: "will they enjoy this?" "Will they learn from it?" And I think if they enjoy it and they learn from it		

Appendix V Example of table from data analysis – motivational strategies

Motivational strategies from Dörnyei's framework (2001)		References to motivational strategies in interviews			
		Participant 01	**Participant 02**	**Participant 03**	**Participant 04**
Creating the basic motivational conditions	Appropriate teacher behaviour and good relationship with learners	While I work with a topic, I can come to you. I can give you a task, I can give you a question to move you along. And I will take another pupil, and I will lose you. I will pick up again, I will try. The teachers I had when I was a child (…) taught me how to be in the classroom and what is best for me as a pupil. And I think that is good for very many and it's good for being seen.	I think it gives you confidence [to have studied English yourself as a teacher]. And I think a certain confidence in what you're teaching is necessary to have to be trustworthy and to actually come across. I think, if the pupils see or realise that the teacher is not quite confident in this or not quite up to date or doesn't seem comfortable having this subject at all, and then they will start to not pay attention. Even if you're doing an all right job, they might not be paying attention to you because you don't come across as trustworthy or as person with authority.	I always ask the pupils what motivates them and what they think is OK to do in the English class. The students will tell me how they like to learn. I listen to them. (…) I ask them what they like and after we've done an activity, like if we had a play, I ask them afterwards if they liked it and why. And what could be different. I think that is a way of asking them if they learned something from it. Was it fun? Was it motivating? And you will always get different	You can't tell from looking at them what their reason [for being unmotivated] is. You sort of have to get to know them. So I find that it is a great advantage to know them. It is an advantage to know the pupil. For instance, now when I start teaching in a class I don't really know, it is difficult to get the pupils started. So it is important, to find something that interests them. (…) And it is easier to challenge them when you know them. When you know if this is a weak student who needs a lot of accommodation or if this is a strong student who is able, but needs to be pushed.

within that subject answers anymore.

You need a certain level of trust between you as a teacher and them as pupils to achieve that [to make them see that even if a task is boring, it is necessary and valuable to learn].

[When] they start working independently it is about picking them up. That you find those pupils who are not present in the learning situation, and you try and pick them up. You more very fast and within many different levels of communication all the time without really knowing what's happening. But you try to find each single pupil, and you know that you are not going to make it. It's kind of sad, but it's fun as well.

I find it motivating when I meet people who really know their subject, who are passionate and skilled. They can talk about anything, whether it is an interesting topic or not, as long as they're skilled. So [I think] the skills of those who teach [affect pupils' motivation]