THE USE OF MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES IN THE SAUDI EFL CLASSROOM

Fakieh Abduh M Alrabai, MA.

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, University of Newcastle, Australia
July, 2010
DECLARATION

I hereby certify that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text. I give consent to this copy of my thesis, when deposited in the University of Newcastle Library, being made available for loan and photocopying subject to the provisions of the Copyright Act 1968.

(Signed): (Candidate)

Date: 12/07/2010
Publications

Acknowledgements

The number of those to whom I am indebted to for making this work come true is much greater than the scope of this space. My apologies go to all those whose names deserve to be mentioned.

First and foremost, I am immensely grateful to my principal supervisor, Dr Christo Moskovsky for his deep expertise, invaluable guidance, and inspiration without which it would have been impossible for this work to come into being. The same appreciation goes to the other supervision team members — Dr Stefania Paolini and Dr Silvia Ratcheva — for their help with many different design and statistical aspects of the thesis.

Sincere gratitude goes to those top figures in the field of L2 motivation/education such as Zoltán Dörnyei, Jere Brophy, Gary Chambers, Kata Csizér, Dale Schunk, and John Malouff for their precious advice with regard to the implementation of our research.

I am also indebted to the teachers who volunteered to take part in the study at the two different stages of this project. Special thanks go to those who trusted me enough to invite me into their classes at the second stage. Thanks are also due to the students who consented to take part in this study, and thus enabled me to gather the data without which this study could not have been conducted. Appreciation is extended to the administrators of the educational institutions in Saudi Arabia where this study was conducted for granting permission to the study to take part at their institutions.

My heartfelt gratitude goes to my father and mother for their patience, help, and prayers, and to my brothers, sisters, and friends for their continuous encouragement. The care, love, patience, and support of my wife Nahlah Al-Asiri makes me believe that the words that recognise her sacrifice do not yet exist in any language. My heartfelt thanks to her and to our beloved sons Abdulaziz and Musaab for the happiness and joy they have brought to my life.
# Contents

Chapter 1 ................................................................................................................................ 1  
Introduction ............................................................................................................................ 1  
1.1 Statement of the Problem .................................................................................................... 3  
1.2 Goals of the Study ............................................................................................................. 4  
1.3 Significance of the Study .................................................................................................... 4  
1.4 Research Questions ............................................................................................................. 6  
1.5 How this Study was Conducted ........................................................................................... 6  
1.6 Research Site: Saudi Arabia ................................................................................................ 7  
1.7 EFL Teaching and Learning in Saudi Arabia ...................................................................... 8  
1.8 Definitions of Key Concepts ............................................................................................. 10  

Chapter 2 .............................................................................................................................. 12  
Review of the Related Literature.......................................................................................... 12  
2.1 General Background .......................................................................................................... 12  
2.2 Conceptualisations of Motivation ..................................................................................... 12  
2.3 Theories of Motivation ...................................................................................................... 15  

| 2.3.1 | Leading Theories of Motivation in Psychology ............................................................... 15  
| 2.3.1.1 | Early Theories of Human Motivation............................................................................... 15  
| 2.3.1.2 | Contemporary Theories of Human Motivation ................................................................. 19  
| 2.3.1.2.1 | Expectancy-Value Theories ........................................................................................... 19  
| 2.3.1.2.1.1 | Expectancy of Success Theories .................................................................................. 19  
| 2.3.1.2.1.1.1 | Attribution Theory ....................................................................................................... 19  
| 2.3.1.2.1.1.2 | Self-Efficacy Theory .................................................................................................... 20  
| 2.3.1.2.1.1.3 | Self-Worth Theory .................................................................................................... 21  
| 2.3.1.2.1.2 | Value of Success Theories ............................................................................................ 21  
| 2.3.1.2.2 | Goal Theories ................................................................................................................ 21  
| 2.3.1.2.2.1 | Goal-Setting Theory .................................................................................................... 22  
| 2.3.1.2.2.2 | Goal-Orientaation Theory ............................................................................................ 22  
| 2.3.2 | The Influential Theories of L2 Motivation ........................................................................ 22  
| 2.3.2.1 | The Social-Psychological Period (1959-1990) .................................................................. 23  
| 2.3.2.1.1 | Gardner’s Social-Psychological Theory ........................................................................ 23  
| 2.3.2.1.2 | Keller’s (1983) Motivational-Design Model .................................................................. 28  
| 2.3.2.2 | The Cognitive-Situated Period (1990-2000) .................................................................... 30  
| 2.3.2.2.1 | Dörnyei’s (1994) Framework of L2 Motivation ............................................................... 31  
| 2.3.2.2.2 | Williams and Burden’s (1997) Model of L2 Motivation .................................................. 34  
| 2.3.2.2.3 | Task Motivation ............................................................................................................ 36  

iv
2.3.2.2.4 L2 Motivation Expectancy-Value Theories .......................................................... 37
  2.3.2.2.4.1 The Concepts of Self-Confidence and Linguistic Self-Confidence .......... 38
  2.3.2.2.4.2 Language Anxiety .................................................................................. 40
  2.3.2.2.4.3 Attribution Theory of L2 Learning ......................................................... 41
  2.3.2.2.5 Achievement Motivation Theory .............................................................. 42
  2.3.2.2.6 Self-Determination Theory (SDT) ............................................................ 43
2.3.2.3 The Process-Oriented Period (2000 Onwards) ................................................... 44
  2.3.2.3.1 Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation ................. 44
2.4 Significance of Motivation/ L2 Motivation .............................................................. 47
2.5 Types of Motivation and their Role in SL/FL Acquisition ........................................ 48
  2.5.1 Integrative Motivation ..................................................................................... 48
  2.5.2 Instrumental Motivation .................................................................................. 50
  2.5.3 Intrinsic Motivation ....................................................................................... 51
     2.5.3.1 The Intrinsic Needs of Students .............................................................. 52
        2.5.3.1.1 The Need for Autonomy and Self-Determination ......................... 52
        2.5.3.1.2 The Need for Competence ............................................................ 53
        2.5.3.1.3 The Need for Belonging and Relatedness .................................... 53
        2.5.3.1.4 The Need for Self-Esteem ............................................................... 53
        2.5.3.1.5 The Need for Involvement and Enjoyment ................................. 54
     2.5.3.2 Achieving Intrinsic Motivation in L2 Learning ........................................ 54
     2.5.3.3 The Role of Intrinsic Motivation in L2 Learning ...................................... 54
  2.5.4 Extrinsic Motivation ....................................................................................... 55
2.6 The L2 Motivational Self System ............................................................................ 57
2.7 Motivational Strategies ......................................................................................... 59
  2.7.1 Creating Basic Motivational Conditions ........................................................... 63
     2.7.1.1 Demonstrating Proper Teacher Behaviour .............................................. 63
        2.7.1.1.1 Teacher’s Enthusiasm ................................................................. 63
        2.7.1.1.2 Teacher’s Commitment ............................................................... 66
        2.7.1.1.3 Teacher’s Care and Acceptance .................................................... 67
        2.7.1.1.4 Teacher’s Immediacy ................................................................. 68
     2.7.1.2 Creating a Pleasant Classroom Atmosphere .............................................. 70
     2.7.1.3 Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Setting Group Norms ..................... 70
  2.7.2 Generating Initial Motivation .......................................................................... 72
     2.7.2.1 Familiarising Learners with L2 Culture and L2 Related Values ............... 73
     2.7.2.2 Increasing Learners’ Expectancy of Success ............................................. 73
     2.7.2.3 Promoting Learners’ Positive Goals (Goal-Orientedness) and Realistic Beliefs .. 76
     2.7.2.4 Relating Language Learning to Learners’ Needs and Goals ...................... 78
  2.7.3 Maintaining and Protecting Motivation ......................................................... 79
2.7.3.1 Making Learning Stimulating and Enjoyable ........................................................ 79
2.7.3.2 Diminishing Learners’ Anxiety and Building up Their Self-Confidence ........ 80
2.7.3.3 Promoting Learners’ Autonomy ........................................................................ 82
2.7.4 Encouraging Positive Self-Evaluation ....................................................................... 83
2.7.4.1 Promoting Learners’ Motivational Attributions .................................................... 84
2.7.4.2 Providing Learners with Motivational Feedback .................................................. 85
2.7.4.3 Increasing Learners’ Satisfaction .......................................................................... 86
2.8 L2 Motivation Studies Conducted in the Saudi EFL Context ........................................... 91

Chapter 3 .............................................................................................................................. 96
Methodology of the Research .............................................................................................. 96
3.1 Overview ........................................................................................................................... 96
3.2 Empirical Study ................................................................................................................ 96
3.2.1 Empirical Investigation at the First Stage ................................................................. 97
3.2.1.1 Participants ............................................................................................................ 97
3.2.1.2 The Instrument ...................................................................................................... 99
3.2.1.2.1 Selection of Variables ................................................................................... 100
3.2.1.3 Procedures ........................................................................................................... 104
3.2.1.3.1 Piloting .......................................................................................................... 104
3.2.1.3.2 Reliability of the Instrument ......................................................................... 104
3.2.1.3.3 Recruitment of Participants ........................................................................... 105
3.2.2 Empirical Investigation at the Second Stage ........................................................... 106
3.2.2.1 Participants .......................................................................................................... 107
3.2.2.1.1 The Participating Institutions ........................................................................ 107
3.2.2.1.2 The Participating Teachers ............................................................................ 107
3.2.2.1.3 The Participating Students ............................................................................ 108
3.2.2.2 Research Protocol ................................................................................................ 111
3.2.2.2.1 The Teachers’ Appraisal ............................................................................... 111
3.2.2.2.1.1 Teacher’s Classroom Observation Instrument ....................................... 111
3.2.2.2.1.2 The Teacher’s Post-Lesson Evaluation Scale ........................................ 113
3.2.2.2.1.2.1 The Teacher’s Teaching Style ......................................................... 113
3.2.2.2.1.2.2 The Teacher’s Verbal Immediacy Behaviours ................................ 116
3.2.2.2.1.2.3 The Teacher’s Credibility................................................................ 117
3.2.2.2.1.3 Illustrative Implementation Guide ......................................................... 117
3.2.2.2.2 The Learners’ Appraisal ................................................................................ 118
3.2.2.2.2.1 Students’ Motivation Questionnaire ....................................................... 118
3.2.2.2.1.2 Instrument Development ................................................................. 119
3.2.2.2.1.2.1 Part A: Variables Measuring the Learners’ Trait Motivation for Learning 119
3.2.2.2.1.2.2 Part B: Variables Measuring the Learners’ State Motivation for Learning English ................................................................. 122
3.2.2.2.1.2.3 Part C: Evaluation of L2 Learning Environment: L2 Teacher, L2 Course, L2 Group of Learners, and L2 Learner .................................................. 125
3.2.2.2.2 Students’ Classroom Observation Instrument ........................................ 127
3.2.2.2.3 Procedures ..................................................................................................... 129
3.2.2.2.3.1 Pre-Recruitment .................................................................................... 129
3.2.2.2.3.2 Data Collection ....................................................................................... 131
3.3 Data Analysis: An Overview ................................................................................ 134
Chapter 4 ............................................................................................................................ 135
Preliminary Analyses ......................................................................................................... 135
4.1 Overview ......................................................................................................................... 135
4.2 Preliminary Analyses on Teachers’ Questionnaire Data ................................................. 136
4.3 Preliminary Analyses on Students’ Questionnaire Data ................................................. 138
4.4 Preliminary Analyses on Teachers’ Classroom Observation Data .................................. 144
4.5 Preliminary Analyses on Students’ Classroom Observation Data ................................. 145
4.6 Preliminary Analyses on Teachers’ Post-Lesson Evaluation Data ................................. 146
4.7 Summary ......................................................................................................................... 146
Chapter 5 ............................................................................................................................ 148
Main Analyses, Findings, and Discussion .......................................................................... 148
5.1 Overview ......................................................................................................................... 148
5.2 1st. Research Question (Q1) ........................................................................................ 149
5.2.1 Macro Strategy Rankings ........................................................................................ 152
5.2.2 Micro Strategy Rankings ......................................................................................... 170
5.2.3 Summary ................................................................................................................. 173
5.3 2nd. Research Question (Q2) ........................................................................................ 174
5.3.1 Summary ................................................................................................................. 182
5.4 3rd. Research Question (Q3) ........................................................................................ 183
5.4.1 Effect of Motivational Strategies on Students’ Classroom Behaviour ................. 183
5.4.2 Effect of Motivational Strategies on Students’ Motivational Variables ............... 185
5.4.3 Summary ................................................................................................................. 206
5.5 4th. Research Question (Q4) ........................................................................................ 207
5.5.1 Summary ................................................................................................................. 210
Chapter 6 ............................................................................................................................ 211
Conclusions, Contributions, Limitations, and Implications ........................................... 211
6.1 Overview ......................................................................................................................... 211
6.2 General Review ............................................................................................................... 211
6.3 Summary of the Major Findings of the Study .................................................................. 212
   6.3.1 Summary of the Major Findings of the Empirical Investigation at the First Stage ..... 212
   6.3.2 Summary of the Major Findings of the Empirical Investigation at the Second Stage 214
6.4 Contributions of the Study .............................................................................................. 214
6.5 Limitations of the Study .................................................................................................. 215
6.6 Implications of the Study ................................................................................................ 216

Bibliography ......................................................................................................................... 221

APPENDICES ......................................................................................................................... 245

Appendix A: Teachers’ questionnaire (English version) ............................................................ 245
Appendix B: Teachers’ questionnaire (Arabic version) ............................................................... 250
Appendix C: Table 50: Initial rank order and descriptive statistics of the macro strategies/scales and their constituent single/micro strategies ............................................................. 254
Appendix D: Table 51: Descriptive statistics for the motivation indices in students’ questionnaire at T1 and T2: Mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness, standard error of skewness (SES), kurtosis, and standard error of kurtosis (SEK). ........................................................................ 257
Appendix E: Table 52: The Cronbach alpha and Pearson correlation coefficients for the teachers’ classroom observation variables at each observation conducted at T1 and T2 .................... 258
Appendix F: Table 53: The Cronbach alpha coefficients and Pearson correlations for the students’ classroom observation construct at each test conducted at T1 and T2 .......................................................... 259
Appendix G: Implementation guide ...................................................................................... 260
Appendix H: Motivational strategies use checklist ................................................................. 275
Appendix I: Students’ questionnaire (English version) ........................................................... 277
Appendix J: Students’ questionnaire (Arabic version) ............................................................. 295
Appendix K: Classroom observation ..................................................................................... 311
Appendix L: Teachers’ post-lesson evaluation ....................................................................... 313
List of Tables

Table 1: Gender of participants at the first stage................................................................. 97
Table 2: Age of participants at the first stage...................................................................... 97
Table 3: EFL teaching experience of participants at the first stage...................................... 98
Table 4: Regional background of participants at the first stage .......................................... 99
Table 5: Qualifications of participating teachers at the second stage................................. 107
Table 6: Number of participating students .......................................................................... 108
Table 7: Reasons for excluding some participating students .............................................. 108
Table 8: Learner groups ....................................................................................................... 109
Table 9: Distribution of learners in learner groups .............................................................. 109
Table 10: Distribution of participating students by groups ................................................. 109
Table 11: Gender of participating students ......................................................................... 110
Table 12: Age of participating students ............................................................................ 110
Table 13: EFL learning experience of participating students .............................................. 110
Table 14: School level of participating students .................................................................. 110
Table 15: Regional distribution of students ...................................................................... 111
Table 16: Final rank order and descriptive statistics of the newly extracted macro strategies scales by subscales ................................................................................................................................. 138
Table 17: Reliability coefficients (alpha) and Pearson correlation coefficients for the motivation constructs of students’ questionnaire for the whole sample and for the experimental and control groups at T1 and T2. ....................................................................................................................... 139
Table 18: Pattern Matrix (Oblimin Rotation) of the factors underlying the “Evaluation of English teacher” construct................................................................................................................................. 140
Table 19: Pattern Matrix (Oblimin Rotation) of the factors underlying the “Evaluation of the EFL group of learners” construct ............................................................................................................ 142
Table 20: Reliability coefficients (alpha) and Pearson correlation coefficients of the newly extracted motivational constructs ................................................................................................................................. 143
Table 21: Reliability coefficients (alpha) for the underlying dimensions of the teachers’ classroom observation construct at T1 and T2 ................................................................................................. 144
Table 22: Reliability coefficients (alpha) for the underlying dimensions of the students’ classroom observation construct at T1 and T2 ................................................................................................. 145
Table 23: Reliability coefficients (alpha) for the underlying dimensions of the teachers’ post-lesson evaluation construct at T1 and T2 ................................................................................................. 146
Table 54*: Final rank order and descriptive statistics of the macro strategies/scales and their constituent single/micro strategies .................................................................................................. 150
Table 24: Comparison of the final rank order of the macro strategies/scales obtained in this study and in Hungary (1998), Taiwan (2007) .................................................................................................. 168
Table 25: The final rank order and descriptive statistics of the top 10 micro motivational strategies ........................................................................................................................................ 170
Table 26: The mixed model ANOVA condition x time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (teachers’ classroom observation data) ........................................................................ 175
Table 27: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 teachers’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time ........................................................................................................ 176
Table 28: Time repeated measure ANOVA on teachers’ classroom observation data separately by group conditions (Experimental vs. Control) ........................................................................ 177
Table 29: Condition between-subjects ANCOVA on T2 teachers’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate) ..................................................................... 178
Table 30: The mixed model ANOVA condition x Time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data) .................................................................... 179
Table 31: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data on each variable at the time ........................................................................................................ 180
Table 32: Time repeated measure ANOVA on teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data separately by group conditions (Experimental vs. Control) ........................................................................ 180
Table 33: Condition between-subject ANCOVA on T2 teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate) ..................................................................... 181
Table 34: The mixed model ANOVA condition x Time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (students’ classroom observation data) ................................................................... 183
Table 35: Condition between-subject ANOVA on T1 students’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time ........................................................................................................ 184
Table 36: Time repeated measure ANOVA on students’ classroom observation data separately by group conditions (Experimental vs. Control) ........................................................................ 184
Table 37: Condition between-subject ANCOVA on T2 students’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate) ..................................................................... 185
Table 38: The mixed model ANOVA condition x Time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (students’ questionnaire data) ........................................................................ 187
Table 39: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 students’ questionnaire data on each variable at the time ........................................................................................................ 188
Table 40: Time repeated measure ANOVA on students’ questionnaire data separately by group conditions (Experimental. vs. Control) ................................................................. 189
Table 41: Condition between-subjects ANCOVA on T2 students’ questionnaire data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate) .......................................................... 194
Table 42: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 students’ trait & state motivation data on each variable at the time............................................................................................................... 199
Table 43: Condition between-subjects ANCOVA on T2 students’ trait & state motivation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate) ...................................................... 199
Table 44: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teachers’ and students’ motivational behaviours in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2 .................... 202
Table 45: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teachers’ immediacy behaviours and their credibility in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2 .................... 204
Table 46: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teacher’s motivational behaviours and students’ overall motivation in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2. ........................................................................................................................................ 204
Table 47: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teacher’s motivational practice and students’ motivation in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2 .......... 205
Table 48: The macro motivational strategies in Dörnyei’s (2001) model ranked according to their effectiveness in making changes in students’ motivational variables ................................................................. 208
Table 49: The levels of variables in Dörnyei’s (1994) model ranked according to the degree they were affected by motivational strategies implementation .................................................. 210
Table 50: Initial rank order and descriptive statistics of the macro strategies/scales and their constituent single/micro strategies .................................................................................................. 254
Table 51: Descriptive statistics for the motivation indices in students’ questionnaire at T1 and T2: Mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness, standard error of skewness (SES), kurtosis, and standard error of kurtosis (SEK). ............................................................................................................................ 257
Table 52: The Cronbach alpha and Pearson correlation coefficients for the teachers’ classroom observation variables at each observation conducted at T1 and T2 ........................................... 258
Table 53: The Cronbach alpha coefficients and Pearson correlations for the students’ classroom observation construct at each test conducted at T1 and T2 ........................................................................ 259
List of Figures

Figure 1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Human Needs................................................................. 18
Figure 2: Gardner’s (1985) Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition............... 24
Figure 3: Components of Gardner’s Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) .......................... 26
Figure 4: Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) Model of L2 Motivation........................................ 28
Figure 5: Dörnyei’s (1994) Model of L2 Motivation........................................................... 33
Figure 6: Williams and Burden’s (1997) Framework of L2 Motivation................................. 35
Figure 7: Schematic Representation of the Three Mechanisms Making up the Motivational Task-
Processing System.................................................................................................................... 37
Figure 8: Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation................................. 46
Figure 9: Gardner’s Conceptualisation of the Integrative Motivation...................................... 49
Figure 10: Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System.................................................................. 58
Figure 11: Knight’s (2006) Model of Teacher’s Credibility.................................................... 65
Figure 12: The Components of Motivational L2 Teaching Practice....................................... 90

List of Charts

Chart 1: School level of participants at the first stage......................................................... 98
Chart 2: Teaching experience of the participating teachers at the second stage .................. 108
Abstract

This study examined longitudinally the effectiveness of some motivational strategies in promoting the L2 motivation of Saudi learners in their EFL classes. The study conducted empirical investigations over two stages. In the first stage, the study utilised a 53-item questionnaire survey among 119 EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia by which they were asked to rate strategies in terms of how important they consider each for enhancing students’ motivation in the language classroom. Based on the participating teachers’ responses, the rank order of the macro strategies in this survey was obtained. The top 10 motivational single strategies that were implemented in the Saudi EFL classes at the second stage of the experiment were also identified.

In the second stage, 296 EFL students and 14 teachers were involved. Students were randomly divided into two groups: an experimental group that was exposed to the 10 pre-selected motivational strategies in their classes by seven teachers, and a control group in which the other seven teachers followed the traditional way of teaching. The treatment continued over the duration of one semester/school term of study. Motivation questionnaires were administered to students at the start and the end of the experimental period. In addition, a classroom observation protocol and a teacher post-lesson evaluation protocol were used to assess the teachers’ motivational practices and students’ motivated behaviours in the classroom.

The statistical analyses of the data clearly showed a significant rise in motivational levels for students in the experimental, but not the control group. The results of the study therefore provide compelling evidence that teachers’ motivational behaviours do lead to enhanced motivation in their L2 learners.
Chapter 1

Introduction

Research has unequivocally acknowledged that motivation is a key factor with a vital role in relation to the success (or lack thereof) in attaining competence in the second/foreign language (L2). This issue seems to be of particular pertinence to the Saudi Arabian educational context where it is widely recognised that many Saudi learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) fail to gain even a modest level of proficiency in this language.

The current study investigates the role that motivation plays in teaching/learning English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia, where it is widely acknowledged that Saudi EFL learners generally do not possess very high levels of L2 motivation (Al-Shammary, 1984; AlMaiman, 2005). The reasons for this phenomenon are diverse and complex, but the relative paucity of research on motivation within the Saudi context has certainly made no significant contribution to improve this situation. The few existing Saudi studies on L2 motivation seem only to have been concerned with establishing empirically the low levels of motivation in Saudi EFL learners without any attempt to explore in greater depth the nature of the problem. Such studies have investigated the types of motivation that may be of most relevance to the Saudi cultural and educational setting but no single study tried to identify motivational techniques/strategies that can successfully be utilised to enhance Saudi EFL learners’ motivation and thus ultimately improve learning outcomes for an EFL cohort notorious for its lack of success.

This study goes beyond the traditional way of researching motivation in Saudi Arabia by targeting a novel dimension of L2 motivation research in that context. It goes further than identifying and analysing various motives in Saudi EFL learners and instead seeks to find an answer to the question of how to motivate those learners to learn English through implementing some practical motivational strategies in the Saudi EFL classes.
The current chapter introduces the field of L2 motivation and explains the rationale for choosing the topic of the study, the main goals of the research, the significance of the study, and the research questions. It also provides a description of the Saudi Arabian social and educational context within which the study was conducted.

The next chapter provides a comprehensive review of the relevant literature and discusses how previous studies and scholarly sources have dealt with the topic of motivation. This literature review involves a critical discussion of the concept of motivation in general and L2 motivation in particular; the leading theories of motivation in psychology and those influential in the field of foreign language motivation; the vital role that motivation plays in the acquisition of a second/foreign language; the different types of L2 motivation; the L2 motivational self system; motivational strategies; and an evaluation of the previous studies that have been carried out on L2 motivation in the Saudi Arabian context.

Chapter three presents a detailed description of the research methodology. This was an experimental study that involved several collections of quantitative data from a relatively large number of participants. For the purposes of the research, a range of data collection instruments were deployed, such as structured questionnaires, classroom observations, and teachers’ post-lesson evaluation.

The fourth chapter discusses the preliminary analyses conducted on the collected data. These analyses included internal consistency tests, factor analyses, normality tests, etc.

The next chapter reports on the main statistical analyses to which the data were submitted, determining such functions as means, standard deviations, ANOVAs, ANCOVAs, etc. in order to derive the findings of the study. A comprehensive description of the results of the study is then presented, together with an analytical discussion of these results.

The final chapter introduces a summary of the findings of the study as well as some of the contributions it presents to the study of L2 motivation. Some of the limitations that faced the conduct of the study are discussed next. In addition, future trends in the field of L2
motivation to be investigated are also specified. A list of implications for EFL teachers, EFL learners, and EFL policy makers in Saudi Arabia concludes this chapter.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The general scarcity of research on L2 motivation in Saudi Arabia is a well-recognised problem that has resulted in a lack of sufficient attention being given to the fundamental role that this affective variable of motivation plays in the EFL learning/teaching process in that context.

Another well-known problem in relation to the L2 motivation research in Saudi Arabia concerns the nature of the few studies that have been conducted to date on this important factor. These almost exclusively deal with the integrative/instrumental motivation distinction but do not provide any implications that have direct relevance to the actual classroom applications. To the researcher’s best knowledge, there has not been a single study conducted in the Saudi context to assess the effectiveness of motivational strategies in motivating language learners. It is therefore appropriate or even necessary to go beyond the traditional way of researching L2 motivation in Saudi Arabia to pursue a new methodology whereby some practical techniques and strategies relevant to classroom practices can be identified and subsequently implemented so that their usefulness in motivating EFL learners in the actual learning setting in Saudi Arabia may be investigated.

A third problem with the previous L2 motivation research in Saudi Arabia is that none of the previous studies has attempted to assess the EFL teachers’ role as motivators in the language classroom and how their practices can, positively or negatively, affect the EFL learners’ language motivation. It is important then to examine how the teaching practices of EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia can be linked to their students’ motivation and how such practices can be improved to enhance students’ motivation.
1.2 Goals of the Study

The main objectives of this study are as follows:

A. To identify the top 10 strategies that Saudi EFL teachers perceive as the most important for promoting students’ L2 motivation in the language classroom.

B. To design practical techniques for educators and teachers of English in Saudi Arabia that can be used to effectively implement motivational strategies in the L2 classroom.

C. To establish whether implementing these motivational strategies/techniques will bring about an improvement in EFL teachers’ motivational teaching practices as well as in a boost in the learners’ motivational levels.

D. To contribute to the field of English curriculum design in Saudi Arabia by providing ideas for English curriculum designers on how to integrate some motivational strategies into the teaching curriculum/syllabus for the purpose of promoting learners’ L2 motivation.

1.3 Significance of the Study

The need for this research is very well-established and can be expected to make a significant contribution not only to second/foreign language teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia but also to second language acquisition theory more generally.

On a broad level, it is important to emphasise that this project follows a systematic way of research that investigates the direct relationship between the use of motivational strategies and students’ motivation in the language classes. This is an original new approach to the study of L2 motivation, which has not been part of previous studies elsewhere and can therefore be expected to produce substantive new findings with regard to such an elusive construct as motivation.

On a specific level, this study is of a particular value to the EFL learning/teaching environment in Saudi Arabia as it could open a new agenda of L2 motivation research there.
The study is the first in the Saudi EFL context to utilise motivational techniques in the EFL classrooms and examine their effects on many aspects of learners’ L2 motivation. The utilisation of these strategies is anticipated to result in a positive change in these motivational aspects.

The current study is also the first in the Saudi EFL context to call attention to the importance of teachers’ behaviours in promoting EFL learners’ motivation and how such behaviours can affect students’ motivation. In this respect, it is anticipated that this study is going to confirm what earlier studies (e.g. Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Chambers, 1999) have reported that of all the factors hypothesised in their studies to contribute to the learner’s positive or negative appraisal of L2 learning, the teacher’s own behaviour is regarded by learners as the most important one.

The study involved a relatively big random sample of EFL teachers and learners who represented socially and geographically diverse parts of the country as well as different levels of schooling (secondary or tertiary) and EFL teaching/learning experience. It can be therefore regarded as significant in terms of its representativeness, and could accordingly be in a position to yield valid generalisations for the whole population of EFL learners and teachers in Saudi Arabia.

The study is novel in its experimental longitudinal design. Such a design, compared with cross-sectional studies, has a greater capacity to reveal changes in learners’ motivational levels overtime.

The survey batteries developed for the purposes of the current project target a wide range of general and situation-specific motivational constructs. The nature of these batteries would make them a valuable research instrument for further research on motivation — not only in the Saudi Arabian context, but also elsewhere.
1.4 Research Questions

This study deals with the following main research questions:

Q1: Which macro and micro L2 motivational strategies do EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia perceive as the most important for enhancing students’ English language learning motivation in that context?

Q2: Does the implementation of the top 10 micro motivational strategies by teachers in the experimental classes affect these teachers’ motivational behaviours?

Q3. What is the effect of the 10 micro motivational strategies implemented by teachers on students’ English language learning motivation?

Q4. Which L2 macro motivational strategies are likely to work best towards making a change in Saudi students’ English language learning motivation?

1.5 How this Study was Conducted

This section describes briefly how the study evolved chronologically. The first major task was to collect data involving Saudi EFL teachers’ judgements/perceptions of what they consider to be the most effective motivational strategies that teachers can use in the language classroom. 119 teachers representing a wide variety of regional and educational settings were recruited. The collected data were statistically analysed and the top 10 micro strategies were identified. These were the strategies selected for classroom implementation in the next stage of the research. The next major task was to examine the effectiveness of the implementation of these strategies in promoting EFL learners’ L2 motivation. For this purpose, 296 EFL students and 14 teachers were involved. Motivational surveys and classroom observations were conducted to collect data from participants at this stage. The collected data were subjected to some statistical analyses and the effects of the experimental manipulation were accordingly figured out.
1.6 Research Site: Saudi Arabia

As Al-Shammary (1984) explains, Saudi Arabia occupies a very influential position both within the Islamic world and globally.

For the Islamic world, Saudi Arabia is the core place of Islam as it allocates the two holy mosques in Makkah and Meddinah and the Kabbah to which all Muslims turn when performing their five daily prayers. Millions of Muslims from all over the world come annually to Saudi Arabia to perform pilgrimage (the fifth pillar of Islam), which requires Saudi people to speak the different languages of the visiting people, including English, in order to communicate with them.

In a global perspective, Saudi Arabia is the richest oil producer and exporter to many countries around the world including the United States, China, the United Kingdom, etc. Al-Maini (2006) states that the exploitation of its huge natural resources, especially oil, has resulted in increased contact with English-speaking trading partners and political contacts, and the value of learning English as an international language of business, politics, education, and science has become apparent. There are hundreds of foreign companies investing in Saudi Arabia, especially in the petroleum industry. These companies usually employ thousands of foreign workers, and as a consequence there is a great need to learn English to communicate with them. Furthermore, Al-Nasser (1999) has emphasised the vital importance of the English language to the Saudis in other social domains in which it plays a key role such as business, international communication, tourism, and media.

There are many aspects where English is of great importance to Saudi citizens on an individual level. For example, English is a requirement for employment in most private businesses and government companies, especially in petroleum companies like the Saudi Arabian Oil Company (Saudi Aramco). Learning English in order to qualify for positions with these employers has been a driving force for job applicants. English is also a requirement to complete higher education in some majors in Saudi faculties like medicine, engineering, and nursing, where it is the medium of instruction in these courses. In addition, English is necessity to pursue future studies in English-speaking countries like the United
States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, etc. English is also essential to communicate with the medical personnel working in Saudi Arabian medical institutions like physicians, chemists, and nurses.

1.7 EFL Teaching and Learning in Saudi Arabia

The pre-university instruction stage in Saudi Arabian schools spans 12 years and is divided into three stages: the elementary stage (6 years), intermediate stage (3 years), and secondary stage (3 years). Due to religious and cultural reasons, there is no co-education in Saudi Arabia. Females in all stages are taught by only female teachers and they study in same-sex schools, completely separated from males.

English was introduced in Saudi schools in the late 1950s (Al-Shammary, 1984). It was taught only in intermediate and secondary schools (Years 7-12). Only very recently has English been introduced in the last year of elementary schools (Year 6). The rationale for the late learning of English is that its acquisition might interfere with the acquisition of the mother language (Arabic) if taught in early age. The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia usually provide teachers with a prescribed curriculum to teach English in the different stages at Saudi public schools. This course is entitled “English for Saudi Arabia”. It includes a textbook and a workbook combined under the name of Pupil’s Book presented to students and a teaching manual named Teacher’s Book provided to teachers. Teaching materials of 12 posters, two sets of flash cards, and one tape are provided with the teacher’s book for each grade. In the Sixth Grade Elementary Pupil's English Book (2010), the Ministry of Education summarised the general objectives of the EFL curriculum in Saudi Arabian schools by stating that the teaching of English in Saudi Arabia is intended to equip students with the linguistic competence that enables them to acquire basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), develop their awareness of the importance of English as a means of international communication, present and explain the Islamic concepts and issues and participate in spreading Islam, present the culture and civilization of their nation, acquire the linguistic bases that enable students to participate in transferring the scientific and technological advances of other nations to their nation, and much more.
Each student’s book is divided into 12 units to be taught over the whole year (two semesters). Each unit consists of eight lessons to be studied within two weeks (four hours per week). Each lesson includes a variety of different skills like reading comprehension passages, word study, grammar, writing skills, etc.

Al-Maini (2006) has clarified that the teacher’s book contains sets of objectives for each lesson to accomplish as well as detailed instructions to teachers to present the lesson content. These instructions comprise up-to-date methods (e.g. Communicative Methods) and explicit notes and directions for teachers on how to use teaching materials appropriately. In his case study, Al-Maini explained that these methods were, however, seldom applied in the ways that the course designers intended. According to him, most teachers switched to their favourite method, the Grammar-Translation Method, for a number of reasons, such as the density of the course and their fear of not being able to cover the whole syllabus on time.

At the university level, English is the medium of instruction in some scientific colleges like the colleges of medicine and engineering of all Saudi universities (Al-Shammary, 1984). It is also the medium of instruction at most of the colleges of some of the leading Saudi universities, like King Fahad University for Petroleum and Minerals in Dhahran and King Saud University in Riyadh.

As to avoid the high cost of the native speaker instructors (see Al-Kamookh, 1981; Al-Ahaydib, 1986), English is taught by non-native speakers of English like Saudis, Egyptians, Jordanians, etc. at most of Saudi Arabian schools and universities.

Generally, English is still considered a foreign language in Saudi Arabia (e.g., Al-Maini, 2006) due to the dominance of the Arabic mother tongue in most of the life daily activities, which offers relatively limited chances to hear, speak, and write English inside or outside the classroom (Alotaibi, 2004). Another well-known factor contributing to such a situation is the very limited contact the majority of Saudi people have with the foreign language.
speakers and recently the restricted access they have to the places where the native speakers of English in Saudi Arabia live or work.

Both the Saudi government and individuals are now aware of the great importance of English on all levels (educationally, economically, politically, industrially, etc.) and they are very eager to find ways to improve the teaching and learning of English in the country. A simple single example where Saudi desperately need English nowadays is the revolutionary reform in the very recent years in sending thousands of Saudi students to study in English-speaking countries like the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, etc.

1.8 Definitions of Key Concepts

**Motivation:** “The process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained,” (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002, p. 5).

**L2 motivation:** “The combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning a new language,” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10).

**Motivational strategies:** Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) refer to motivational strategies as: (a) instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation, and (b) self-regulating strategies used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation.

**Macro-motivational strategies:** General motivational guidelines that aim at orienting the teacher on how to introduce a more motivation-sensitive teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2001a).

**Micro-motivational strategies:** Specific individual motivational techniques and practices by which human achievement behaviour can be promoted (Dörnyei, 2001a).
**Teacher Immediacy:** The verbal and nonverbal communication behaviours that reduce the perceived distance between teacher and students (Andersen & Andersen, 2008).

**Verbal immediacy:** The relationship one builds with another individual through the linguistic acts of conversation and includes the use of humour, praise, topics of discussion, and willingness to have conversations with students (Carrell & Menzel, 2001).

**Non-verbal immediacy:** The behaviours, other than verbal statements, that decrease the physical and psychological distance between two people such as gestures, eye contact, head nods, relaxed body position, vocal expressions, facial expressions, smiles, and movement (Andersen & Andersen, 1982).

**Teacher Credibility:** The degree to which the student perceives the teacher to be believable (Banfield et al., 2006).
Chapter 2

Review of the Related Literature

2.1 General Background

The importance of motivation as a factor in learning cannot be underestimated. In the second language acquisition literature, the enormous role that motivation plays in the attainment of non-primary languages is practically unanimously acknowledged. It is, therefore, hardly surprising that over the past 40 or 50 years there have been numerous studies investigating various aspects of the issue of motivation within the field of teaching/learning second/foreign languages. This chapter presents a discussion and critical evaluation of the existing relevant literature on motivation more generally as well as its specific role in second/foreign language learning/teaching. The different conceptualisations and theories of motivation in general and also in the field of foreign/second language are discussed in this chapter. Other issues like the significance of L2 motivation; types of L2 motivation; the L2 motivational self system; and motivational strategies are also reviewed. Finally, some of the studies that investigated the role of L2 motivation in the Saudi EFL context are discussed and critically evaluated.

2.2 Conceptualisations of Motivation

The large disagreement over the precise nature of motivation has resulted in many different definitions for the term. Beck (2004) has asserted that it is a complicated task for motivation theorists to define motivation owing to the fact that they may have fundamentally different views of what motivation is and thus have approached this term differently. There were, however, many attempts to conceptualise the general term over the past few decades. Pintrich and Schunk (2002, p. 5) proposed that this term is originally derived from the Latin verb *movere* to represent motivation as something that energises us to go, keeps us moving, and helps us completing tasks.
While many early views link motivation with inner forces like instincts, traits, volition, and will, other cognitive contemporary views link it to the individuals’ thoughts, beliefs, and emotions. Freud (1966) is an example of those early views that theorised that human behaviour results from forces within individuals and that motivation is a reflection of physical energy. In contrast, Skinner (1968) saw motivation as best viewed in behavioural terms rather than as arising from inner forces.

Many of the contemporary psychological views regarded motivation as the input responsible for initiating, directing, and sustaining behaviours. For example, Brophy (2004) has defined motivation as a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour. Similarly, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) view motivation as a function of a person’s thoughts; and define it as the dynamic changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and successfully or unsuccessfully acted out.

Other views have, on the other hand, conceptualised motivation in broad terms. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, p. 614) state that “motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it.” Likewise, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) present a comprehensive definition of motivation that focuses both on the learners’ cognitive abilities and the elements that were believed to be central to motivation declaring that “motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained,” (p. 5). They believe that motivation is a process, not a product, because it is not observable and can be inferred only from behaviours like the choice of tasks, effort, persistence, and verbalisation. They also see that motivation involves goals that provide inputs for initiating motivation to achieve goals. They argue that motivation requires activity, be it physical or mental. For example, physical activities involve effort and persistence, while mental activities involve planning, researching, monitoring, and decision-making.
It is worth mentioning that the existing conceptualisations of motivation are not actually in conflict with one another, but rather complement each other in articulating what motivation is generally about.

To conceptualise the term ‘motivation’ in education, Brophy (1998) presents a definition for student’s motivation declaring that this concept is used to explain the degree to which students invest attention and effort in various pursuits, which may or may not be the ones desired by their teachers. Brophy (2004) also provides a definition for motivation to learn clarifying that it refers to students’ tendency to find academic activities meaningful and worthwhile and to try to get the intended learning benefits from them.

In relation to L2 learning, psychologists have made various attempts to define motivation. In his social-psychological model, Gardner (1985, p. 10) defines it as “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning a new language.” Ellis (1994, p. 509) claims that “L2 motivation refers to the effort that learners put into learning the L2 as a result of their need or desire to learn it.” According to other points of view like that of Jordens and Lalleman (1996), this type of motivation refers to the need to engage in a particular activity, which is, in this case, the need to use the L2.

Gardner (1985) and Gardner and Maclntyre (1991) distinguish the terms motivation and orientation by stating that there is a major distinction between the two terms in that orientations refer to the reasons for studying a second language while motivation refers to the directed, reinforcing effort to learn that language.

Masgoret and Gardner (2003) identify some distinct traits for motivated individuals: they assume that the motivated individual expends effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, and aspirations, enjoys the activity, experiences reinforcement from success and disappointment from failure, makes attributions concerning success and/or failure, is aroused, and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals.
2.3 Theories of Motivation

Deci and Ryan (1985) explain that motivation explores the innate and acquired needs of an organism and the process that relates these needs to its behaviour. The theories that study and investigate such needs are called motivation theories. Dörnyei (1999) and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) have explained that motivation theories attempt to explain nothing less than why humans behave and think as they do. Most researchers in the field of human motivation agree that motivation theories in general explain three interrelated aspects of human behaviour. These aspects, according to Tremblay and Gardner (1995) and Dörnyei (1999) are the choice of doing a particular action, the persistence with doing it, and the effort expended on it.

A discussion of some leading theories of motivation in psychology as well as the influential theories of L2 motivation follows.

2.3.1 Leading Theories of Motivation in Psychology

2.3.1.1 Early Theories of Human Motivation

Mechanistic and organismic were among the early theories of motivation. Mechanistic approaches in psychology consider a human a passive machine that is pushed around by different forces, whereas organismic approaches consider humans to be active organisms with intrinsic needs and psychological drives that provide them with energy in order to act rather than to be a reflection of the environment.

Behaviourism, a theory that focuses on links between stimuli and responses and views motivation in terms of observable phenomena, is at the heart of these approaches. Pintrich and Schunck (2002, p. 20) have explained that many historical views of motivation are behavioural because they explain motivation in terms of observable phenomena. There are, however, great differences among the various behaviouristic theories. Skinner (1953), one of the best-known behaviourists, virtually ignores inner processes (e.g. beliefs and thoughts) and believes that motivation is a reflection of environmental events such as the behaviours of the motivated learners to learn (engagement in the learning tasks, persistence with them,
and the efforts they pay). Other behaviourists, like Hull (1943), on the other hand, have paid great attention to the inner process mediating between the stimulus and response (Deci, 1975). Regardless of the different conceptualizations of behavioural theories, Pintrich and Schunck (2002) maintained that these theories have important implications of motivation in education. They argue that behavioural theories imply that teachers should arrange the learning environment so that students can respond properly to stimuli.

In contrast to behavioural theories, cognitive theories of motivation regard motivation as a result of mental (not observable) processes like values, affects, attributions, and goals. While all cognitive theories agree upon the importance of these internal processes, they disagree on the point of which process is more important than the others. Pintrich and Schunck (2002) highlight some important motivational implications for cognitive theories in education by asserting that these theories emphasise learners’ thoughts, beliefs, and emotions. According to them, teachers should therefore consider how these mental processes may manifest in the classroom and how instructional and social variables affect learners’ actions and thoughts.

Drive theories explain behaviour in terms of inner needs and emphasise the influence of internal factors on human behaviour. Freud’s (1914, 1915) drive theory (often called instinct theory) was the first motivation theory in psychoanalytic psychology (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Freud viewed motivation as physical energy. He believes that human behaviour is a result of the individual’s inner forces. McClelland and colleagues (1989) maintain that some aspects of this theory remain useful and valid especially those relating to implicit motives. This theory downgraded the significance of personal cognitions and environmental factors through the assumption that most of the individual’s motivation emerges from unconscious inner forces (Pintrich and Schunck, 2002).

Hull’s (1943) drive theory, which was the first motivation theory within empirical psychology, emphasised the importance of habit strength. Based on that, he defines motivation as “the initiation of learned or habitual patterns of movement or behaviour,” (p. 226). While Freud’s drive theory suggests only two drives: sex and aggression, Hull’s suggests four: hunger, thirst, sex, and avoidance of pain. With continued research, it was
clearly observed that drive theories were inadequate to deal with complexities of behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 1985). In psychoanalytic psychology, drive theories had difficulty explaining normal development patterns (i.e. developments within the conflict-free sphere; see Hartmann, 1958). In empirical psychology, these theories were also unable to explain different phenomena relating to animals’ avid exploration and manipulation (see Berlyne, 1950; Harlow, 1950).

Woolfolk and Margetts (2007) maintain that humanistic theories focus on the experiences of individuals and human qualities of choice, creativity, and self-realisation as part of developing one’s innate potential. They add that humanistic interpretations of motivation emphasises intrinsic sources of motivation such as the need for self-actualisation, the inborn actualising tendency, or the need for self-determination. According to Woolfolk and Margetts, to motivate people means to encourage their inner resources, such as their sense of competence, self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualisation.

Two well-known humanistic theories are that of Rogers (1963) and Maslow (1970). For Rogers (1963), there is one central source of energy in the human organism; it is a function of the whole organism rather than some portion of it. He conceptualised this function as the tendency toward fulfilment, actualisation, and the maintenance and enhancement of the organism. Pintrich and Schunck (2002) considered the actualising tendency, which is oriented toward personal growth, autonomy, and freedom from control by external forces just like the fundamental motivational construct in Rogers’s theory.

Maslow’s (1970) theory was another influential humanistic explanation of motivation (Woolfolk and Margetts, 2007). Maslow suggested that human behaviour is motivated by the individual seeking to fulfil a hierarchy of needs. Maslow developed a model that classified human needs into five levels ranging from the basic psychological requirements, such as those needed for survival and safety, to the need for self-actualisation (i.e. ultimate self-fulfilment). Maslow verified that the needs at the higher levels such as self-actualisation needs are the most important for the development of personality, and that each of the needs
at the basic level must be met before the next higher needs can be addressed. Figure 1 shows Maslow’s hierarchy of human needs.

Figure 1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Human Needs

Woolfolk and Margetts (2007) point out that, based on Maslow’s theory, students whose basic needs have been met, in that they are not hungry, they feel safe, are loved, and have a sense of belonging, are able to cope with challenges of both everyday life and the learning situations. On the contrary, those children whose basic needs are not being met may struggle to cope with such situations.
2.3.1.2 Contemporary Theories of Human Motivation

In addition to the previous early theories and views, there are many contemporary theories dealing with human motivation. The most influential of these theories are those developed in the field of motivational psychology. A discussion of some of these theories is presented next, and is illustrated with some examples of the theories’ applications in learning.

2.3.1.2.1 Expectancy-Value Theories

According to Dörnyei (2001a), expectancy-value theories are based on the belief that humans are innately active learners with an inborn curiosity and an urge to get to know their environment and meet challenges. These theories consider motivation a result of two factors: the individuals’ expectancy of success in a given task and the value the individual usually attaches to success in that task. According to Atkinson (1957, cited in Wigfield, 1994) expectations are the individuals’ anticipations that their performances will be followed by either success or failure. He proposed that value is the relative attractiveness of succeeding or failing on a task. Dörnyei (2001b) argue that expectancy of success is not enough in itself; it must go hand in hand with anticipated positive values; this is why motivation theories based on these two key components are called expectancy-value theories.

2.3.1.2.1.1 Expectancy of Success Theories

Some of the theories that discuss how an individual develop his/her expectancy of success are attribution theory, self-efficacy theory, and self-worth theory.

2.3.1.2.1.1.1 Attribution Theory

This theory is based on the assumption that the way individuals explain their own past successes and failures significantly affects their future achievement behaviour. According to Weiner (1992), the failure that is attributed to stable and uncontrollable factors such as the individuals’ low ability decreases the expectancy of future success more than failure that is ascribed to controllable factors such as low effort. Graham (1994) claims that the most common attributions in school environments are ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood,
family background, and help or hindrance from others (e.g. teachers). Further discussion about the applications of this theory in L2 learning is presented in section 2.3.2.2.4.3.

2.3.1.2 Self-Efficacy Theory

Tremblay and Gardner (1995, p. 507) conceptualise self-efficacy as “the individual’s beliefs that he or she has the capability to reach a certain level of performance or achievement.”

The main principle of this theory is that the sense of self-efficacy is the determinant of the way people perceive specific tasks. According to Bandura (1993), people with low sense of self-efficacy are likely easily to lose faith in their capabilities and consequently give up tasks due to the fact that they regard difficult tasks as personal threats; they focus more on their own personal deficiencies rather than on how to conduct the task successfully. Conversely, the sense of a strong self-efficacy seems to enhance the individuals’ achievement behaviour in the way it helps them to approach threatening situations with confidence, maintain a task rather than self-diagnostic focus during task-involvement, and sustain effort in the face of failure (Dörnyei, 1998).

In 1990, Pintrich and Groot reported the findings of their correlational study that examined the relationships between motivational orientation, self-regulated learning, and classroom academic performance of 137 school students from south-eastern Michigan. A self-report measure of student self-efficacy, intrinsic value, test anxiety, self-regulation, and use of learning strategies was administered to participants. Self-efficacy and intrinsic value were found to be positively related to cognitive engagement and performance.

Dörnyei (2001b) has emphasised that self-efficacy is one of the social products created and shaped by the people around us (e.g. teachers). Burden (2000) has also asserted that students’ motivation to learn is greatly influenced by their teachers’ expectations for students’ learning. Raffini (1993) has claimed that there is simple evidence that teachers’ expectations of students’ learning can generate self-fulfilling predictions and consequently foster students’ self-esteem and when teachers believe in students, students believe in themselves.
2.3.1.2.1.3 Self-Worth Theory

According to Stipek (2002), self-worth, which is similar to concepts such as self-esteem and self-respect, concerns people’s appraisal of their own value. The fundamental assumption on which this theory is based is that humans naturally strive to maintain a sense of self-worth, which explains why people often take more responsibility for their success than their failure, as well as why they behave maladaptively when their self-worth is threatened, especially in public contexts (Stipek, 2002). For Dörnyei (1998), the need for self-worth generates a number of unique patterns of motivational beliefs and behaviours in the educational settings — one example of such behaviours, according to him, is that in the case of success, students may conceal the amount of effort they payed a specific task as to make others think that they simply have a high ability.

2.3.1.2.1.2 Value of Success Theories

Eccles and Wigfield (1995) have defined task values in terms of four components: attainment value, intrinsic value, extrinsic value, and cost. Attainment value refers to the subjective importance of doing well on a specific task with reference to the individuals’ basic personal values and needs (Dörnyei, 1998). While intrinsic value refers to the enjoyment or pleasure that result from engaging in a task, the extrinsic value reflects the effectiveness of the task in achieving future goals. Cost, on the other hand, involves emotional costs that represent the negative valence of a task like anxiety and fear of failure.

2.3.1.2.2 Goal Theories

Most of the past research on general motivation has focused on human needs. As discussed earlier, the best known of such research is the work of the humanistic psychologist Maslow (1970) who proposed a hierarchy of five human needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. Recently, the term needs has been referred to as goals that fire the action and provide the direction in which to act (Dörnyei, 1998, 2001a). The most influential of the goal theories are goal-setting theory and goal-orientation theory.
2.3.1.2.1 Goal-Setting Theory

This theory was proposed by Locke and Latham in 1990. They based it on the assumption that human motivation is caused by purpose and it is very important, in order for the action to take place, to set clear goals to achieve this action. Dörnyei (2001a) mentioned four mechanisms by which goals affect performance. According to him, goals direct attention and effort towards goal-relevant activities; they regulate effort expenditure in the way that people adjust the efforts they invest in a task to the difficulty level required by that task: they promote persistence until the goal is achieved and they encourage searching for relevant action plans or task strategies.

2.3.1.2.2 Goal-Orientation Theory

Pintrich and Schunck (1996, 2002) have explained that goal orientation theories were created by developmental, motivational, and educational psychologists to explain children’s learning and performance on academic tasks in school settings. They add that this theory is the most relevant and applicable goal theory for understanding and improving learning and instruction. Ames (1992) has clarified that goal-orientation theory underlines two different achievement orientations/goals that students can espouse in their academic work. These two orientations are mastery orientation and performance orientation. Mastery orientation involves chasing mastery goals (learning goals) with more focus on learning the content (Dörnyei, 2001a). Alternatively, performance orientation goes to focus more on performance goals, such as getting good grades in the taught course or surpassing other students.

2.3.2 The Influential Theories of L2 Motivation

In addition to the previously discussed theories, there are other theories that have been designed to explore the nature of foreign language motivation and the needs of language learners. Dörnyei (2001a) has indicated that the mastery of an L2 is not merely an educational issue but rather that it is a complex event that requires the incorporation of a wide range of elements of the L2 society and culture. According to him, in view of the complexity of L2, there has been a considerable diversity of theories and approaches in the study of the motivational determinants of second language acquisition and use. Dörnyei
(2005) has summarised, briefly, the history of L2 motivation research into three phases. During each phase, there were many attempts to theorise the L2 motivation construct. These three phases are:

2.3.2.1 The Social-Psychological Period (1959-1990)

L2 motivation research was initiated in Canada in the late 1950s with the remarkable work of two renowned Canadian social psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1959, 1972) who conducted many empirical studies and investigations that examined how the language learners’ attitudes towards the L2 speaking community influenced their desire to learn the L2.

2.3.2.1.1 Gardner’s Social-Psychological Theory

The notable studies and investigations of Robert Gardner and his associates have grounded and inspired the field of L2 motivation research and resulted in one of the leading theories in the field: the Social-Psychological Theory. This theory is based on the assumption that students’ attitudes towards a specific language group are likely to influence their success in incorporating some aspects of that language (Gardner, 1985).

This well-known theory has many features that influentially contributed to the field of L2 motivation in many ways. Among its significant contributions is the detailed analysis it provided about the nature of motivation, how the integrative motivation is made up (Dörnyei, 2000), and its integrative-instrumental motives dichotomy. Gardner’s conceptualisation of the integrative motive encompasses two attitudinal components that influence motivation. The first component is *integrativeness*, which Gardner conceptualises as the individual’s willingness and interest in social interaction with the members of the L2 group. The concept of integrativeness in this theory involves integrative motivation (further discussion about this component is presented in section 2.5.1), interest in foreign languages, and attitudes towards the foreign/second language. The other component is the *attitudes towards the learning situation*, which involves the attitudes to, and the evaluation of, the L2 teachers and course.
Gardner’s theory has also laid the foundation of a second language learning model known as The Socio-Educational Model in which motivation is considered a cornerstone (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Gardner’s (1985) Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Acquisition**

Based on their view of second languages as mediating factors between communities of various ethno-linguistic backgrounds in multicultural settings, Gardner and Lambert (1972) have regraded motivation to learn the language of the other communities as a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation (Dörnyei, 2001a, p. 48). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) have clarified that the construct of motivation...
in this model includes three basic motivational components: (a) the effort expended to learn the language; it can be assessed as the motivational intensity, which is “a criterion that measures the motivated language behaviour and a central concept in motivation research as it concerns a main aspect of motivated human behaviour, its direction and its magnitude,” (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 20); (b) the desire/will to learn the language; and (c) the satisfaction with the task of learning the language, termed as attitudes towards learning the language. In addition, this theory comprises several value aspects like intrinsic value, which is measured by the desire to learn the foreign language and the attitudes towards learning the L2; and the extrinsic value, which is measured by the integrative and instrumental orientations.

Dörnyei (2003) has commented that this model is a major contribution of Gardner’s theory because of the specifications it made for the four aspects of second language acquisition process. These aspects encompass some biological and experiential antecedent factors such as the gender, age, or the learning history of the learner; the individual differences between learners, which include attitudes, intelligence, language aptitude, and motivation; the formal and informal language acquisition contexts; and the language learning outcomes (linguistic and non-linguistic).

A significant issue of this theory as explained by Gardner (1985) is its explanation for the relationship between motivation and orientation. He used the term “orientation” to refer to the goals of learning a foreign language (FL) and believed that the function of the two orientations he discussed (integrative and instrumental) was to initiate motivation and direct it towards a set of goals but neither of which, according to him, is a core component of motivation.

Another significant contribution of Gardner’s motivation theory is the standardised measurement it presented to test L2 motivation. This instrument is called The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and it is a multi-component questionnaire that includes measures for the various components of Gardner's theory and other items assessing classroom practices, such as the appraisal of the language teacher and the language course.
The attitudinal and motivational variables in the AMTB were grouped into five categories, as we can see in Figure 3:

**Figure 3: Components of Gardner’s Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB)**

1) **Integrativeness:**
   - Integrative orientation.
   - Interest in foreign languages.
   - Attitudes toward the foreign/second language.

2) **Attitudes toward the learning situation:**
   - Attitudes towards the language teacher.
   - Attitudes towards the language course.

3) **Motivation:**
   - Motivational intensity.
   - Desire/will to learn the language.
   - Attitudes toward learning the language.

4) **Language anxiety:**
   - Class anxiety.
   - Language use anxiety.

5) **Other Attributes** (e.g. the instrumental orientation).

Despite all these major contributions, there was a lot of critique presented by many scholars to the limited nature of this theory (Gardner, 1994). Crookes and Schmidt (1991) have argued that this approach was too dominant, and that it has not seriously considered certain alternative concepts such as the connections of motivation to language-learning processes and language pedagogy. Oxford and Shearin (1994) also emphasise the fact that there would be other possible kinds of L2 motivation other than those discussed in Gardner's theory. They add that while the concept of L2 learning motivation in this theory is important and extremely useful, it can be expanded to include a greater number of kinds of motivations.
(e.g. intrinsic and extrinsic motivations). Dörnyei (1994) has identified many limitations for Gardner’s theory. In line with Crookes and Schmidt, he states that although Gardner’s motivation approach went unchallenged for many years, the approach is fundamentally flawed as it ignored giving details on the cognitive aspects of motivation to learn. In relation to the educational applications of L2 motivation, Dörnyei also claims that Gardner’s theory did not include an educational dimension; he argues that the main emphasis of this theory was on general motivational components grounded in the social milieu rather than in the foreign language classroom. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) assert this claim by stating that the social-psychological approach did not provide a detailed description of the classroom dimension of L2 motivation as it tried neither to explain specific student behaviour, nor to provide any practical guidelines for motivating those students. Furthermore, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) have argued that this approach has never provided language teachers with direct help in promoting their motivational teaching practices. Dörnyei (2005, 2009) has also highlighted the need to reconceptualise the term “integrativeness” (see section 2.6 for further explanation about this).

In response to strong criticisms of their theory, Gardner and associates carried out many investigations by which they added other motivational components to the old model. In an attempt to expand the motivation construct in language learning, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) investigated the relationship between a number of new motivational concepts such as persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attributions to the existing measures in their previous model and to the achievement of proficiency for students studying French. They came to the realisation that the new motivational variables added to their understanding of L2 motivation and consequently helped them in providing an expanded revised model of language learning motivation (see Figure 4).
Another attempt to construct an L2 motivation framework during this period was carried out by John Keller in 1983. Despite that Keller’s (1983) model was developed and introduced during a period greatly influenced by social psychology; it was the first comprehensive education-oriented theory of foreign language motivation. Dörnyei (2001a) has maintained that this model draws some of the most important lines of research in motivational psychology and that it synthesises them in a way that the outcome is relevant to classroom application.
In his motivational-design model, Keller (1983) hypothesises that there are four basic motivational conditions that the instructional designer must understand and respond to in order to produce instruction that is interesting, meaningful, and challenging. These components are interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. Keller stated that interest refers to whether the learner’s curiosity is aroused and whether this arousal is sustained appropriately over time. This component is centred around the individual’s intrinsic desires to know more about him/herself and his/her environment. Dörnyei (2001a) proposes that relevance in Keller’s model refers to the extent to which the student feels that the instruction is connected to important personal needs, values, or goals. Dörnyei adds that this category coincides with instrumentality at a broad level, while it refers to the extent to which the classroom instruction and course content are considered to be conductive to master the L2 at the foreign language learning level. Keller (1983) explains expectancy in terms of the likelihood of success, and the extent to which success is under control. According to Dörnyei (2001a), this component is related to the learner’s self-confidence and self-efficacy at a general level, and to the perceived difficulty of the task, the amount of effort required, the amount of assistance and guidance available, the teacher’s presentation of the task, and familiarity with the task type at the language learning level. The satisfaction component in the model refers to the combination of extrinsic rewards, such as grades, and intrinsic rewards, such as enjoyment and pride.

In 1987, Keller developed a modified model in response to his desire to find more systematic ways for understanding the influences of motivation to learn as well as to identify and solve problems with learning motivation (Keller, 1987). The four categories in Keller’s (1983) original model were renamed (‘interest’ became ‘attention,’ and ‘expectancy’ became ‘confidence,’ and the final modified model was labelled as ARCS representing four major conditions: Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction. Keller has explained that these conditions are the four conditions that have to be met for people to become and remain motivated. He adds that each of the four conditions subsumes several areas of psychological research and has been divided into specific subcategories with sample motivational strategy prescriptions.
Drawing on Keller (1983) model of motivation, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) have developed a theory of L2 motivation made up of the same four components presented in Keller model: interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. Dörnyei (1994) has argued that these components appear to be particularly useful in describing some course-specific motives.

### 2.3.2.2 The Cognitive-Situated Period (1990-2000)

As a result of a variety of new models and approaches designed in the 1990s, the study of L2 motivation reached an exciting turning point during this period resulting in what Gardner and Tremblay (1994) have called a "motivational renaissance". Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, p. 613) clarify that "the study of L2 motivation reached an unprecedented boom in the 1990s, with over 100 journal articles published on the topic and a wide array of alternative theoretical constructs proposed." Ellis (2008) explains that the attention of L2 motivation research has switched to a more cognitive-situated view of motivation where the significance of situation-specific factors, such as the classroom learning situations was examined. The new approach, called education-oriented approach, promoted the cognitive aspects of L2 motivation, which resulted in the appearance of some new motivational constructs, especially those related to the learner self-concepts like self-confidence, self-efficacy, self-determination, and those of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, the need for achievement, and expectancy of success, etc. Beside its concentration on the cognitive aspects of L2 motivation, this approach focused on situational factors relevant to classroom applications such as the characteristics of the language course and the language teacher and therefore expanded the L2 motivation paradigm (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

During the 1990s period, researchers have made many attempts to reopen the research agenda in the field of L2 motivation developing new approaches and models for the construct, a discussion of which follows.
2.3.2.2.1 Dörnyei’s (1994) Framework of L2 Motivation

This model consists of three main levels that encompass many sub-motivational components:

1. **The Language Level** includes components relevant to some social aspects of L2, such as the L2 culture and L2 community (i.e. the integrative motivation subsystem). It also involves other components relevant to the intellectual and pragmatic values and benefits associated with L2 proficiency (i.e. the instrumental motivation subsystem).

2. **The Learner Level** comprises some components that display some of the traits the learner brings to the L2 learning process, such as the need for achievement and self-confidence. Self-confidence comprises various aspects of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, motivational attributions, and self-efficacy.

3. **The Learning-Situation Level** involves some situation-specific motives rooted in various aspects of language learning in the classroom as follow:

   A. *The course-specific motivational components*, such as the learner's interest in the L2 course, the relevance of the L2 course to the learner's needs and goals, expectancy of success, and satisfaction about the task outcome.

   B. *The teacher-specific motivational components* is concerned with the motivational impact of the teacher's personality, behaviour, and teaching style on students’ motivation. Some of the components constituting this sub-level are the affiliative motive, the teacher's authority type, task presentation, and feedback.

   C. *The group-specific motivational components* are relevant to the group dynamics of the learner group, such as its goal-orientedness, group-cohesiveness, norm and reward system, and the classroom goal structure.
A significant fact about Dörnyei’s model is that the three divisions in this model were based on empirical research findings such as that of Keller (1983), Dörnyei (1990) and Clément and colleagues (1994). These three levels also coincide with the three basic constituents of the L2 learning process (i.e. the target language, the language learner, and the learning situation). They also reflect three different dimensions of language: the social dimension, the personal dimension, and the educational subject-matter dimension. Another very important issue about this construct is that the motivational strategies that have been empirically tested in experimental studies (including the current study) were primarily introduced and designed based on its components (see Figure 5).
Figure 5: Dörnyei’s (1994) Model of L2 Motivation

**LANGUAGE LEVEL**

- Integrative Motivational Subsystem
- Instrumental Motivational Subsystem

**LEARNER LEVEL**

- Need for Achievement
- Self-Confidence
  - Language Use Anxiety
  - Perceived L2 Competence
  - Causal Attributions
  - Self-Efficacy

**LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL**

- **Course-Specific Motivational components**
  - Interest in the L2 course
  - Relevance of the course to one’s needs.
  - Expectancy of success
  - Satisfaction with the task outcome

- **Teacher-Specific Motivational components**
  - Affiliative Drive (to please the teacher)
  - Authority Type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting)
  - Direct Socialisation of Motivation
  - Modelling
  - Task presentation
  - Feedback

- **Group-Specific Motivational components**
  - Goal-Orientedness
  - Norm and Reward System
  - Group Cohesiveness
  - Classroom Goal Structure
2.3.2.2 Williams and Burden’s (1997) Model of L2 Motivation

Williams and Burden’s (1997) was another attempt to produce a new construct of L2 motivation during this period. Based primarily on issues relevant to educational psychology, their research attempted to categorise some motivational components relevant to L2 learning in terms of internal and external factors. They believe that the extent to which the internal factors interact with each other and the relative importance that individuals attribute to them will affect the level and extent of learners’ motivation to complete a task or maintain an activity (Williams & Burden, 1997). Among the internal factors included in this model were intrinsic interest of activity, perceived value of activity, self-concept, and attitudes. Williams and Burden add that the internal factors are subject to the influence of some external factors, with which they interact in a dynamic way. They also propose that the external factors interact with each other. As we can see in Figure 6, the factors that were regarded as external in this model were significant other people (e.g. parents, teachers, etc.), the nature of interaction with significant others (e.g. feedback), the learning environment, and the broader context (e.g. cultural norms).
Figure 6: Williams and Burden’s (1997) Framework of L2 Motivation

**Internal factors**

*Intrinsic interest of activity:*
- Arousal of curiosity
- Optimal degree of challenge

*Perceived value of activity:*
- Personal relevance
- Anticipated value of outcomes
- Intrinsic value attributed to the activity

*Sense of agency:*
- Locus of causality
- Locus of control RE process and outcomes
- Ability to set appropriate goals

*Mastery:*
- Feelings of competence
- Awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area
- Self-efficacy

*Self-concept:*
- Realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required
- Personal definitions and judgements of success and failure
- Self-worth concern
- Learned helplessness

*Attitudes:*
- To language learning in general
- To the target language
- To the target language community and culture

*Other affective states:*
- Confidence
- Anxiety, fear

*Developmental age and stage*

*Gender*

**External factors**

*Significant others:*
- Parents
- Teachers
- Peers

*The nature of interaction with significant others:*
- Mediated learning experiences
- The nature and amount of feedback
- Rewards
- The nature and amount of appropriate praise
- Punishments, sanctions

*The learning environment:*
- Comfort
- Resources
- Time of day, week, year
- Size of class and school
- Class and school ethos

*The broader context:*
- Wider family networks
- The local education system
- Conflicting interests
- Cultural norms
- Societal expectations and attitudes
2.3.2.2.3 Task Motivation

Task motivation was another concept investigated during the cognitive period of L2 motivation research. Dörnyei (2002) believe that learning tasks constitute the interface between educational goals, teacher, and students. He conceives a learning task as a combination of various goal-oriented mental and behavioural operations performed by students in the timeframe between the teacher’s initial task instructions and the students’ completion of the final task outcome.

Dörnyei (2005) states that there were few studies that examined the motivational basis of language learning tasks and that the few studies that investigated task motivation considered the concept as a combination of generalised and situation-specific motives. For example, Julkunen (2001) proposes that task motivation can be seen as the composite of both trait and state motivation since a learner will be motivated both by generalised task-independent factors such as the overall interest in the subject matter, as well as other situation-specific, task-dependent factors, like the challenging nature of the task when confronted with a particular task. Tremblay and colleagues (1995) distinguish trait and state motivation by explaining that the former involves stable and enduring dispositions while the latter includes transitory and temporary responses or conditions.

In his experimental study, Dörnyei (2002) proposes that task motivation may be more complex than state/trait dichotomy as instructional tasks involve a series of learner behaviours that can last for a considerable period in which the learner’s motivation is unlikely to remain constant. Dörnyei supposes that instead of assuming a simple and stable state motivation component to account for the situation-specific aspect of task motivation, a more accurate characterisation could be provided by taking a process-oriented approach looking at the dynamic motivational processes that take place during task completion. Dörnyei (2005) explains that the dynamic processing system can be seen as the interplay of three interrelated mechanisms: task execution, appraisal, and action control. According to him, task execution refers to “the learners’ engagement in task-supportive learning behaviours, following the action plan that was either provided by the teacher or drawn up
by the [learner] or the task team,” (p.81). Appraisal, on the other hand, refers to the learners’ continuous processing of the multitude of stimuli coming from the environment and of the progress made toward the action outcome, and comparing actual performances with predicted ones or with ones that alternative action sequences would offer. Dörnyei believes that action control processes represent self-regulatory mechanisms that are called into force in order to enhance, scaffold, or protect learning-specific action. As can be seen in Figure 7, Dörnyei (2005) describes this dynamic process by stating that when learners are engaged in executing a task, they continuously appraise the process, and when the ongoing monitoring reveals that progress is slowing, halting, or back-sliding, they activate the action control system to save or enhance the action. Dörnyei’s explanation has established the process-oriented period of L2 motivation research. A further discussion for this period is presented in section 2.3.2.3.1.

Figure 7: Schematic Representation of the Three Mechanisms Making up the Motivational Task-Processing System

2.3.2.2.4 L2 Motivation Expectancy-Value Theories

The contemporary expectancy-value theories point out that students will not be engaged effectively in tasks unless they hold positive outcome expectations and believe that the tasks have value (i.e., that learning is important and/or useful). Wlodkowski (1999) has argued that when expectancy of success is low, learners tend to protect their well-being by remaining withdrawn or negative. For this reason, Brophy (2004) suggests that teachers will
need to stay aware of the learning outcomes that a lesson or an activity is designed to develop in order to know how to frame it so that students can appreciate its value.

Two previous studies (Mitchell & Nebeker, 1973; Wen, 1997) have found that students’ expectations of success are positively related to the effort they execute on tasks. Wen (1997) has claimed that the effort exerted toward any particular action is determined by the relative attractiveness (i.e., valence) of outcomes and the expectation that the action will lead to the desired outcomes. Oxford and Sherian (1994), who defined expectancy in terms of the effort that will lead to successful performance, establish that expectancy-value theory helps remind us that L2 learners’ expectancies of success or failure are very important determinants of their motivation to learn the language. They propose that language learners will feel continuously motivated if the effort they are exerting on tasks is viewed as leading to significant outcomes. They add that if language learners do not believe that their performance leads somewhere that is ultimately valuable, their motivation will be lowered. Oxford and Sherian (1994) recommend that teachers can help shape their students’ beliefs about success or failure in L2 learning through inculcating the belief that success is not only possible but probable, as long as there is a high level of effort.

According to Wigfield (1994), the study of linguistic self-confidence construct and the research on attributions in L2 learning are the most well known investigations to treat and deal with components related to value-expectancy in the field of L2 learning. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001a) assumes that no real expectancy-value model has been proposed in L2 motivation research. He maintains, though, that the most explicit treatment of value-expectancy related components in the L2 field has been offered by Clément’s (1980) investigation of linguistics self-confidence and the research on attributions in L2 learning.

2.3.2.2.4.1 The Concepts of Self-Confidence and Linguistic Self-Confidence

Dörnyei (2001a) has conceptualised self-confidence as “the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals, or perform tasks competently,” (p.56). Dörnyei (1994) claims that self-confidence is an important dimension of self-concept. *linguistic self-confidence* is conceptualised as a confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of an L2 is
well within the learner’s means (Dörnyei, 2009, p.26). Dörnyei (2005) believe that this concept was primarily a social construct that was introduced for the first time in 1977 by Clément, Gardner and Smythe to describe a powerful mediating process in multi-ethnic settings that affects a person’s motivation to learn and use the language of the other speech community. Clément and Kruidenier (1985) have proposed that, in a multicultural setting, self-confidence is the most important determinant of motivation to learn and use the L2. Furthermore, Clément and colleagues (1994) have claimed that even in the absence of a direct contact with members of the L2 community in a specific foreign language learning situation, self-confidence is considered a significant motivational construct in case there is a considerable indirect contact with the L2 culture through for example the media.

Many scholars have argued that self-confidence is akin to self-efficacy but based on Clément’s view, self-confidence is different in that it is a social construct, in contrast to self-efficacy, which is a cognitive concept. Moreover, Dörnyei (1994) has claimed that self-confidence is used in a more general sense than self-efficacy. This may be why we notice him treating self-efficacy as a component of self-confidence in his L2 motivation model (see Figure 5). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) have also differentiated between self-confidence and self-efficacy by stating that self-confidence in the language learning context is usually assessed with measures of perceived proficiency at the time of testing, whereas self-efficacy is more closely tied to the level of performance that an individual believes he or she could achieve at some point in the future. Dörnyei (2000), nevertheless, has pointed out that “although Clément’s linguistic self confidence is principally a socially determined construct, it bears a close resemblance to the cognitive concept of self efficacy, which has come to be seen as one of the key motivational factors in mainstream psychology,” (p. 427). Despite these attempts to differentiate between the two concepts, both remain of special importance to the foreign/second language learning. Beside what has been elaborated before about the importance of self-confidence in this respect, Oxford and Shearin (1994) have emphasised the fact that when students do not have an initial belief in their self-efficacy, they as a consequence, may feel lost in the language class. According to them, teachers therefore should help students develop a sense of self-efficacy by providing meaningful and achievable language learning tasks.
Dörnyei (1996) has recognised language anxiety, L2 motivational attributions, and perceived L2 competence as three important components of L2 learners’ self-confidence. He argues that learners who are less anxious, have better previous experiences with using the second language, evaluate their own proficiency more highly, and consider the learning tasks less difficult — in short, those who are more self-confident about their second language learning and use are more motivated to learn the second language than those whose motivation is hindered by a lack of self-confidence. Moreover, Guilloteaux (2007) proposes that learners with a high degree of linguistic self-confidence are likely to be more effectively engaged in tasks and they usually believe that they have the ability to achieve their goals or complete tasks successfully.

2.3.2.4.2 Language Anxiety

Horwitz and colleagues (1986) have defined anxiety as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system,” (p.125). They point out that educators must first acknowledge the existence of foreign language anxiety. Researchers have identified several specific anxiety situations associated with school learning, such as test taking, and with specific academic subjects, such as mathematics or science.

Horwitz and Young (1991) have explained that language anxiety is one of several types of anxiety identified by psychologists. They argue that this type of anxiety is unique for language learning as it distinctively refers to situations that make some individuals nervous when learning a language. Gardner and colleagues (1997) hypothesise that language anxiety reflects the individual’s apprehension in the language class or in settings where the language is used. Horwitz and colleagues (1986) explain that because foreign language anxiety concerns performance evaluation within an academic and social context, it is useful to draw parallels between it and three related performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

In their comprehensive study of language anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) have showed that the question on whether to treat anxiety as a trait, a state, or a situation-specific
phenomenon is still under debate. In her study on highly anxious students, Price (1991) implies that anxiety is a mental personality trait rather than a temporary state.

2.3.2.2.4.3 Attribution Theory of L2 Learning

Ellis (2008) has defined attributions in L2 learning as the explanations learners give for their progress in learning an L2. Weiner (1986) has hypothesised that the theory of causal attributions is based on the assumption that future behaviour is partly determined by the perceived causes of past events. Dörnyei (2001b, pp. 119-20) has argued that attribution theory is particularly relevant to the study of language learning for two reasons. The first reason is that failure in learning an L2 is very common despite the great number of people who spend a considerable amount of time studying foreign languages. The second is that people usually tend to use negative ability attributions when learning a foreign language.

Tremblay and Gardner (1995) have categorised causal attributions in terms of internal and external attributions. They suggest that internal attributions such as ability and effort are usually perceived as within the individual, whereas external attributions such as luck and task difficulty are perceived as outside the individual. Schmidt and colleagues (1996) have included items relating to the general teacher behaviour as an external factor for causal attributions.

Skehan (1989) asserted the need for more research on attributions in the L2 field. He supposes that it would be desirable if more attribution theory research were carried out in the language learning field as such research might synthesise many of the individual differences variables into a more coherent account of language learning. In response, two recent studies were conducted by Ushioda (1996) and Williams and Burden (1999) to identify some aspects of the common causal attributions made by L2 learners. In the first study, Ushioda (1996) found that Irish learners of French attributed positive L2 outcomes to personal ability or other internal factors such as effort and the negative L2 outcomes, such as lack of success, to unstable deficiencies that might be overcome, such as lack of effort or lack of opportunity to live in the L2 environment.
There were clear differences between the age groups that were recruited in the study conducted by Williams and Burden (1999) in terms of the attributions students provided for success and failure. The interviews of this study revealed that 10-12-year-old participants attributed success to listening and concentration while older participants provided a variety of attributions such as ability, level of work, circumstances, and the influence of others.

### 2.3.2.2.5 Achievement Motivation Theory

For Dörnyei (1994), that the need for achievement is a relatively stable personality trait that affects a person’s behaviour in every facet of life, including language learning; further, individuals with a high need for achievement are interested in excellence for its own sake, tend to initiate achievement activities, work with heightened intensity at tasks, and persist in the face of failure.

One of the famous contributors to this theory is David McClelland. He (1953) believes that humans have a distinct need for achievement and desire to succeed at the highest possible level whilst simultaneously trying to avoid the possibility of failure. Atkinson (1964), another contributor to the theory, states that “the theory of achievement motivation attempts to account for the determinants of the direction, magnitude, and persistence of behaviour in a limited but very important domain of human activities,” (p. 240).

According to Dörnyei (2001b), some of the positive influences of the motivational components of this theory involve the learner’s expectancy of success, the incentive value given to the fulfilment of a task, and the need for achievement. On the other hand, the fear of failure, the incentive to avoid failure, and the risk of failure are some negative aspects of this motivational theory.

In an earlier study conducted in 1990, Dörnyei found that need for achievement contributed considerably to motivation in foreign language learning (FLL). He argued that this influence was due to FLL being composed of a series of academic achievement situations, and thus the need for achievement could be considered a motivational component typical of FLL contexts. Dörnyei concluded that ‘need for achievement’ was one of the motivational
components that were widely discussed in general motivational psychology but generally ignored in second language acquisition research. He consequently went beyond such ignorance and included ‘need for achievement’ in his 1994 construct of L2 motivation as a component underlying the motivational process at the learner level.

Oxford and Shearin (1994) have identified a relationship between learners’ past success and failure experiences and their need for achievement. They propose that past success in a particular situation would make a person more likely to engage in achievement behaviours in a similar situation in the future; on the contrary, past failure experience would generate fear and stifle achievement behaviour.

2.3.2.2.6 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

The founders of the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) are Richard Ryan and Edward Deci. This organismic theory is an approach to human motivation and personality that uses traditional empirical methods while employing an organismic metatheory that highlights the importance of humans’ evolved behavioural self-regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In line with this theory, which is mainly concerned with intrinsic motivation, human motivation can be a combination of self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation.

Deci and Ryan (2000) hypothesise that SDT calls for the consideration of the three innate psychological needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness for a better understanding of human motivation. The need for competence pertains to the need to experience opportunities to interact with the social environment, and shows one’s capacities confidently and effectively; the need for relatedness implies a need to feel that one belongs with, is cared for, respected by, and connected to significant others (e.g., teachers, a family members); the need for autonomy involves a sense of unpressured willingness to engage in an activity. Brophy (2004) has proposed that the satisfaction of these three basic needs allows people to be engaged in self-determined activity while the lack of satisfaction for these needs usually leads to more controlled motivation and less self-determined pursuits. These needs are discussed further under the intrinsic needs of students in section 2.5.3.1.
Guilloteaux (2007) has pointed out that the empirical investigations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the framework of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) were initiated in the L2 learning context by Noels and associates in Canada. The aims of these investigating, according to Guilloteaux, was to study the possible relationships between SDT constructs and L2 orientations identified by some scholars (e.g. Gardner,1985; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983), as well as to examine how students’ perceptions of their teacher’s classroom behaviour influence their sense of self-determination and enjoyment of L2 learning. With regard to the relationships between SDT constructs and L2 orientations, Noels (2001) claims that L2 motivation may be fuelled to different extents by intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative L2 learning orientations. Guilloteaux (2007) explains that intrinsic reasons include experiencing stimulation, enjoyment, satisfaction, a sense of fun, or a sense of accomplishment. Extrinsic reasons (e.g., Gardner’s instrumental orientation) lay on a continuum similar to that postulated by SDT theory, with one pole consisting of external pressures (e.g., threats or rewards), and the other of internalised ones (e.g., because L2 learning is personally valued). The integrative reasons relate to positive contact with speakers of the L2, and the eventual identification with the L2 community. The results of Noels and associates’ study showed that the more students perceived their L2 teachers as controlling (e.g., using threats, imposing goals and deadlines, making them work under reward conditions) and as failing to provide informative feedback, the less they were self-determined.

### 2.3.2.3 The Process-Oriented Period (2000 Onwards)

This period of L2 motivation research represents recent research trends (2000 until present). It was initiated by the work of Dörnyei and Ushioda in Europe and is mainly characterised by interest in motivational change. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) have introduced this period in their process model of L2 motivation.

#### 2.3.2.3.1 Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation

In 1998, Dörnyei and Ottó developed a new model of L2 motivation in a response to the challenge of describing motivational process over time. This model organises the motivational influences of L2 learning along a sequence of discrete actional events within
the chain of initiating and enacting motivated behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001a) and contains two dimensions: Action Sequence and Motivational Influences. The first dimension represents the behavioural process whereby initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals at the preactional phase, and then into intentions, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals at the actional phase, after which the process is submitted to final evaluation at the postactional phase. The second dimension of the model includes all the energy sources and motivational influences that underlie and fuel the actional sequence (see Figure 8). There are three sets of motivational influences that affect different sequences of motivated action in this model. At the preactional phase, there are motivational influences on functions like goal setting, intention formation, and initiation of intention enactment. Some of these influences are values associated with learning the L2, attitudes towards the L2 and its community, and expectancy of success in L2 learning. Other motivational influences like the perceived quality of the learning experience and the learner’s sense of self-determination/autonomy influence functions like generating and carrying out subtasks, ongoing appraisal of one’s achievement, and action control at the actional phase. Some functions at the postactional stage, such as forming causal attributions, elaborating standards and strategies, and dismissing the intention and further planning are influenced by three active motivational influences: the attributional factors, self-concept beliefs, and the received satisfaction-promoting outcomes (e.g. feedback, praise, and grades) as we can see in Figure 8 below.
**Preactional stage**

**CHOICE MOTIVATION**

*Motivational functions:*
- Setting goals
- Forming intentions
- Launching action

*Main motivational influences:*
- Various goal properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity)
- Values associated with the learning process itself, as well as with its outcomes and consequences
- Attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers
- Expectancy of success and perceived coping potential
- Learner beliefs and strategies
- Environment support or hindrance

**Actional stage**

**EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION**

*Motivational functions:*
- Generating and carrying out subtasks
- Ongoing appraisal (of one’s achievement)
- Action control (self-regulation)

*Main motivational influences:*
- Quality of the learning experience (pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image)
- Sense of autonomy
- Teachers’ and parents’ influence
- Classroom reward- and goal structure (e.g. competitive or cooperative)
- Influence of the learner group
- Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal-setting, learning, and self-motivating strategies)

**Postactional stage**

**MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION**

*Motivational functions:*
- Forming causal attributions
- Elaborating standards and strategies
- Dismissing the intention and further planning

*Main motivational influences:*
- Attributional factors (e.g., attributional styles and biases)
- Self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-confidence and self-worth)
- Received feedback, praise, grades
2.4 Significance of Motivation/ L2 Motivation

Wlodkowski (1999) has emphasised the general importance of motivation by stating that even in the absence of agreement on how to define motivation, we know motivation is important. According to him, if we match two people of identical ability and give them the identical opportunity and conditions to achieve, the motivated person will surpass the unmotivated person in performance and outcome. He also stresses the importance of motivation to learn not only because it obviously improves learning but also because it mediates and is a consequence of learning. Wlodkowski highlights that when learners are motivated during the learning process, things go more smoothly, communication flows, anxiety decreases, and creativity and learning are more apparent. He adds that the more that people have had motivating learning experiences, the more probable it is that they will become lifelong learners. Walberg and Uguroglu (1980) support Wlodkowski’s idea when they argue that when there is no motivation to learn, there is no learning. Williams and Burden (1997) further emphasise the importance of motivation and announce that if asked to identify the most powerful influences on student learning, motivation would probably be high on most teachers’ lists.

With relation to foreign/second language learning, it is beyond doubt that motivation is a significant factor that determines success in such a complex process. Gardner (2001c) is a believer in motivation as a central element in this context. He supposes that all the individual difference characteristics of the language learner, such as attitudes, language aptitude, self-confidence, language anxiety, intelligence, language learning strategies, etc. are dependent on motivation for their effects to be realised. Oxford and Shearin (1994) argue that motivation is directly related to the different aspects of language learning in the way it strongly influences how often students use L2 learning strategies, how much they interact with native speakers, how much input they receive in the target language, how well they do on curriculum-related achievement tests, how high their general proficiency levels become, and how long they persevere and maintain L2 skills after language study is over. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) all agree upon the idea that motivation serves as the initial engine to generate second/foreign language learning and later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps in sustaining the long and usually laborious journey of acquiring an SL/FL. Without sufficient motivation, they argue, even individuals with the
most remarkable abilities will not be able to accomplish log-term goals, and neither appropriate curricula nor good teaching will be enough to ensure student achievement.

2.5 Types of Motivation and their Role in SL/FL Acquisition

There are various types of motivation that control human behaviour as identified and discussed by many scholars and psychologists. In spite of the different terms and expressions used to refer to the different types of motivation in the SL/FL learning, these types can overlap and integrate as in many situations and particular cases motivation can be intrinsic and integrative (or instrumental) at the same time. The best-known types of L2 motivation are listed below.

2.5.1 Integrative Motivation

This type of motivation was the most thoroughly discussed and explained of all components in Gardner’s (1985) socio-educational model of second language acquisition. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Lambert (1974), integrative motivation involves an interest in learning an L2 because of a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group. In addition, Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) clarify that a learner with an integrative orientation is usually characterised by the desire to learn the second language, a positive disposition toward the L2 group, and a desire to interact with, and even become similar to, valued members of that community. Furthermore, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) emphasises that integrative motivation is identified with positive attitudes toward the target language group and the potential for integrating into that group, or at the very least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of the target language group. As conceived in his socio-educational model of second language acquisition, Gardner regards integrative motivated individuals as those motivated to learn the second language because of a desire or willingness to identify with the other language community, and who tend to evaluate the learning situation positively.

Gardner (2000) proposes that the total complex of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivational attributes is referred to as integrative motivation (see Figure 9).
Gardner (2001b) has distinguished integrativeness from integrative motivation by declaring that integrativeness, along with attitudes toward the learning situation, are seen as supporters for motivation, while it is motivation that is responsible for achievement in the second language learning. He clarifies that someone may demonstrate high levels of integrativeness and/or very positive attitudes toward the learning situation, but if these are not linked with motivation to learn the language, they will not be particularly highly related to achievement. According to him, a student exhibiting high levels of motivation that are not supported by high levels of integrativeness and/or favourable attitudes toward the learning situation may not exhibit these high levels of motivation consistently.

Gardner (1985) has asserted that the integrative motive plays a determining role in the acquisition of the skills of the foreign language since it orient students to make social
contacts with members of the cultural community and thereby learn these linguistic skills that characterise that group. He also shows that integrative motivation was found to be more invariably related to L2 achievement than instrumental motivation, which emerges as a significant factor only in some specific situations. Gardner (1960) hypothesises that motivation to acquire a second language is dependent upon an integrative orientation, and this implies that individuals seeking to learn a language for instrumental reasons will not manifest and maintain a high degree of motivation over extended periods of language study.

Some studies like that of Chihara and Oller (1978) have shown that the relationship between the measure of integrative motivation and achievement was weak and insignificant. These studies, however, were attacked by Gardner (1980) who criticised the design of the self-report questionnaire used in the studies by Oller and other scientists.

### 2.5.2 Instrumental Motivation

Gardner and Lambert (1959) and Clément and colleagues (1994) have stated that instrumental motivation relates to the desire to learn the L2 for a particular purpose, such as getting a job or fulfilling educational requirements. Gardner (1960) has proposed that beside integrative orientation, there is also instrumental orientation in which students’ primary aim in studying the language appears to be an interest in acquiring sufficient knowledge of the language for its instrumental value, such as for school credits, job opportunities, etc. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argue that instrumental motivation refers to more functional reasons for learning a language like getting a better job or a promotion, or to pass a required examination.

Regardless of the fact that integrative motivation has been demonstrated to be more strongly related to L2 achievement, learners with instrumental reasons for learning an L2 can also be successful. Instrumental motivation appears to be even much more powerful than integrative motivation in some specific contexts where learners have little or no interest in the target-language culture and few or no opportunities to interact with its members (Ellis, 1994). For example, Lukmani (1972) found that instrumental motivation was more important than the integrative one in non-Westernised female learners of L2 English in Bombay, India.
Instrumental motivation also works better when providing learners with incentives like money. These incentives may aid learning by making learners apply extra efforts, but according to Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) the effects of such incentives may cease as soon as the rewards stop, which is seen as a major disadvantage of instrumental motivation.

Although instrumental and integrative motivation may emerge as separate factors, they can be presented in the same group of learners to serve as a powerful predictor of success. For example, Ely (1986) found evidence of both strong integrative and strong instrumental motivation while investigating the types of motivation in first-year university students of Spanish in the United States.

2.5.3 Intrinsic Motivation

Due to the fact that intrinsic motivation is actually at the core of all the other types of motivation, a description for many aspects of this kind of motivation follows. Another rational reason for giving a bit more attention to the importance of intrinsic motivation is that it is considered to be effective in the educational settings and thus closely related to the current cognitive stage of L2 motivation research.

Some researchers like Combs (1982), Purkey and Schmidt (1987), and Purkey and Stanley (1991) have defined intrinsic motivation as enhancing people's self-concept by engaging them in activities that motivate them. Most theorists, though, like Malone and Lepper (1987) have conceptualised intrinsic motivation in a broad and more simple way in terms of what people will do without external inducement. According to other points of view, intrinsic motivation can be defined as “motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake,” (Pintrich & Schunk 1996, p. 257). Ryan and Deci (2000, p.70) conceptualised intrinsic motivation as “the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to learn.” Liuolienė and Metiūnienė (2006) have proposed that intrinsically motivating activities are often equated with fun or enjoyment or activities that students would perform of their own volition.

Vallerand (1997) has identified three subtypes of intrinsic motivation as follow: a) *intrinsic motivation to learn,* which is engaging in an activity for the pleasure of
understanding something new, satisfying one’s curiosity and exploring the world; b) *intrinsic motivation for achievement*, which is engaging in an activity for the satisfaction of surpassing oneself, coping with challenges, and accomplishing something; and c) *intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation*, which is the engagement in an activity to experience pleasant sensation.

### 2.5.3.1 The Intrinsic Needs of Students

As explained when discussing SDT in section 2.3.2.2.6, there are some innate psychological needs of students that need to be satisfied in order to promote their motivation. Raffini (1996) emphasises the importance of some of these needs, like *autonomy and self-determination*, *competence*, *belonging and relatedness*, and *self-esteem*. He states that “teachers can have a powerful influence over the intrinsic motivation of their students by arranging conditions in their psycho academic needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness, self-esteem, and enjoyment,” (p. ix). Raffini adds that students need to control their own decisions (autonomy); to do things that help them feel successful (competence); to feel part of something larger than themselves (belonging and relatedness); to feel good about who they are (self-esteem); and to find pleasure in what they do (involvement and enjoyment).

#### 2.5.3.1.1 The Need for Autonomy and Self-Determination

The need for autonomy is one of the innate psychological needs that the influential Self-Determination Theory (SDT) maintains as an essential aspect of human motivation. Deci and Ryan (2000) emphasise that field studies in schools as well as laboratory experiments showed, in real-world settings, that providing autonomy support to students was associated with more positive outcomes, including greater intrinsic motivation, increased satisfaction, and enhanced well-being. Deci and Ryan (1985) had earlier proposed that all human beings have an innate need to feel autonomous. They also believe that the desire for self-determination is realised when individuals have the capacity to choose as they interact with their environment —when they engage in activities because they want to, not because they have to.

According to Raffini (1993), it appears that students’ satisfaction of the need for autonomy is a matter of gaining power and control over their lives. This process suggests
that all students have a natural resistance to some orders like Stand up! Sit down! Be quiet! Stop talking!

2.5.3.1.2 The Need for Competence

Raffini (1996) has proposed that in order to increase the intrinsic motivation of students it is important to create an environment in which students can discover that their serious efforts to learn enables them to attain a sense of academic competence. He adds that despite of the fact that the amount of time and effort required for academic achievement varies considerably among students, they all need to have access to the feeling of competence that comes from achievement.

2.5.3.1.3 The Need for Belonging and Relatedness

Rudolph Dreikurs (1968), the founder of American Adlerian psychology, believes that all humans are social beings with a basic desire to belong to a group. Schmuck and Schmuck (1974) found that student academic achievement and presumably motivation were enhanced when children were willing to help and support one another and when friendship within the classroom was broadly dispersed among many peers.

2.5.3.1.4 The Need for Self-Esteem

Reasoner (1982) defines self-esteem as appreciating one’s own worth and importance, having the character to be accountable for oneself, and acting responsibly towards others. For Kaplan (1990), self-esteem refers to the judgement of merit or value that an individual places on the various facets of the self. Scheidecker and Freeman (1999) state that the elusive concept of self-esteem is really spelled S * U * C * E * S * S. They add that the only way to build true self-esteem is through making people successful.

Raffini (1996) has argued that students with high self-esteem are more likely to succeed in life because they have a clear sense of direction regarding their priorities and goals. He adds that it seems reasonable that activities designed to increase students’ self-esteem will also increase their intrinsic motivation to learn. Moreover, Chambers (1999) hypothesises that self-esteem is an important motivational factor and that pupils who feel good about themselves are more likely to have a more positive mindset towards the subject and related classroom activities than those who do not.
2.5.3.1.5 The Need for Involvement and Enjoyment

Raffini (1996) has emphasised the need for involving students actively in learning activities. He recommends that if teachers truly want to intrinsically motivate students to devote large amounts of effort to learning, then they must design the process of learning with a clear understanding of students’ need for involvement and enjoyment. Raffini asserts that the need for involvement and enjoyment in learning is often lost when educators are restrained when designing curriculum and lesson plans. A further discussion about this need is presented in section 2.7.3.1.

2.5.3.2 Achieving Intrinsic Motivation in L2 Learning

From the perspective of cognitive evaluation theory, the most important question that arises in the classroom is how to enhance or maintain the learners’ intrinsic motivation to learn. There are ways to achieve this in L2 learning. Self-direction is a significant way for enhancing intrinsic motivation of L2 learners. Learners become intrinsically motivated when they are able to determine their own learning objectives, choose their own ways to achieve such objectives, and evaluate their own progress. Bachman (1964) found that involving learners in decision-making tends to lead to increased motivation and, thereby, to increased productivity. In addition, Bruner (1962) suggests that the most important way to help children learn is by keeping them free from the control of rewards and punishments. Bruner adds that when children are learning intrinsically, they tend to interpret their successes and failures as information rather than as rewards and punishments.

2.5.3.3 The Role of Intrinsic Motivation in L2 Learning

Some educational psychologists have found that intrinsic motivation is closely associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students. Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that intrinsic motivation is a central motivator of any educational process stating that “intrinsic motivation is in evidence whenever students’ natural curiosity and interest energise their learning. When the educational environment provides optimal challenges, rich sources of stimulation, and a context of autonomy, this motivational wellspring in learning is likely to flourish,” (p. 245).
In addition to their claim that intrinsic motivation is a central motivator of any educational process, Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that being intrinsically motivated to learn improves the quality of learning. They add that it seems clear based on various experimental studies’ findings that intrinsic motivation is closely related to academic motivation. Noels and associates (1999) support such a finding claiming that increased intrinsic motivation has been related to greater interest in course material and higher academic performance. They add that stronger feelings of intrinsic motivation were related to positive language learning outcomes including greater motivational intensity, greater self-evaluations of competence, and a reduction in anxiety.

Long-term learning was found to be more influenced by intrinsic motivation. Wang (2006) emphasises that studies show that L2 long-term learning, is mostly influenced by intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, Ramage (1990) summarises that continuing students tend to be more motivated to learn language for language’s sake, that is, to be intrinsically motivated, than those students who decide to disconnect language studies.

2.5.4 Extrinsic Motivation

Many researchers have tried to define extrinsic motivation. Nicholls (1984) argues that extrinsic involvement is a state of motivation in which learning is seen or experienced as a means to an end rather than an end in itself. He adds that if children are learning to please a teacher, to gain a token, or to get out of school early, they are described as extrinsically involved. Wang (2006) proposes that extrinsic motivation comes from the learner’s desire to get external rewards, or the recognition of peers and parents, or a desire to avoid punishment. Generally, the extrinsically motivated behaviours are those that individuals perform for the sake of receiving extrinsic rewards, such as getting a job or better salary, or to avoid punishment.

Some researchers have investigated the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000) have differentiated between the two types of motivation by declaring that extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain separable outcomes in contrasts to intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself. Although Deci and Ryan (1985) have distinguished between the two types of motivation, they suggest that the same factors that enhance and promote self-determined intrinsic motivation can also
promote self-determined extrinsic motivation and vice versa. Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory identifies four types of regulations that come in between the two forms of motivation and can be classified as types of extrinsic motivation as follows (examples cited as in Dörnyei, 2009):

a) **External regulation** comes from external sources such as rewards or threats (e.g. teacher’s praise or parental confrontation). This is considered the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation.

b) **Introjected regulation** is the externally imposed rules that the students have to comply with in avoidance for feeling guilty (e.g. laws of a country).

c) **Identified regulation** describes students engaging in activity for its high value and usefulness (e.g. learning a language that is necessary to pursue hobbies or interests).

d) **Integrated regulation** is the advanced form of extrinsic motivation. It involves a conscious behaviour that is fully incorporated with the individual's other needs, values, and identity (e.g. learning English because proficiency in this language is part of an educated multi-ethnic culture one has adopted).

Many researchers have claimed that extrinsic inducements can undermine intrinsic motivation because learners tend to lose their intrinsic interest in an activity if they have to do it for the sake of extrinsic incentives such as grades or rewards. Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that rewards are likely to be accompanied by greater surveillance, evaluation, and competition, which have all been found to undermine intrinsic motivation. According to Deci and associates (1999), the careful considerations of rewards effects reported in 128 experiments lead to the conclusion that tangible rewards tend to have a substantially negative effect on intrinsic motivation. Brophy (2004) claims that rewards are most likely to decrease performance quality as well as intrinsic motivation when they are highly salient (i.e. rewards are very attractive and are presented in ways that call attention to them), non-contingent (i.e. rewards are given for mere participation in the activity, rather than being contingent on achieving specific goals), and unnatural/unusual (i.e. rewards are artificially tied to behaviours as control devices, rather than being natural outcomes of the behaviours).
Other studies, however, have found no negative relation between the two types of motivation. For example, Deci (1975) was the first to propose the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), which primarily describes the effects of external events on intrinsic motivation. In this theory, Deci outlines that every reward has a controlling aspect that involves offering rewards for working on a task, and an informational aspect that provides the recipients with information about their performance and progress. He clarifies that if the controlling aspect of rewards is more salient, that will pressure people toward specific outcomes and is likely to undermine their intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Deci added that if, on the other hand, the informational aspect is more salient, the intrinsic feelings of competence and self-determination will be initiated. In addition, Sansone and Smith (1999) argue that extrinsic motivation can actually enhance intrinsic motivation when it motivates the individual to engage in interest-enhancing strategies. More discussion about the effects of rewards on students’ motivation is presented in section 2.7.4.3.

2.6 The L2 Motivational Self System

In 2005, Dörnyei laid the foundation of a novel theoretical shift in L2 motivation research. The new paradigm that emerged from theoretical considerations as well as empirical research findings was conceptualised as The L2 Motivational Self System. Dörnyei has clarified that there were some reasons that led him to lead such a major reformulation of the concept of L2 motivation. Among such reasons was the common belief that L2 motivation researchers share that “a foreign language is more than a mere communication code that can be learned similarly to other academic subjects, and have therefore typically adopted paradigms that linked the L2 to the individual’s personal ‘core,’ forming an important part of one’s identity,” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 9). Dörnyei consequently has proposed a system explicitly focusing on the different aspects of the individual’s identity. Another reason for such a reformulation was the growing concerns about the notion of integrativeness/integrative motivation, which was initiated by Gardner and Lambert (1959), and the need to reinterpret the concept. Dörnyei (2005, 2010) has explained that integrativeness did not make any links with the up-to-date cognitive motivational theories that emerged recently in the field of motivational psychology, such as goal theories and self-determination theory. He adds that the concept ‘integrative’ is limiting as it makes sense in multicultural contexts rather than other contexts where there is no real available contact with L2 speakers. Dörnyei (2010)
claims that *The L2 Motivational Self System* is built upon the foundations laid by Gardner's (1985) theory of integrativeness and integrative motivation, but at the same time, Dörnyei has tried to broaden the scope of the theory to make it applicable in diverse language learning environments. Dörnyei (2005, 2009, 2010) has proposed a new L2 motivational self-system comprising three dimensions, as shown in Figure 10.

*Figure 10: Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L2 Learning Experience</td>
<td>The situated, ‘executive’ motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualised at a different level from the two self-guides and future research will hopefully elaborate on the self-aspects of this bottom-up process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought-to L2 Self</td>
<td>The attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins’s ought-to self and thus to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ideal L2 Self</td>
<td>The L2-specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self’: if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ‘ideal L2 self’ is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong to this component.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dörnyei (2009) claims that the proposed motivational self system is compatible theoretically with some influential conceptualisations of L2 motivation like Gardner (2001a), Ushioda (2001), and Noels (2003), as well as empirically with other experimental studies that took place in five different countries: China, Hungary, Iran, Japan, and Saudi Arabia. He has highlighted some practical implications for the self-
based approach assuming that it offers new avenues for motivating language learners. Dörnyei points out that the first component of the system, which is the ‘Ideal L2 Self’ is associated with a novel area of motivational strategies concerning the promotion of this component through generating a language learning vision and through imagery enhancement. Similarly, the third component of the system, the ‘L2 Learning Experience’ is associated with a wide range of techniques that can promote motivation. According to Dörnyei, the second component of the system, the ‘Ought-to L2 Self,’ does not lend itself to obvious motivational practices as it is external to the learner (i.e. it concerns the duties and obligations imposed by friends, parents, and other authoritative figures).

2.7 Motivational Strategies

Many of the studies that investigated various aspects of the issue of L2 motivation over the past 40-50 years gave rise to proposals in relation to what motivation as a concept and a theoretical construct involves, as well as in relation to the various types of motivation that, by one way or another, may affect the EFL/ESL learning/teaching in a specific learning context. Most of such studies, though, paid no attention to the important practical dimensions of the issue (e.g. classroom practices) as they were more concerned about analysing various motives and validating motivational theories (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) rather than about finding pragmatic ways to motivate language learners.

Due to the fact that motivational strategies did not receive sufficient attention as a significant dimension of L2 motivation research until the early 1990s, which is considered a marked shift in the field as a whole, there were very few studies that tried to conceptualise this term. Dörnyei (2001b, p. 28) asserts that “motivational strategies refer to the motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect.” Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) indicate that motivational strategies could be conceptualised to refer to two concepts: (a) instructional interventions applied by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation, and (b) self-regulating strategies used purposefully by individual students to manage the level of their own motivation. In other words, we can conceptualise motivational strategies as the techniques that are used for the purpose of enhancing individuals’ goal-related behaviour.
The works of Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Oxford and Shearin (1994), and Dörnyei (1994) were the first in the field of L2 motivation research to call for reopening a new research agenda in the field to adopt a practical education-oriented approach of motivation research. Such an approach, according to (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), was consistent with the perceptions of practicing teachers and was in turn directly relevant to classroom applications. In light of such a call, many scholars, such as Alison (1993), Williams and Burden (1997), Chambers (1999), Brown (2001), Dörnyei (2001b), and Alison and Halliwell (2002), have designed and summarised motivational techniques to be used in the language classroom. Gardner and Tremblay (1994) have claimed that from a scientific point of view, intuitive appeal without empirical evidence is not sufficient to justify strong claims in favour of the use of such strategies, and have recommended testing these strategies to validate their practical effectiveness. There was in reality no great response by researchers in the field for Gardner and Tremblay’s recommendation due to the fact, elaborated by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), that validating studies of motivational strategies are labour-intensive since they require the application of experimental research and/or extensive classroom observation. It is not surprising that there have only been three published studies to date that have empirically tested the effectiveness of motivational strategies. These studies were by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan, and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in South Korea.

The experimental study of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) was the first response to Gardner and Tremblay’s (1994) recommendation. The authors conducted an empirical study on 200 Hungarian EFL teachers to evaluate a list of 51 motivational strategies in terms of how important teachers consider these techniques to be and how frequently they actually implement them in their classes. These strategies were originally proposed by the first author himself in 1994, and were based both on his own experience in the field as well as on the findings of educational psychology research. Based on the findings of this study, the two researchers produced a set of the most important motivational strategies as revealed by participants and called it *The Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners*.

The second empirical study was that of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), and was carried out in the Taiwanese EFL context. This study used a modified version of the research
The instrument used in Hungary to recruit 387 EFL Taiwanese teachers. Participants were asked in the same way to rate the strategies based on how important they consider them and how frequently they actually implement these strategies in their language classrooms. The findings of the two studies reflected the fact that some of the tested motivational strategies (especially the ten macro strategies revealed by the first study) were perceived to be effective in both contexts and also, they seemed freely transferable across diverse cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). There were, on the other hand, some other motivational strategies that seemed to be culture sensitive, or even culture dependent, based on the findings that emerged from the two EFL contexts.

It is, however, worth mentioning that neither of the two studies based its findings on actual observation and evaluation of teachers’ classroom motivational practices or students’ behaviours but rather just on teachers’ responses to self-report questionnaires. Bernaus and Gardner (2008) have clarified that despite the motivational strategies proposed in these two studies being seemingly important, and all of them having been proposed as potentially important by participants, there appeared to be little research to directly investigate the relationship between the use of these strategies and students’ motivation in language classes. They wondered if a systematic way of research, in which students were randomly assigned to classes taught by teachers who actively followed some of these strategies, while other students were taught by teachers who did not use the strategies were conducted, would the anticipated results obtained? The way of research proposed by Bernaus and Gardner is, in fact, a unique characteristic of the current study.

To fill the research gap, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) conducted an empirical investigation in South Korea to make this kind of research (motivational strategies) more objective by linking the EFL teachers’ motivational teaching practices and their students’ learning motivation in the actual classroom. 27 EFL teachers and over 1300 learners from 40 ESOL classrooms in South Korea were recruited for their study. The study used three instruments for collecting data as follows:

A 20-item self-report questionnaire designed to target the students’ situation-specific motivational disposition related to their current L2 course was distributed. Some of the
items of this questionnaire were adapted from previous studies like that of Gardner (1985) and Clément and colleagues (1994), while others were newly written to explore the validity of some motivational components such as students’ attitudes towards their current L2 course, linguistic self-confidence, L2 classroom anxiety, etc. The questionnaire was translated from English into the students’ Korean mother language.

A salient classroom observation instrument was designed specifically for the study. This instrument, referred to as The Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT), was developed in the light of the real time coding principle of Spada and Fröhlich’s (1995) which is known as Communication Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT). MOLT also derived some categories of observable teachers’ behaviours from the motivational strategies framework for FL classrooms proposed by Dörnyei (2001b). This instrument was used to assess both the quality of the teachers’ teaching practices and the levels of the students’ motivated behaviour.

A post-lesson teacher evaluation scale was introduced: a nine-point rating scale was developed to provide a post hoc evaluation of the teachers’ motivational practices. This scale was drawn partly from Gardner’s (1985) Attitudes toward the L2 teacher scale. The scale was completed by the observer immediately at the end of each observed class.

This study found that the language teachers’ motivational practice in classroom was strongly linked, and significantly correlated to, their students’ motivated learning behaviours.

In fact, most of the motivational strategies tested in the previously discussed studies are of big value in motivating foreign language learners. It is, however, worth mentioning the fact elaborated by Dörnyei (1994, 2001b) that not every strategy can work in every context. Dörnyei has clarified that the motivational strategies he proposed are not rock-solid golden rules, but rather suggestions that may work with one teacher or group better than another, and which may work better today than tomorrow (2001b). He adds that the differences in learners’ culture, age, and proficiency level, and their relationship to the target language may render some strategies completely useless or meaningless, while others could be particularly effective.
In 2001, Dörnyei has highlighted the fact that there is a variety of strategies that can promote classroom L2 learning and that it is appropriate to organise these diverse techniques under a systematic theoretical framework in order to accommodate them. He developed a systematic framework of L2 motivational strategies called *Motivational Teaching Practice* (see Figure 12). This framework was specifically designed to generate and maintain L2 motivation in the classroom setting. This model consists of four dimensions, and presents the main macro strategies and many sub micro strategies as follows:

### 2.7.1 Creating Basic Motivational Conditions

This dimension of motivational strategies involves conditions in the classroom that seem necessary to create basic motivational conditions, such as demonstrating proper teacher behaviour, creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and generating a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.

#### 2.7.1.1 Demonstrating Proper Teacher Behaviour

In their study in Hungary, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) found that participants rated the teacher’s own behaviour as the most important and an extremely underutilised motivational factor in the language classroom. In 1999, Chambers recruited a sample of British secondary school learners of German as a second language and investigated many factors that were hypothesised to contribute to learners’ appraisal of their L2 learning. He came up with a similar conclusion that out of all the factors surveyed, the teacher's behaviour came on the top as the most important factor. The same finding emerged in the study of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan. They emphasised that Taiwanese English teachers were aware of their roles as leaders in the learner groups. Proper teacher behaviour can be displayed through many aspects of the teacher’s behaviour, like their development of a positive relationship with learners, etc.

#### 2.7.1.1.1 Teacher’s Enthusiasm

The importance of the teacher enthusiasm for teaching is well-recognised (see Csikzentmihalyi et al., 1993; Csikzentmihalyi, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001b; Brophy, 2004; Knight, 2006). Brophy (2004) has theorised that enthusiasm means identifying good
reasons for viewing a topic as interesting, meaningful, or important and then communicating these reasons to students when teaching the topic. He clarifies that if the teacher presents a topic with enthusiasm, explains to his or her students that the topic is interesting, unique, important, or worthwhile students are likely to adopt the same attitude as that of the teacher. Csikzentmihalyi and colleagues (1993) and Csikzentmihalyi (1997) have claimed that it is the enthusiastic teachers whom students always recognise as the ones who made a difference in their lives; they usually find permanent places in their students’ memories. Csikzentmihalyi (1997) has acknowledged that enthusiastic teachers are those who love their subject matter and show by dedication and passion that there is nothing else on earth they would rather be doing. Csikzentmihalyi clarifies that students might make fun of the enthusiastic teacher’s dedication for his subject, but that they, deep inside, admire that passion. Dörnyei (2001b) argues that many scholars go in line with Csikzentmihalyi’s belief that enthusiasm for one’s specialisation, especially when making this enthusiasm public rather than hidden, is one of the most motivating techniques of effective teaching. One way in which the teacher can project enthusiasm for teaching is through modelling. This process, according to Dörnyei (2001b), involves setting an example that involves motivational factors such as effort expenditure, positive attitudes, and interest in the subject.

In her model of teacher’s credibility, Knight (2006) categorised the teacher’s passion for teaching and his/her enthusiasm in the classroom as one source of his/her credibility – an important player in fostering students’ motivation. Teacher's credibility has been referred to as the attitude of a receiver toward a source regarding the perceived competence, trustworthiness, and caring (McCroskey & Young, 1981; Teven & McCroskey, 1997). Knight (2006) has developed a model for teacher credibility and labelled the three key components of that model as competence, trustworthiness, and dynamism (see Figure 11).
Figure 11: Knight’s (2006) Model of Teacher’s Credibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics That Describe a “CREDIBLE” Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competent</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the subject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“A teacher is perceived as ____________ if she/he does the following:”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competent</th>
<th>Trustworthy</th>
<th>Dynamic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Can explain complex material well</td>
<td>• Follows through on promises</td>
<td>• Has high energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has good classroom management skills</td>
<td>• Gives immediate feedback</td>
<td>• Is interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has the ability to answer students questions</td>
<td>• Offers a rational explanation for grading</td>
<td>• Is flexible, i.e., can deviate to increase student interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can reference significant works of others</td>
<td>• Shows no biases, i.e., teaches from multiple perspectives</td>
<td>• Has good presentation skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Communicates well</td>
<td>• Treats all students the same</td>
<td>• Uses a variety of teaching techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can “do” what he or she is teaching</td>
<td>• Never embarrasses students</td>
<td>• Is unpredictable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has a broad base of information</td>
<td>• Is flexible</td>
<td>• Relates positively to students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Adds own “personality” to the class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Knight explains that each of these dimensions is independent. That is, a teacher may be perceived to be quite competent but not trustworthy; or dynamic but lacking in knowledge of the subject matter (i.e. not competent). *Dynamism* in this model has been conceptualised by Knight as the teacher's passion for teaching and his/her enthusiasm in the classroom; this concept is more concerned with the presentation skills of the teacher. According to her, a dynamic teacher is the one who is more likely to be confident, articulate, unpredictable, and energetic, the one who changes the pace in a single class by using a variety of teaching strategies and adds his or her own personality to the class. Berlo and colleagues (1969) also considered dynamism as a source of credibility.
Some preceding studies, like that of Martin and colleagues (1997), have emphasised the fact that the highly credible teachers’ students usually report high levels of motivation. Pogue and Ahyun (2006, p. 333) state that “as with immediacy, highly credible teachers also influence students’ state motivation and, by doing so, may impact student success.”

Some of the strategies that represent demonstrating enthusiasm for teaching the foreign language include showing students the teacher’s interest in, and dedication to, the English language and sharing that with them, and showing students that the teacher values learning English language as a meaningful experience that enriches his/her life.

2.7.1.1.2 Teacher’s Commitment

The second dimension of the proper teacher behaviour is showing commitment to students’ progress by taking their learning seriously. Burden (2000) has highlighted the importance of keeping an eye on students’ progress by stating that it is important to closely and frequently monitor students’ progress, especially that of those who are low-achieving or struggling, in order to provide the assistance they may need and to keep them on the task. The importance of this strategy was also emphasised by Dörnyei (2001b) when he has asserted that the teacher’s commitment to students’ progress is an important aspect of the teacher behaviour that cannot be overemphasised. He clarified that it is important that every student in class feels that the teacher cares, and that the teacher is not there just for salary. According to him, it is important for the teacher that his/her students succeed and that the teacher works as hard as students towards this success. Dörnyei adds that the fastest way to undermining students’ motivation is if they feel that the teacher does not care. He adds “the spiritual and sometime physical absence of the teacher sends such a great message of ‘it doesn’t matter’ to students, that everybody, even the most dedicated ones, are likely to be affected and become demoralised,” (p. 34).

There are several ways in which teachers can employ this strategy in the formal school environment to show their students that they do care about their learning. Wlodkowski (1999) has argued that teachers and students should outline a shared essential message to imply that instructors and learners are partners in solving their learning problems. Wlodkowski believes that by letting learners know that there is a concrete means of assistance available, teachers offer immediate evidence that they do care about the
people who learn with them, and that this will help students reduce their fear to learn. According to Wlodkowski, some of the situations in which teachers can show their readiness for their students’ needs include announcing their availability during office hours and breaks, arranging tutorial assistance by appointment, or making sure learners who are having difficulty can use special materials or aids. Dörnyei (2001b) has suggested further ways for teachers to express that students’ learning does matter to them. Some of these ways incorporate offering concrete assistance, correcting tests and assignments properly, sending learners copies of relevant scholarly articles, showing concern when learning process is not going well, being accessible to students by allowing them to contact the teacher by phone or email, being available for overtime, responding immediately when help is requested, encouraging extra assignments and offering to assist students with theses assignments.

2.7.1.1.3 Teacher’s Care and Acceptance

The importance of this aspect is well-established in educational psychology literature. For example, Wlodkowski (1999) has stressed that students need to feel safe and respected. He proposes that unless learners know that they can express themselves without fear of threat and humiliation, they will not be forthcoming with their perceptions of their own reality. Burden (2000) has hypothesised that when students see that the teacher has a genuine interest in their well-being, they are more likely to work to improve. He adds that by showing they care, teachers help students to feel the teacher's interest in their welfare. Teven and McCroskey (1997) have argued that the more that students perceive their teacher cares about them, the more the students will care about the class, and the more likely they will pay attention in class and consequently learn more. They add that when a teacher is able to understand a student's view, and respect that view, the student is more likely to believe that the teacher cares about him/her. Raffini (1993) has recognised the importance of Glasser’s (1969) suggestion that teachers should attempt to treat all students with kindness, politeness, and respect at all times regardless of how they treat the teacher. Chambers (1999) has advised that the teacher’s relationship with his/her students usually affects the atmosphere at the classroom, arguing that if the relationship is poor, the pupils’, and teacher's motivation is likely to be poor.
Teven (2007) warns against teachers’ misbehaviour in the classroom stating that if teachers misbehave, they are generally perceived by students as non-caring and that such a perception could result in negative student affect, potential demotivation, and negative teacher evaluations.

It is believed that the teacher’s care of his or her students generates their trustworthiness in him/her (see McCroskey, 1966; Teven & McCroskey, 1997; McCroskey & Teven, 1999; Knight, 2006). In her model of teacher credibility, Knight (2006) refers to trustworthiness as a concept for whether or not the teacher has the best interest of the student at heart. She explains that a teacher who is trustworthy is one who promotes positive teacher/student relationships in which students are made to feel welcome as participants in the class, in which the teacher sincerely cares about the welfare of students, and in which the teacher is sensitive to gender and cultural issues in the classroom. Knight describes the trustworthy teacher as safe, just, kind, friendly, flexible, honest, and as one who follows through on promises and never embarrasses students.

The results of Teven’s (2007) study showed that the teacher’s behaviours in the classroom influenced students’ perceptions of teacher’s competence as a dimension of his/her credibility. They found that the teacher engaging in appropriate classroom behaviours and exhibiting a caring approach was perceived as the most competent and trustworthy. Conversely, the teacher who engaged in misbehaviours was perceived as incompetent and therefore less credible.

Knight characterises the competence dimension in her model as the perceived expertness of the teacher (i.e. his/her knowledge of the subject matter) as well as teaching the course in a way that will truly be of value to students. She describes the competent teacher as informed, experienced, skilled, and qualified.

2.7.1.4 Teacher’s Immediacy

Teacher’s immediacy is another important motivational aspect of teacher behaviour affecting students’ motivation. Mehrabian (1969, 1971) have conceptualised immediacy as the extent to which communication behaviours enhance psychological closeness and reduce physical and/or psychological distance between communicators. According to
Christophel (1990), immediacy is the degree of perceived physical and/or psychological closeness between people.

Gorham (1988) and Carrell and Menzel (2001) have proposed that the teacher’s immediacy behaviours can be displayed verbally and non-verbally. According to them, verbal immediacy is the relationship one builds with another individual through the linguistic acts of conversation and includes the use of humour, praise, topics of discussion, and willingness to have conversations with students. On the other hand, non-verbal immediacy manifests in the behaviours, other than verbal statements, that decrease the physical and psychological distance between two people. These include gestures, eye contact, head nods, relaxed body position, vocal expressions, facial expressions, smiles, and movement (Andersen & Andersen, 1982).

Several studies (e.g. Richmond, 1990; Christophel, 1990; Chesebro & McCroskey, 2001; Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Frymier, 1993; Frymier & Shulman, 1995; Jaasma & Koper, 1999) have found that teachers’ immediacy plays an important role in increasing students’ motivation. More precisely, non-verbal immediacy has been shown to be positively related to students’ motivation to learn (Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1994; Richmond, 1990). Pogue and AhYun (2006) have proposed that teachers’ non-verbal immediacy influences students’ state motivation and positively affects learning outcomes. Christophel’s (1990) findings support the theory that immediacy and state motivation are positively correlated. Since some of the students’ state motivational levels were modified by teacher immediacy behaviours, she concluded that state motivation levels are modifiable within the classroom.

Some studies like that of Teven and Hanson (2004) have implied that the teacher immediacy and credibility are related to one another in that highly immediate teachers are usually rated higher on credibility. They found that college instructors who were non-verbally immediate and who also used more explicit, verbally caring messages in communication with their students, generated positive students’ perceptions of teacher competence and trustworthiness.
2.7.1.2 Creating a Pleasant Classroom Atmosphere

The second strategy for creating the basic motivational conditions in the foreign language classroom is to create a pleasant classroom atmosphere. Dörnyei (2001a) has suggested that any practicing teacher should be aware of the fact that a tense classroom climate is one of the most effective factors that generate students’ anxiety and undermine their learning effectiveness and L2 motivation. Good and Brophy (1994) have proposed that it is important that the teacher be a patient, encouraging, and supportive person to learners to give the learning the chance to occur within a relaxed and supportive atmosphere.

One way that helps in creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere is through bringing in and encouraging humour in the language classroom and this is something that Dörnyei (2001b) recommends. He argues that if students can feel that the teacher allows a healthy degree of self-mockery and does not treat school as the most hallowed of all places, the jokes will come.

Encouraging learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste is another way teachers can promote a pleasant atmosphere in their classes. This personalisation could be in the form of decoration, posters, flowers, funny objects, etc. Dörnyei (2001b) argues that this way will promote the students’ notion of their control over their learning environment; the thing that will increase their autonomy feelings and hence enhance their motivation.

2.7.1.3 Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Setting Group Norms

This is the third strategy that can be used to create basic motivational conditions in the language classroom. It has been increasingly well-recognised in literature (e.g. Clément et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001a; Dörnyei, 2001b; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007a) that learner groups can be a substantial source of motivation to learn an L2. Group-based motives, known also as group dynamics, such as group cohesion, group norm and rewards system, and goal-orientedness usually influence learners’ motivation considerably.
Group cohesion is one of a set of group components that has been found to influence the language learners’ motivation. Dörnyei (1994, p.279) has defined group cohesion as “the strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to the group itself.” He (2001a) has also defined the term using other words stating that group cohesiveness refers to the strength of intermember relations, or the magnetism or glue that holds the group together and maintains it as a system. Dörnyei (2007a) has given a simple conceptualisation for this term describing group cohesiveness as the closeness and feeling of a group, that is, the internal gelling force that keeps the group together.

Clément and associates (1994) have proposed that group cohesion is usually associated with a positive evaluation of the learning environment. In their empirical investigation for the relationship between motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom, they found that perceived group cohesiveness significantly contributed to the learners’ overall motivation construct and substantially correlated with a diversity of language criterion measures (Dörnyei, 2001a). Dörnyei (2001b) has proposed that student motivation tends to increase in cohesive class groups because students in such groups share an increased responsibility for achieving the group goals and the positive relations among them make the learning goes more enjoyable. Further, Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) maintain that a cohesive group has a more pleasant atmosphere than a non-cohesive class. Furthermore, Evans and Dion (1991) present a meta-analysis of studies that investigated the relationship between group cohesion and group performance. They found a significant positive relationship between these two variables, indicating that cohesive groups, on average, tend to be more productive than non-cohesive groups. Dörnyei and Malderez (1997) have confirmed the assumption revealed by Levine and Moreland (1990) that group cohesiveness has a positive effect on classroom interaction in the way that the members of a cohesive group are more likely than others to participate actively in conversations, and engage in self-disclosure or collaborative narration. Among the strategies that have come out of previous studies to address the importance of group cohesiveness are those relating to encouraging cooperative learning by dividing students into small groups and letting them work towards the same goal, encouraging students to interact and share personal experiences and thoughts, and encouraging extracurricular activities and outings that increase the cohesiveness of students in the language class.
Group norms are another group-specific motivational component. Dörnyei and Murphy (2003) have referred to group norms as “the implicit and explicit dos and don’ts that regulate the life of communities,” (p.35), and Dörnyei and Malderez (1997) have defined group norms as “the rules or standards that describe behaviour that is essential for the efficient functioning of the group,” (p.69). Dörnyei and Malderez have referred to the norms imposed in educational contexts by the group leader (i.e. the teacher) or the school management as institutional norms. According to them, it is important, however, to realise that institutional norms do not become real group norms unless they are accepted as right or proper by the majority of the members (e.g. students) and emphasise the importance of the teacher’s attitude towards the group norms. They have hypothesised that if the students feel that the teacher does not pay enough attention to having the established norms observed and regularly reviewed, they are quick to take the message that the teacher did not mean what he/she said, and consequently tend to ignore these norms.

Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) have emphasised the need for developing norm system that governs the learner group behaviour. They argue that cohesiveness alone does not guarantee heightened productivity but only in cases when existing group norms are supportive of production. For Dörnyei (2001b), adopting effective learning norms is considered a major contributor to the learner group motivation. Dörnyei (2001a) shows that norms can be seen as the group-level equivalents of individual-level motives. Dörnyei (2007a) points out that group norms, in addition to group cohesion and group leadership, play an important role in determining the behaviour of the learner group, and therefore they can be seen as valid motivational antecedents.

Among the strategies that can help in establishing group norms is explaining clearly to the group members the class rules and the consequences of violating these rules. This should take place at the beginning of the group life (e.g. at the beginning of the term). Another way for setting group norms is through allowing students to suggest other class rules and discussing the suggested rules with them.

2.7.2 Generating Initial Motivation

This dimension focuses on generating students’ motivation by enhancing their positive values toward the language course and the language learning, increasing the learners’
expectancy of success, enhancing their goal-orientedness, making the teaching materials relevant to their needs, and helping learners to create realistic beliefs for learning the foreign language.

2.7.2.1 Familiarising Learners with L2 Culture and L2 Related Values

Familiarising learners with the values associated with the foreign language learning is one of the important strategies for generating their initial motivation. Dörnyei (2001a) has argued that the individual's value system is a more or less organised collection of internalised perceptions, beliefs and feelings related to one's position in the social world that have been developed during the past as a reaction to past experiences (p.124). Based on Eccles and Wigfield's (1995) L2 learning-specific value typology, Dörnyei (2001b) has distinguished three value dimensions associated with learning an L2: intrinsic value (i.e. the interest and enjoyment associated with the process of learning the target language), integrative value (i.e. the positive disposition towards the target language itself, its culture, and its speaking group), and instrumental value (i.e. the perceived pragmatic benefits of learning the target language). Increasing the amount of English the teacher uses in the language classroom has been found to uncover many L2 latent intrinsic values for learners. Reminding students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering this language as well as encouraging them to use English in their daily life activities outside the classroom are two strategies that can be used to familiarise students with the instrumental values of the foreign language. Encouraging students to discover interesting information about the foreign language and the foreign community via the internet and bringing various L2 cultural products like magazines and video recordings to the classroom to familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language can be two helpful techniques to make learners familiar with the integrative aspects of the target language and the target language community.

2.7.2.2 Increasing Learners’ Expectancy of Success

Increasing learners’ expectancy of success is another important strategy for generating their initial motivation. The importance of this strategy has been recognised in the literature. Burden (2000) has stressed that students’ motivation is enhanced when they maintain expectations for success. Burden proposes that when students experience
success, they will develop feelings of self-worth and confidence toward new activities. Brophy (1998) argues that the simplest way to ensure that students expect success is to make sure that they achieve it consistently.

An important technique for increasing learners’ expectancy of success is by providing them with clear instructions while teaching. Wlodkowski (1999) has categorised instructional clarity as a trait of a motivating instructor and a necessity for motivating teaching. He explains that people seldom learn what they cannot understand. It is worse yet, according to him, to be in the presence of someone who seems to know and care about something but cannot convey what that something is. Pintrich and Schucnk (2002) have proposed that giving clear and detailed instructions and explanations ensure that students understand the content of the subject and do not engage in complex mental processing to find out what the teacher has said. Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) have emphasised the fact that no matter how capable a teacher is, it is unreasonable to anticipate that students will be motivated if the teaching lacks instructional clarity.

Another important strategy for increasing learners’ expectancy of success is through guiding and assisting them to succeed in performing learning tasks. Brophy (1998) has emphasised that teachers’ help and support is crucial for students, especially when they are engaged in difficult learning activities. Dörnyei (2001b) validates this, arguing that if students know that they can count on their teachers’ ongoing guidance and help, this will naturally increase their expectation of success. Wlodkowski (1999) stresses that sometimes a learner might be momentarily confused or do not know what to do next when lifted off or even moved with just a little help by the teacher. He suggests that some forms of teachers’ early scaffolding, physical proximity, and minimal assistance can be just enough for the learners to find the right path, continue involvement, and gain the initial confidence to proceed with learning.

Explaining the goals of learning tasks to students can be also of help in increasing their expectancy of success. Brophy (2004) has hypothesised that clarity about learning goals helps students focus on key ideas and applications and thus learn with a sense of purpose. Ames (1992) has shed some light on the fact that students are more likely to approach and engage in learning in a manner consistent with the learning tasks’ goal when they perceive meaningful reasons for engaging in an activity. Dörnyei (2001b) goes in line
with Scheidecker and Freeman’s (1999) conclusions about the importance of explaining the purpose of learning tasks to students prior to commencing to perform these tasks; he asserts that performing any learning task should be proceeded by communicating good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful or important. The author suggests that when students become better aware of the value and importance of the task in which they are involved or are going to be involved, this will affect the way they value this task. Pintrich and Groot (1990) argue that the question that a student usually ask him/herself –Why am I doing this task? –concerns the value component of student’s motivation. They propose that students with a motivational orientation involving goals of mastery, learning, and challenge, as well as beliefs that the task is interesting and important, will engage in more metacognitive activity, more cognitive strategy use, and more effective effort management.

Preparing students sufficiently before taking learning tasks is hence a vital strategy for promoting their expectancy of success. Dörnyei (2001b) believes that students are perceived to feel and achieve success if well prepared for learning tasks. In this preparation, the teacher can outline the goals of the task and its expected outcomes in addition to some ways on how to carry it out. He proposes that pre-task activities have become typical features in modern language teaching methodologies and such tasks usually increase success potentiality.

Another useful way to enhance students’ expectancy of success is by making the criteria of success public and clear to them. Wlodkowski (1986) has proposed that when the criteria of success is public and clear, students have a road map to success and can self-evaluate their learning as they proceed. Dörnyei (2001b) suggests that these criteria need to be obvious to students from the beginning if they are to know which elements of their performance and production are essential. One criteria for evaluating success is the ways teachers assess their students’ achievements (e.g. using tests). Wlodkowski (1999) argues that in the view of most adult learners, how they are assessed will play a crucial role in their expectation for success. He adds that using grades and quantitative scores to assess students can powerfully influence some aspects of their intrinsic motivation like self-determination and the sense of self-worth in addition to some pragmatic orientations like access to careers and future education. It is then essential to set criteria of assessment to which all students agree and also consider as clear and fair at the same time. Wiggins
(1993) claims that such criteria will allow students to self-assess and self-determine their learning more easily as they proceed. This may enhance their motivation as they can anticipate the results of their learning and regulate how they learn with more certainty (Wlodkowski, 1999). Another criterion to measure success is through the completion of academic tasks. This can be attained by specifying the requirements for completing each task to students. Good and Brophy (2000) indicate that when the teacher provides specific and complete descriptions of task requirements, students will know what is expected from them and this will increase their expectancy for success in the task.

Raising the students’ expectations of the tasks outcomes is also an important strategy for enhancing their expectancy of success. Burden (2000) has proposed that one successful way to raise students’ expectancy of success is through providing them with encouraging information about future outcomes of tasks and that teachers should call their students attention to the optimistic outcomes of tasks rather than the potential difficulty they may experience in executing these tasks.

2.7.2.3 Promoting Learners’ Positive Goals (Goal-Orientedness) and Realistic Beliefs

Many previous studies stress the importance of promoting learners’ goal-orientedness and realistic beliefs so as to generate their initial motivation for learning English (e.g. Hadfield, 1992; Alison, 1993; Raffini, 1993; Oxford & Sherian, 1994; Wlodkowski, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b). Dörnyei (2001a, p. 125) has defined goal-orientedness as “the extent to which the group is attuned to pursuing its official goal.” Hadfield (1992) has highlighted the significance of enhancing learners’ goal-orientedness by declaring that it is fundamental for a group to work successfully to have a sense of direction and common purpose. Dörnyei (2001b) asserts that research has repeatedly found that in an ordinary classroom many, if not most, students do not understand or accept why they are involved in a learning activity. He adds that the official class goal set by external factors, such as a teacher or curriculum makers, may not the only group goal or even not the group goal at all. Goal ambiguity and goal conflict reveals the need for an agreement on a specific common goal for learning. Dörnyei (2001b) clarifies that teachers would win half the motivation battle if the class group can agree on a common purpose and sense of direction. Dörnyei recommends setting a composite group goal that comprises individual
goals (e.g. passing exams, having fun, etc.) in addition to institutional constrains (i.e. the fixed course syllabus), and success criteria (task completion, marks, etc.).

Goal-setting has been found to be a powerful way to enhance students’ goal-orientatedness and consequently their motivation to learn. Wlodkowski (1999) proposes that goal-setting increases learners’ expectancy of success and their self-efficacy. He argues that this approach allows learners to become aware of what they need in order to succeed and to evaluate and plan to avoid the obstacles that may prevent success. Raffini (1993) claims that goal-setting strategies help students to experience the sense of autonomy and self-determination. He adds that these strategies allow students to establish individual performance standards based on their own current skill and achievement levels, which makes it possible for concentrated effort to lead to genuine feelings of success. These strategies can be practically useful in the field of L2 even with reluctant and demotivated students who have no reasonable goals associated with language learning (Alison, 1993).

One useful way in setting learning goals is to help students pursue specific and short-term goals for completing tasks and to avoid the contrary situation (i.e. pursuing vague and general goals). Dörnyei (2001b) states that setting specific and short-term goals is of particular importance in learning a subject such as an L2 where acquiring a minimum knowledge may take several years. He proposes that goal-setting allows teachers to look at the tasks from the learners’ point of view and create an immediate learning goal that is valid in their eyes. Oxford and Sherian (1994, p. 19) also emphasises the significance of goal-setting in learning an L2 by stating that “goal setting can have exceptional importance in stimulating L2 learning motivation, and it is therefore shocking that so little time and energy are spent in the L2 classroom on goal setting.” Encouraging students to set clear, short-term, and realistic learning goals for themselves, negotiating learning goals with students and outlining a specific class goal for learning English in collaboration with them, and displaying the class goal on a wall chart and reviewing it regularly have been found to be useful techniques in setting learning goals.

Goal setting is also a useful way that allows students to develop realistic beliefs and expectations about learning (Wlodkowski, 1999). Dörnyei (2001b) has mentioned that the endless list of incorrect beliefs that most learners have about learning an L2 (e.g. how much progress to expect and how fast one can master an L2) can become real barriers to
the mastery of the language. Dörnyei, on the other hand, asserts that false learners’
beliefs can function as ‘time bombs’ at the beginning of a language course and
recommends they be sorted out and tackled early in the course. Some of the suggestions
Dörnyei offers include explaining to students the difficulty of language learning, the
realistic rate of progress students can expect, what is required from a learner to be
successful, and some ways by which languages are best learned (e.g. how to achieve the
language learning goals with the skills and knowledge at hand).

2.7.2.4 Relating Language Learning to Learners’ Needs and Goals

This is another important strategy for generating students’ initial motivation. Keller
(1983) has defined relevance as “the students’ perception that instruction is related to
personal needs or goals.” Keller argues that helping students understand that the subject
content is related to their personal needs or goals is an important way that arouses their
curiosity and sustains their interest and would be in turn the first step in motivating them
to learn. Burden (2000) states that the content of subject will be more relevant to students
if the teacher relates it to the students’ personal experiences and needs and to prior
knowledge.

Dörnyei (2001b) states that one of the most demotivating factors for learners is when
they have to learn something that they see as of no relevance to their lives. He points out
that much of the motivational advice offered to teachers in the educational literature
concerns this general principal consists of the suggestion to “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,” (p. 63). Dörnyei, however, indicates that the ready-made
curriculum provided to students at schools and the special emphasis on achievement
standards in such atmospheres are obstacles that stand against the personalisation of the
curriculum content. The solution, then, is to try to make the content of the curriculum
motivating by relating the subject content to students’ everyday experiences and
backgrounds. A useful way to do so, according to Dörnyei, is to ask students to imagine
how a particular theme from the course book could be transferred to locations and
situations associated with their own life experiences. Furthermore, Dörnyei proposes that
connecting the topic of learning with things that students already found interesting or
hold in esteem is an effective way to raise interest in tasks. He argues that personalising
learning tasks is a technique for making learning stimulating and enjoyable. Dörnyei
adds that the content of many stilted course book tasks can be made stimulating by relating the content of these tasks to the learners own lives. This will be discussed further in section 2.7.3.1.

2.7.3 Maintaining and Protecting Motivation

This category of strategies concerns maintaining students’ motivation and involves making learning stimulating and enjoyable, presenting motivating tasks, protecting learners’ self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, allowing learners to maintain a positive social image, promoting cooperative learning, and enhancing learners’ autonomy.

2.7.3.1 Making Learning Stimulating and Enjoyable

There is no doubt that the significance of this strategy is well emphasised in many different fields like psychology and education. Raffini (1993) has argued that it seems reasonable to conclude that all students seek fun and enjoyment in school activities. According to his point of view, when students are asked to describe the teachers in whose classes they are motivated to work their hardest, they invariably describe teachers who are excited about their content and find ways to make the learning interesting and enjoyable.

Breaking the routine of the classroom by varying learning tasks and the presentation format, and making learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements have been found to be important strategies for making learning stimulating and enjoyable. Ames (1992) has encouraged teachers to design tasks for novelty, variety, diversity, and students’ interest claiming that tasks that involve variety and diversity are more likely to facilitate an interest in learning. Dörnyei (2001a) highlights the importance of this approach proposing that it is the best-known motivational dimension of classroom teaching. He adds that “many practitioners would simply equate the adjective ‘motivation’ with ‘interesting,” (p. 129). According to him, among the suggestions that have been made in literature on how to promote intrinsic enjoyment in learning tasks are varying tasks and including challenging and novel elements that are relevant to the learners’ natural interests. Burden (2000) hypothesises that as effective as a strategy may be, students will lose their interest if it is used too often or too routinely.
Burden recommends that teachers should vary their techniques over time and ascertain that something about each task is new to students or at least different from what they have previously been doing.

Actively involving students in learning activities is another way to present them with enjoyable learning. Dörnyei (2001b) states that people usually enjoy a task if they play an essential part in it. He clarifies that this is very clear in the discussions that occur in classrooms, which are usually recognised as interesting by those who take part in it and boring by those who do not. Dörnyei proposes that in order to make learning stimulating and enjoyable, teachers are supposed to create learning situations where learners are required to become active participants. Raffini (1993) claims that findings ways to get students actively involved in the learning process is probably a powerful strategy for fostering students’ motivation to learn. He asserts that “when students’ minds or bodies are dynamically engaged in the construction of meaning and in the integration of ideas and skills, they become active participants in learning, rather than mere observers,” (p.245).

2.7.3.2 Diminishing Learners’ Anxiety and Building up Their Self-Confidence

Reducing students’ anxiety and building up their self-confidence is a very important strategy for maintaining and protecting their motivation. Second language researchers and theorists have long been aware that anxiety is often associated with language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986). Dörnyei (1996) has claimed that linguistic self-confidence comprises language anxiety, which is, according to him, a central component in the personal dimension of motivation. Clément and associates (1994) propose that anxiety is the affective component of self-confidence, while self-evaluation of proficiency is the cognitive component. In Gardner’s ATMB test of motivation, language anxiety is measured by the French class anxiety and French use anxiety scales. In Clément’s (1980) model of second language proficiency, second language use anxiety was subsumed by the concept of self-confidence. Clément and Kruidenier (1985) retested this model and reported some relationships between anxiety and both self-confidence and motivation. They found that language anxiety clustered again in defining the concept of self-confidence, which supports the findings proposed in Clément’s (1980) model. They also came up with the same finding as reported in 1980 that self-confidence is a determinant of second language motivation. Maclntyre (1999) mentions
that language anxiety has been recognised in the literature as a key factor that reduces motivation and achievement. Brophy (1998) identifies some sources of anxiety that take place within the learning environment. He proposes that most children come to schools with enthusiasm but when they begin to be accountable for some practices, such as responding to their teachers’ questions, completing their assignments, taking tests, when they feel that their performances are monitored, graded, and reported to their parents, they may find it anxiety-provoking and psychologically threatening.

Oxford and Shearin (1994) argue that teachers can make the L2 classroom a welcoming and positive place where learners’ psychological needs are met and where language anxiety is kept to a minimum. They list some techniques by which teachers can reduce students’ anxiety and foster greater psychological security by noticing signs of anxiety in their behaviours, developing a nonthreatening classroom climate, using emotional checklists for student self-awareness, showing students how to use self-encouragement techniques, avoiding sarcasm and sharp criticism, using praise well, and developing peer support networks. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2001b, p. 92) highlights that it is important that teachers turn language classrooms into an “anxiety-free zone.” In order to achieve such an environment, he suggests that teachers remove anxiety-provoking factors and provide warm and supportive climate in classrooms. He further suggests that teachers should avoid generating social comparisons between students, that they should involve students in cooperative rather than competitive learning activities, and accept students’ mistakes as natural concomitants of learning.

Horwitz and colleagues (1986) argue that as long as foreign language learning takes place in a formal school setting where evaluation is inextricably tied to performance, anxiety is likely to continue to flourish. They propose that in order to deal with anxious students, educators can help those students learn to cope with the existing anxiety-provoking situation, or they can make the learning context less stressful.

It is crucial therefore to diminish language anxiety by eliminating the anxiety-promoting elements in the learning environment. In addition to the techniques proposed earlier, this can be achieved through the designing of tasks that are within the boundaries of students’ ability, and helping students maintain a positive social image while engaged in learning.
tasks through avoiding them threatening acts such as humiliating criticism or being put in the spotlight unexpectedly (Dörnyei, 2001b).

As discussed in section 2.3.2.2.4.1, self-confidence is an important dimension of self-concept and a major component of L2 motivation. Good and Brophy (1994) point out that it is important to maintain and increase students’ self-confidence and self-esteem in such a context as the language classroom where it is widely acknowledged that many anxiety-inducing and threatening factors for the learner occur. Consistent encouragements to students, like drawing their attention to the fact that the teacher believes in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed, is an important strategy in promoting learners’ self-confidence. Another way to build up students’ self-confidence is by involving them in situations in which they can demonstrate their strengths and consequently improve their social images in front of their peers.

2.7.3.3 Promoting Learners’ Autonomy

Some researchers claim that schools are not the best places to exercise autonomy because of the little opportunity education usually offer to learners in terms of experiencing autonomy in the practice of learning (Good & Brophy, 1994; Benson, 2000). Researchers attribute this to the fact that students are often required to come for instruction in a prescribed curriculum and sometimes engaged in pre-selected activities that they have not selected on their own. Despite such a claim, Good and Brophy (1994) believe that there are still some opportunities for teachers to support students’ autonomy by allowing them to select activities according to their own interests. Littlewood (1999) has made an important distinction between two types of learner’s autonomy (proactive vs. reactive). According to him, proactive autonomy is the form of autonomy that enables learners to take charge of their own learning, determine their objectives, select methods and techniques for learning, and evaluate what has been acquired. Reactive autonomy, on the other hand, is the kind of autonomy which does not create its own direction but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organise their resources autonomously in order to reach their goals.

Brophy (2004) proposes that autonomy-supporting teachers promote learners’ intrinsic motivation by understanding their perspectives, supporting their initiatives, creating
opportunities for choice, being encouraging rather than demanding or directive, and allowing students to work in their own way.

Nakata (2006) has proposed two approaches that a teacher in a teacher-centred classroom may take to develop learners’ autonomy. The first is an explicit approach whereby the teacher discusses the question of responsibility with the learners and suggests how they might start to take the initiative in their learning activities. The other is an implicit approach by which the teacher ensures that the learning activities in the classroom, such as using the target language and the freedom of choice, provide opportunities for learner’s autonomy to flourish.

An excellent way to support students' autonomy and consequently increase their L2 motivation is through promoting their self-motivating capacity. Ushioda (1996) claims that a fundamental question about motivating students seems no longer to be concerned with how we can motivate our learners, but rather how can we help learners to motivate themselves? This can be achieved by raising students' knowledge of relevant ways by which they can adopt, develop, and apply self-motivating strategies for learning the foreign language.

Giving students the chance for self-assessment is another strategy that can be utilised for enhancing students’ autonomy. It is well-known that self-assessment raises students’ awareness about their mistakes and successes and gives them a concrete sense of participation in the learning process (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Among the other strategies that can also be used to enhance learners’ autonomy is encouraging students’ contribution and peer teaching. Dörnyei (2001b) proposes, based on a personal experience, that learners are very resourceful about finding ways to convey new materials to their peers. He recommends that teachers should hand over as much as they can of teaching leadership to the learners.

### 2.7.4 Encouraging Positive Self-Evaluation

The fourth dimension of motivational strategies deals with encouraging learners’ positive self-evaluation by promoting their motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learners’ satisfaction, and offering rewards in a motivating manner.
2.7.4.1 Promoting Learners’ Motivational Attributions

In psychology, the term *attributions* refers to the justifications people offer about why they succeeded or failed in the past (Dörnyei, 2001b). As mentioned in section 2.3.1.2.1.1.1, Graham (1994) has summarised that students typically attribute their successes and failures in terms of *ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, family background,* and *help or hindrance from others.* Other studies designate *lack of information* and *lack of strategy knowledge* as other causes of attributions. Both success and failure attributions are classified according to whether the attributed causes are internal or external to the person, controllable or uncontrollable by the person, and stable or unstable across situations (Brophy, 2004). Some of the factors identified by Graham (1994) such as *lack of ability* can be classified as stable/uncontrollable causes, while others like *insufficient effort* are unstable/controllable factors.

*Ability* and *effort* are well-known attributional explanations relevant to the unsuccessful performance in the study of a foreign language. Their subsequent effect on students’ motivation in such a procedure is, however, completely different. According to Brophy (2004), the failures attributed to controllable factors, such as insufficient effort provide a basis for believing that performance can be improved and success can be achieved in contrast to the attributions made to external and uncontrollable factors such as, for example an inexperienced teacher, which would provide less basis for confidence in improved performance and consequent success. It is worse yet, according to him, if students attribute their failure to the internal causes of low ability especially if they view this cause as stable and uncontrollable. Galloway and associates (1998) support this conclusion by stating that if children believe they have failed on a task due to lack of ability, their motivation to attempt the same task again is likely to be low. They add that if teachers believe that children have failed due to lack of ability, their motivation to encourage children to continue working on similar tasks is likely to be low too. One way teachers can avoid ability attributions by learners is to provide them with a sufficient chance to succeed as proposed by Raffini (1993) when he states that “students should never be allowed to fail at tasks until they have a reasonable chance to succeed. If they do, they have no choice but to attribute their failure to lack of ability and therefore stop trying,” (p.107). Teachers should also encourage students’ effort attributions rather than ability attributions. Dörnyei (2001b) claims that if teachers can make students believe
that higher levels of effort in general offer a possibility for success, they will persist in spite of the inevitable failures that usually accompany learning.

### 2.7.4.2 Providing Learners with Motivational Feedback

Providing students with positive feedback and appraisal about their performance is another way to enhance their positive motivational self-evaluation. Behavioural psychologists were the first to recognise the motivational power of feedback (Williams & Burden, 1997). Ford (1992) argues that “without feedback, motivational headquarters is effectively shut off from action,” (p.210). Dörnyei (2001b) goes in line with this clarifying that “when there is no feedback, it is easy for goals, including the important learning goals, to lose salience and priority, and eventually end up ‘on the shelf’,” (p.123). Pintrich and Schucnk (2002) believe that teachers who tell students they are performing well or give corrective information help substantiate students’ self-efficacy for learning.

Chambers (1999) has argued that teachers can give their feedback on both stable and unstable causes of learning like the students’ efforts and abilities to learn. He indicates that the serious problem in manipulating teachers’ feedback to students lies, however, in deciding what feedback to give. Brophy and Good (1986) identify two types of feedback: 

- **Informational feedback**, which comments on progress and competence of learners, and
- **controlling feedback**, which judges performance against external standards. Jones and Jones (1995) explain that it is the former that should be dominant from a motivational point of view as it enables students to understand where they are in relation to achieving goals and what they need to do to continue or improve their progress. On the other hand, Reid (2007) identifies three types of feedback: 
  - **monitoring feedback** (monitoring students’ progress and providing comments on what has been achieved and what still to be achieved),
  - **constructive feedback** (giving regular positive feedback on students’ progress), and
  - **negative feedback** (when the main purpose of feedback is to assess students’ work). Reid believes that the **constructive feedback** is the one that should be seen as a method for motivation. Dörnyei (2001b) terms the feedback that involves positive, descriptive feedback regarding students’ strengths, achievements, progress and attitudes as the **positive information feedback**. He emphasises that this kind of feedback is effective from a motivational point of view as it provides students with information...
rather than judgements against external standards or peer achievement, which is, according to him, the main feature of controlling feedback.

On the contrary, there are other types of feedback that teachers can run the risk of demotivating students if used them. Graham (1994) believes that communicating pity after failure and offering praise after success in easy tasks are examples of such types of feedback. The teachers’ attributional feedback that follows students’ failures is of big concern to students’ motivation. Brophy (2004) gives some guidelines for providing feedback in such situations. He proposes that unless the failures are clearly due to lack of effort, teachers should attribute them to lack of information or strategy knowledge but not to lack of ability. Similarly, Chambers (1999) clarifies that the teacher’s feedback can be destructive if attributed the poor progress of a learner to his or her low ability to learn.

2.7.4.3 Increasing Learners’ Satisfaction

There is a general assumption that the feeling of satisfaction is a significant factor in reinforcing achievement behaviour, which makes this factor a major component of motivation (Dörnyei, 2001a). Such importance is well-acknowledged in many different studies like that of Burden (2000) who states that enabling students to feel satisfied with their learning outcomes is an important part for motivating them to learn. This can be done, according to him, by drawing attention to successes students have experienced and by helping students to recognise their efforts and improvements over time.

Beside attention, relevance, and confidence, satisfaction is one of four key motivational components presented in Keller’s (1983) prominent model of motivational design. In a later publication (Keller, 2000), he hypothesises that satisfaction is about the positive feelings about one’s accomplishments and learning experiences. He adds that the use of intrinsically motivating consequences/outcomes such as recognition of achievement and evidences of success, as well as extrinsically motivating consequences, such as grades, certificates, or tangible rewards, can ensure that learners have positive feelings about their performance and that they continue to value the given activity. Raffini (1993) emphasises that regardless of task outcome, hard work and concentrated efforts of students need to be appreciated and reinforced.
Praise, which is a positive type of feedback that expresses approval or commendation (Pintrich & Schucnk, 2002), is one of the best ways for teachers to recognise their students’ efforts and celebrate their victory. Brophy (1981) argues that praise goes beyond simple feedback in the way it conveys positive teacher affect and provides information about the worth of students’ behaviours. Raffini (1993) proposes that short notes or comments on papers is a way of celebrating students’ success and can be especially valuable for recognising the accomplishments of all students. Dörnyei (2001b) advises that teachers should monitor their students’ progress in order to make sure that the students’ personal milestones do not go unnoticed.

Pintrich and Schunck (2002) advise that teachers should combine providing students with feedback and praise when assisting them in performing tasks in order to make such assistance motivating. They explain that providing corrective feedback to students as a kind of help to progress will make students observe that they are progressing which raises their self-efficacy and motivates them to continue to improve. Similarly, teachers may also praise correct performance while assisting students by using some expressions and comments that raise efficacy and motivation like: “You are doing a great job,” “I am sure that you can do this,” etc.

Larrivee (2002) explains that there are some downsides to praise and shows that even when praise is intended as a rewarding tool for students’ achievement by teachers, some students will not perceive it that way. Another problem with praise is with the kind of achievement to which it should be attached. Brophy (2004) has emphasised that students may find it embarrassing to be singled out, humiliating to be praised for some minor accomplishments, or irritating to have classmates’ attention called to their neatness, punctuality, or conformity behaviours rather than to more clearly noteworthy achievements. Brophy argues that effective praise expresses appreciation for the learners’ efforts or admiration for their accomplishments in ways that call attention to their efforts and achievements rather than to their role in pleasing the teacher. He adds that the teacher may express such praise as a part of a “celebration” of what students have learned or accomplished. Caffyn (1989) also clarifies that many students appreciate private praise more than public praise.
The importance of rewards as extrinsically motivating consequences in promoting students’ satisfaction about learning has been highlighted in earlier research (e.g. Keller, 1983; Dörnyei, 2001a; Brophy, 2004). Dörnyei (2001a) proposes that despite the fact that teachers regularly dispense various rewards to their students for good behaviour and academic performance, the effectiveness of rewards has been a controversial issue among educational psychologists. Brophy (2004) theorises that the appropriate use of rewards requires attention to the nature of the rewards, the ways in which they are introduced, and the student outcomes under consideration. He adds that it is important that teachers know when and how to dispense rewards effectively, to ensure that their rewards have only positive and not mixed or even negative effects. Despite the big disagreement in the literature over the effects of rewards on learners’ motivation, Dörnyei clarifies that physical rewards can become powerful motivational tools if dispensed in motivational ways. One of the ways that Dörnyei suggests is to offer rewards for involving students in complex activities that require long engagement, creativity, and considerable efforts on the students’ part.

Grades have also been found to be a significant extrinsic outcome for increasing students’ satisfaction. Covington (1992) has proposed that grades motivate students differently. He explains that good grades are apt to motivate those learners who need motivating the least but tend to demotivate those who need motivating the most. Covington and Teel (1996) argue that schoolchildren frequently equate grades with a sense of self-worth as they consider themselves as worthy only when their school-related achievements are worthy. Some concerns about using grades have been voiced in the literature. Covington (1999) articulates that the problem with grades is that they focus students’ attention on performance outcomes such as high test scores rather than on the process of learning itself. According to him, this may result in many students being grade-driven and this preoccupation begins surprisingly early in life. Dörnyei (2001b) states that grades may encourage cheating since learners may be under extreme pressure to live up to the set standards. Another vital concern with grades is the criteria on which they can be awarded. Dörnyei asserted that grades often reflect the teachers’ perception of a student compliance or good behaviour rather than academic merit. The lack of standardised assessment techniques to measure competence of learners in different fields is another example of the subjectivity of grades distribution in some situations. In his framework of motivational strategies, Dörnyei (2001b) presents a list of proposed
strategies for teachers to deal with the problem of grades. Among such strategies is making sure that grades reflect the real effort and improvement of students in which Dörnyei emphasises that grades should reflect the students’ relative improvements rather than only their standard of achievement as compared to some external criterion.
Figure 12: The Components of Motivational L2 Teaching Practice

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

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

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

Motivational L2 teaching practice

Maintaining and protecting motivation
- Making learning stimulating
- 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
- Promoting cooperation among the learners
- Creating learner autonomy
- Promoting self-motivating learner strategies
2.8 L2 Motivation Studies Conducted in the Saudi EFL Context

The role of L2 motivation in learning foreign languages in Saudi Arabia has not been extensively studied due to the scarcity of empirical investigations focusing on the role of this affective variable in that context. Nevertheless, there are a few studies have tried to study different L2 motivation aspects in Saudi Arabia.

Al-Shammary (1984) has empirically investigated the role of motivation in the learning of English as a foreign language in intermediate and secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. He constructed a questionnaire survey of 44 items to estimate, compare, and explore the development of motivation to learn English as a foreign language among 600 EFL learners in six grade levels (grades 7-12) in different Saudi intermediate and secondary schools. Al-Shammary found that Saudi students’ overall motivation to learn English as a foreign language was generally moderately high. Al-Shammary’s findings showed that grade level affected students’ motivation to learn as motivation went from its highest level in the first three weeks of grade 7 to its lowest level by the beginning of grade 8. He noticed that motivation moved higher up again in higher levels and peaked by grade 10 and then declined in grades 11 and 12. Al-Shammary attributed the high motivation in grade 10 to a more realistic motivation to learn English that was based on a recognised need for it at that grade and recommended a further investigation for the decline that took place in stages 11 and 12.

Arishi (1984) examined the EFL teachers’ behaviours in EFL classes in Saudi Arabia. Arishi’s study was designed to analyse teacher-student interaction in actual EFL classes in Saudi Arabia in order to develop an objective systematic analysis of teachers’ behaviour in these classes. A 25-category observation instrument was constructed to conduct a 20-minute observation of the interaction of 30 Saudi EFL instructors teaching English in intermediate schools in the districts of Jizan and Jeddah with their students. In fact, Arishi drew attention to many EFL teachers’ motivational behaviours that are usually overlooked in Saudi EFL classes. He noticed that the teacher praise and encouragement expressions were mainly short and of the same kind (e.g. “Good,” “Very good,” etc.). Arishi noticed that teachers did not relate the content of learning to the students’ personal lives outside class. He added that students were rarely asked to bring in their own ideas or to create original responses in the target language. Moreover,
students’ participation and their chances to use the target language were generally limited and restricted. Arishi highlighted some of the misbehaviours that EFL teachers practiced in their classes. He maintained that teachers criticised their students’ responses regularly. According to him, they tended also to correct students’ errors immediately whenever they attempted to communicate in the target language. Arishi explained that those teachers completely neglected emphasising any part of the target language culture in their classes. They also used their Arabic mother language regularly to interact with students.

Among the recommendations provided by Arishi to improve EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia were using different methods for teaching English, making use of a variety of praise expressions, providing students with maximum opportunities for participation, using the students’ mother language in necessary situations only, and involving teachers in pre-service and in-service EFL teaching training programs.

Al-Amr (1998) has acknowledged that there are a number of valid reasons why instrumental motivation would be much more relevant in the Saudi EFL setting than integrative motivation, not least because the second language is being learned away from the target language speakers and their culture (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). This proposition is congruent with what other sources (e.g. Lukmani, 1972; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Ellis, 1994) claimed that instrumental motivation seems to be more important than integrative motivation in some non-Westernised contexts where learners have little contact with the target-language culture and its members.

Al-Hazemi (2000) has argued that the desire to learn English should arise from within the learners themselves: ideally learners should have a strong desire to attain a high level of competence in the target language, and actively seek the strategies/techniques that will best suit them to accomplish their learning objectives; however, Al-Hazemi provided no suggestions on how to develop specific strategies that would enable us to make use of the learners’ existing reserves of motivation or enhance them further.

Al-Otaibi (2004) conducted an empirical study in Saudi Arabia to identify the relationship between the use of language learning strategies and some affective variables like gender and motivation. In order to identify the relationship between language
learning strategies use and motivation, he attempted to correlate the use of six selected learning strategies to three kinds of motivation: integrative, instrumental, and the effort to learn and desire to use the language. He found that the highly motivated participants used significantly more strategies than those who were moderately or less motivated. This finding was actually similar to that of Oxford and Shearin (1994) who have claimed that motivation strongly influences how often students use L2 learning strategies. Al-Otaibi’s study provided some other noteworthy findings. The responses obtained through the administration of a structured questionnaire involved, on average, relatively high values for both instrumental and integrative motivation, and at the same time relatively low values on questions tapping into the subjects’ desire to commit to effort-intensive activities in order to improve their second language competence or to engage in active use of the target language (inside or outside of the classroom). While such results can be interpreted in a variety of ways, the view taken here is that the latter types of responses may be more indicative than the former of the subjects’ genuine motivation for learning English (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). Despite the fact that this study seems to be the first of its kind in the Saudi EFL context to show that there was a strong correlation between the students’ degree of motivation and the language learning strategy use, it did not provide any information concerning how such a strong relationship can be interpreted into motivational strategies to promote students’ motivation in the language classroom. Rather, it recommended that teachers’ manuals or institutional memos should include sections on the role of motivation in language learning and the effects of the teacher on students’ motivation without offering any practical solutions of how that could happen.

AlMaiman (2005) conducted a study to examine the motivation to learn English as a foreign language of seventh-grade Saudi students. The endeavour of this study was to measure the levels of motivation of Saudi students to learn English before and after they were exposed to traditional English language instruction in a formal classroom setting and to address the changes that occurred in the levels of motivation after this exposure. The researcher adopted Gardner’s (1985) AMTB to design a 54-item questionnaire that was administrated twice to 301 seventh-grade students in Onaizah city, Saudi Arabia. AlMaiman claimed that his findings went in line with that of Al-Shammary (1984), Al-Ahaidib (1986), and Al-Arafaj (1996) in the way it found that the level of motivation of Saudi learners towards learning English as a foreign was at its highest in the beginning
of the seventh grade when they start learning English and it started to decline by the end of the first year of language learning. In fact, what those researchers have found at their first tests seems to be a kind of enthusiasm for learning the foreign language rather than real motivation. Brophy (1998) has pointed out to this when he said that most children come to schools with enthusiasm to learn but when they begin to be exposed to some anxiety-provoking practices such as responding to their teachers’ questions, completing their assignments, and taking tests —when they feel that their performances are monitored, graded, and reported to their parents, they may find it psychologically threatening and such enthusiasm is likely to decline. Gardner (2001c) went in line with this fact when he has clarified that when students first enter the language class, they are often very excited, enthusiastic, and motivated by dreams of being able to speak the language in few weeks. According to him, when they become aware of the demands that will be placed on them, the feelings of enthusiasm do not last very long. Gardner adds that this case was observed by EFL teachers in Japan who have reported that the high degree of enthusiasm their students initially have about learning English usually disappears before the end of the first year. AlMaiman also found that after 32 weeks of language learning, there was a significant negative change in learners’ motivation level. He noticed a decline in the post-test mean scores of all the motivational variables examined in his study: integrative motivation, parental encouragement, instrumental motivation, attitudes towards the learning situation, motivational intensity, desire to learn English, and attitudes towards learning English.

Alrabai (2007) conducted an empirical study in Saudi Arabia to collect, via a structured questionnaire, data in relation to the levels and types of motivation in a random sample of Saudi learners of English as a foreign language. Alrabai reported his findings stating that the most striking aspect of the findings derived through the survey was in the overwhelmingly positive nature of participants’ responses. He clarified that such results could be taken as indicator of very high levels of motivation in Saudi EFL learners but such an interpretation of the results would be, according to him, too simplistic, and is quite likely to be inaccurate as assuming high levels of motivation in Saudi EFL learners would be in contradiction with their generally low level of foreign language achievement, and would not bring investigators any closer to understanding the roots of the problem of the relative lack of EFL success in Saudi Arabia.
Alrabai rationalised the highly positive responses of his study participants to two reasons. He referred this phenomenon in the first place to the well-recognised fact in the field of psychology that most people seem to be more inclined to respond positively, rather than negatively, to survey items, which may in part be reflective of a fairly strong inherent desire in people to get approval (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). The second reason, according to Alrabai, might be that the highly positive responses may reflect an essentially positive attitudes of Saudis to learn English as a foreign language but not necessarily an indication of high foreign language motivation on the part of those learners.

The results of Alrabai’s study generally supported the view that instrumental motivation plays a more prominent role in foreign language contexts than the integrative type, which seems more relevant to second language contexts. This finding particularly was similar to what Al-Amr (1998) has come up with in the same context and it is in line with many assumptions in the literature (e.g. Ellis, 1994) that instrumental motivation appears to be much more powerful than integrative motivation in some specific contexts where learners have little or no interest in the target-language culture and few or no opportunities to interact with its members.

Alrabai concluded that while results from his study may not necessarily be interpreted as demonstrating high levels of motivation in Saudi EFL learners, such results seem to indicate quite strongly that Saudis possess fairly substantial ‘dormant’ reserves of motivation, which in more favorable conditions could be deployed to produce better EFL learning outcomes (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). The use of motivational strategies in EFL classes was, however, not explored in Alrabai’s study.
Chapter 3
Methodology of the Research

3.1 Overview
This chapter reports on the empirical investigations by which primary data were collected for this research to accomplish its stated objectives. It outlines how the experimental study was conducted over two different stages to collect experimental data from both teachers and learners of English in Saudi Arabia to explore the influence of using motivational strategies in English language classrooms on learners’ motivation in that context. In relation to this, the chapter presents detailed information with regard to the nature of the sample of subjects recruited and how this research developed and made use of a variety of quantitative and qualitative methodologies over the two different stages. The chapter then presents the procedures the research undertook to recruit participants for this study. Finally, some details on how the analyses of the sets of the collected data were carried out are also briefly presented.

3.2 Empirical Study
Due to the fact that existing studies on L2 motivation in the Saudi context have not provided any practical implications on how to enhance the learners’ motivation in the actual classroom setting, this project conducted an empirical study over two different periods of time. At the first stage, the study examined the importance that EFL teachers in Saudi institutions attach to using some selected motivational strategies and came up with the ten strategies that the participating teachers perceived as the most important to be used in the Saudi EFL classes to promote students’ motivation. At the second stage of data collection, the study investigated the actual practical effectiveness of these strategies in promoting the Saudi EFL learners’ motivation, assessed the motivational practices of EFL teachers in classrooms, and tested how the use of motivational strategies can link such practices to students’ motivation.
3.2.1 Empirical Investigation at the First Stage

The main goal of the empirical investigation at this stage was to establish which motivational strategies that EFL teachers in Saudi Arabian institutions perceive as the most important to be used in the Saudi EFL classes for the purpose of enhancing their students’ motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

3.2.1.1 Participants

In this stage, volunteer male and female EFL teachers who teach English in various educational institutions in Saudi Arabia were recruited. The participating teachers represented wide differences of age, qualifications, teaching experiences, and regional background. The initial total number of subjects involved in the main study was 133. 14 participants (10.5%) returned the survey with either incomplete or invalid responses and they were excluded from the statistical analyses. The total final number of participants at this stage was 119 (89.5%). The gender distribution of the final sample of participants can be seen in Table 1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age of subjects ranged between 20 and over 50 as shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Age range (yrs.)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>40-50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Over 50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participating teachers were the holders of a variety of qualifications: 75 participants (63%) were BA holders constituting the highest percentage with regard to qualification,
33 participants (27.7%) were MA holders, 7 participants (5.9%) were PhD holders, and 4 participants were the holders of other qualifications like Diploma, MPhil, etc., forming the lowest percentage (3.4%) of the sample.

Participants represented different EFL teaching experiences as shown in Table 3.

*Table 3: EFL teaching experience of participants at the first stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>EFL teaching experience (yrs.)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Over 15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants involved in this study were English instructors at institutions of different educational levels in Saudi Arabia. The statistics of these institutions are represented in Chart 1 below:

*Chart 1: School level of participants at the first stage*

Participants in this study came from different regional backgrounds in Saudi Arabia as can be seen in Table 4. The highest percentage of participants came from the western region (38.7%) while the lowest percentage (2.5%) was from the northern region. This very low percentage is attributed to the low available contact the researcher had with
EFL teachers in that region as well as the low number of proposed participants who confirmed their willingness to participate in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Capital city (Riyadh)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Eastern region</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Western region</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Northern region</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Southern region</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.1.2 The Instrument

This investigation used a questionnaire survey (see Appendix A) by which a sample of 119 EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia were asked to rate a number of 55 motivational strategies in terms of how important they consider these strategies to be used in motivating learners in the language classroom. This instrument adopted some of the strategies that were used in the studies of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary, Dörnyei (2001a), Dörnyei (2001b), Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan, and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in South Korea.

There were many reasons for why our study consulted these studies and adopted most of their strategies. The first reason was that the research on motivational strategies is a novel area of L2 motivation research and thus the empirical investigations focusing on the use of such strategies are still scarce, with the exception of the few up-to-date previously mentioned studies. Another reason for adopting the strategies of these studies was that they were tested and evaluated in different EFL learning contexts (Hungary, Taiwan, and South Korea). The third reason was that they were proposed, tested, and evaluated by many well-known researchers in the field of L2 motivation, especially by Zoltán Dörnyei, who is regarded as the leading researcher in this field at present, in addition to many other well-known researchers like Graham Crookes, Richard Schmidt, Rebecca Oxford, Jill Shearin, and Kata Csizér.
3.2.1.2.1 Selection of Variables

The selection of the 55 micro strategies that came out in the initial version of this instrument was based on the assumption that these strategies seem to be of considerable positive effect on the learners’ motivation if implemented appropriately in the language classrooms. In addition, they seemed to be transferable across diverse cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts and might fit in the Saudi EFL context. Ease of implementation in the language classroom was also taken into account in the selection of the strategies.

These strategies were clustered under the following variables/macro strategies:

- Items/strategies 1-7 measured “teacher behaviour”:
  - Showing students the teacher’s enthusiasm and interest in the English language.
  - Showing students that the teacher cares about their progress.
  - Being mentally and physically available to respond to students’ academic needs in the classroom.
  - Showing students that the teacher accepts and cares about them.
  - Paying close attention to students’ personal needs.
  - Listening carefully to each one of students.
  - Keeping students’ parents informed about their progress.

- Items/strategies 8-10 measured “pleasant classroom atmosphere”:
  - Supporting students to feel comfortable taking risks in class and not to criticise them when they make mistakes.
  - Encouraging humour in the language classroom.
  - Encouraging learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste.

- Items/strategies 11-15 measured “group cohesiveness and norms”:
  - Encouraging students to interact and share personal experiences and thoughts.
  - Encouraging cooperative learning by dividing students into small groups and letting them work towards the same goal.
  - Encouraging extracurricular activities and outings in which students can learn the language more socially and collaboratively.
• Explaining the class rules to students and the consequences of violating these rules.
• Allowing students to suggest other class rules and discussing the suggested rules with them.

• Items/strategies 16-20 measured “L2 related values”:
  • Increasing the amount of English the teacher uses in the language classroom.
  • Encouraging students to use English outside the classroom.
  • Bringing various L2 cultural products like magazines and video recordings to the classroom to familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language.
  • Encouraging students to discover interesting information about the foreign language and the foreign community via the internet.
  • Reminding students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language.

• Items/strategies 21-25 measured “learners’ expectancy of success”:
  • Preparing students sufficiently before taking learning tasks.
  • Explaining clearly to students the goal of each learning task at the beginning of each lesson.
  • Guiding and assisting students to succeed in performing learning tasks.
  • Making the criteria of success public and clear to students.
  • Showing students examples of success through real past successful students or video tapes.

• Items/strategies 26-29 measured “learners’ goals and beliefs”:
  • Encouraging students to set clear, short-term, and realistic learning goals for themselves.
  • Negotiating with students their learning goals and outlining with them a specific class goal for learning English.
  • Displaying the class goal on a wall chart and reviewing it regularly.
  • Helping students to develop realistic beliefs about English learning.

• Items/strategies 30 & 31 measured “relevance of learning to the learners’ needs”:
  • Finding out the students’ needs, goals, and interests and building them into the teaching curriculum.
• Relating the subject content and learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of students.

• Items/strategies 32-35 measured “stimulating learning”:
  • Breaking the routine of the classroom by varying learning tasks and the presentation format.
  • Making learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them.
  • Making learning tasks a bit challenging.
  • Selecting tasks that require involvement from each student.

• Items/strategies 36 & 37 measured “motivating learning”:
  • Giving clear instructions to students.
  • Raising students’ expectations of the learning tasks outcomes.

• Items / strategies 38-45 & 55 measured “diminishing learners’ anxiety and promoting their self-confidence”:
  • Providing students with positive feedback and appraisal about their performance.
  • Designing tasks that are within the limits of students’ ability.
  • Drawing students’ attention to the fact that the teacher believes in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed.
  • Avoiding making social comparisons between students such as comparing the performance of two students or the public announcement of grades.
  • Promoting cooperation between students instead of competition.
  • Helping students to accept the fact that making errors is a part of any learning environment and that making errors leads to success.
  • Teaching students learning strategies and asking them to decide on selected strategies by which they will learn better.
  • Avoiding students face-threatening acts such as humiliating criticism or putting them in the spotlight unexpectedly.
  • Encouraging students to attribute their failure experience when learning English to the lack of sufficient effort or bad luck rather than to their low ability.

• Items/strategies 46-50 measured “promoting learners’ autonomy”:
  • Adopting the role of a facilitator.
• Encouraging students’ contribution and peer teaching.
• Giving students the chance to assess themselves sometimes.
• Encouraging students to adopt, develop, and apply self-motivating strategies for learning English.
• Involving students in designing and running the English course.

• Items/strategies 51-54 measured “recognising learners’ efforts and achievement”:
  • Recognizing students’ effort and achievements.
  • Monitoring students’ progress and celebrating their success.
  • Offering rewards for involving students in complex activities that require long engagement and creativity on the students’ part.
  • Making sure that grades reflect the real effort and improvement of students.

The participating teachers were asked to rate, based on their past experience, each questionnaire item/strategy on a five-point Likert scale ranging from Very important to Not important in terms of how important they consider the use of each strategy for the purpose of enhancing their students’ motivation to learn English as a foreign language. The options that were given to participants to rate strategies on were assigned numerical values ranging from (0) to (4) as follows:

**Very important = 4**
**Somewhat important = 3**
**Of little importance = 2**
**Not important = 1**
**Uncertain = 0**

As this study was more concerned with identifying how important EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia perceive some motivational strategies rather than with assessing their attitudes towards the actual use they make or planning to make of these strategies, the researcher decided to list all the strategies in this survey in a positive format, as exactly all the previous studies did. For this reason, there were no negatively worded items in the survey and all the items were assigned the same set of values as mentioned before.
3.2.1.3 Procedures

3.2.1.3.1 Piloting

Prior to commencing the research project an ethics clearance to conduct a fieldwork research in Saudi Arabia was obtained in February 2008 from the University of Newcastle, Australia (HREC Approval No. H-680-0208). The pilot study took place during the period 15/02/2008 – 01/04/2008. The questionnaire was initially administrated to 15 participants but only 10 participants returned the survey. Those participants were the holders of a variety of qualifications and taught at different educational levels: 3 were BA holders at the school level, 1 was an MA holder at the school level, 3 were MA holders at the university level, and 4 were PhD holders at the university level. Their age rate ranged from 30 to above 50.

Respondents in the pilot study provided a lot of recommendations and suggestions. Some participants recommended omitting item # 7, which relates to keeping students’ parents informed about their progress. They regarded this item as inapplicable to the Saudi educational setting (especially at the university level.) Other participants recommended omitting item # 46: ‘Adopt the role of a facilitator’, for the same reason.

Some participants recommended translating the teachers’ questionnaire into Arabic (the mother tongue of most of English teachers in Saudi Arabia) due to the fact that the majority of those teachers are non-native speakers of English and not totally fluent in English. Despite the fact that our questionnaire was to be administrated only to teachers of English believed to have a solid competence in English, we decided to translate the questionnaire into Arabic (see Appendix B) to eliminate even the slightest risk that foreign language competence would be a barrier for some participants. Other participants recommended rewording some items (e.g. item 13) and some of these items were reworded accordingly in the final version of the questionnaire.

3.2.1.3.2 Reliability of the Instrument

The internal consistency test of all the scales in the survey came up with a relatively good result. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the whole items as one scale was .79. After excluding items 7 and 46, as recommended by most of participants in the pilot
study, the coefficient rose to .81, which is considered a good enough reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale after we grouped the survey items under the 12 variables/clusters was .66. After excluding items 7 and 46, this coefficient rose to .68. This score is moderately low but due to the nature of this research as well as to the complexity of the process that requires measuring many variables in a single scale of a reasonable length (i.e. not too long), this reliability index can be considered acceptable. Dörnyei (2001a) has provided some guidelines for internal consistency clarifying that “L2 motivation researchers typically want to measure many different motivational areas in one questionnaire, and for that reason they cannot use very long scales (or the completion of the questionnaire would take several hours), which necessarily depresses the alpha coefficient. However, even with short scales of three or four items we should aim at reliability coefficients in excess of 0.70, and if the Cronbach alpha of a scale does not reach 0.60, this should sound warning bells,” (p. 204). Item analysis was conducted after the reliability test confirming the need to exclude items 7 and 46, as they would decrease the alpha value of the whole scale and the clusters of variables under which they were originally grouped, if included. These two items were consequently excluded from the questionnaire survey that was administrated to participants in the main study. Further reliability tests were also conducted for the data collected in the main study.

3.2.1.3.3 Recruitment of Participants

Prior to recruiting participants for the main study, the researcher extended formal invitations to the principals and the deans of many schools and colleges located in different parts in Saudi Arabia asking them to grant permission to teachers from their institutions to participate in this study. The anticipated participating teachers were also extended formal invitations together with information statements about the objectives of the study and the ways in which it would be conducted. Only those teachers who had been granted their principals’ approval to take part in the study and at the same time gave their own consent to participate were included. The main study commenced in late April 2008.

Since it was a major goal of this study to recruit as many participants as possible at this stage, the researcher decided to use “snowball sampling,” which, according to Dörnyei (2001a) involves a ‘chain reaction’ whereby the researcher identifies a few people who
meet the criteria of the particular study and then asks these participants to identify further members of the population.

On the day of the questionnaire administration, recruitment started by visiting participants at their educational institutions. Participants were again provided with information about the study as well as instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. At the same time, they were reminded of the fact that their participation in this study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time without having to give a reason. Before completing the questionnaire, respondents were requested to fill out some demographic information about each participant like gender, age, teaching experience, regional background, etc. They were assured that the information they provided in this sheet as well as in the questionnaire paper would be treated very confidentially and would not be disclosed under any circumstances. They were then given both the two versions of the questionnaire (the English version and the translated Arabic version) and were asked to respond to either of the two. Participants were given the choice as either to complete the questionnaire at their institutions immediately after they received it or to take it home and deliver it, post it, or email it to the researcher. For those who preferred to go ahead and complete the questionnaire immediately after they received it, it took them from 30-45 minutes to finish responding to the questionnaire. For those who decide not to respond to the questionnaire on the day of distribution, they were given a couple of days as a deadline to return the questionnaire to the researcher or the person from whom they received it. Each respondent was asked to return the completed questionnaire in a sealed envelope already provided with the questionnaire.

3.2.2 Empirical Investigation at the Second Stage

The key objective of the investigation at this stage was to establish whether implementing some motivational strategies in the Saudi EFL classrooms would bring about a positive change in the learners’ motivational levels. The research protocol involved two groups of Saudi EFL learners: an experimental group that was exposed to a number of the pre-selected motivational strategies in the classroom, and a control group whose EFL instruction did not involve the use of such strategies. Motivational surveys were conducted before and after the experimental period, with the anticipation that the post-survey would show an increase in motivation for the learners in the experimental, but not the control group.
3.2.2.1 Participants

The main sampling criterion for the study at this stage was to generate as much diversity as possible in terms of school level, the teachers’ age, qualification, and teaching experience, the learners’ age, learning experience, and social and regional backgrounds.

A summary of the details of participating institutions, teachers, and students is given in the tables and charts below.

3.2.2.1.1 The Participating Institutions

A total of seven educational institutions participated in the research project at this stage. These institutions were located in three parts in Saudi Arabia as follows: two high schools and two university colleges were located in the capital city (Riyadh), one university college and a technical institution were in the southern region in Saudi Arabia, and another technical institution was in the western region. These institutions were initially randomly selected by the researcher and then subjected to three conditions in order to be finally involved in the project: the formal permission of the principals of these institutions for the study to take part at their institutions, the approval of at least one English teacher from each institution for himself and his students to be involved in the study, and the consent of the students of the consenting teacher(s) to participate in the study. All the institutions that participated in the final study had satisfied all these conditions.

3.2.2.1.2 The Participating Teachers

The total number of EFL teachers who took part in this study was fourteen. Seven of those teachers (50%) were involved in the experimental groups implementing our research strategies. The other 7 teachers (50%) were involved with the control groups following their traditional method of teaching. Some other statistics about the participating teachers in this study are presented in Table 5 and Chart 2 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BA(s)</th>
<th>MA(s)</th>
<th>PhD(s)</th>
<th>Total number of participating teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Qualifications of participating teachers at the second stage
3.2.2.1.3 The Participating Students

The participating students were Saudi EFL learners of different ages, different regional backgrounds (rural and urban), different levels of study (schools/universities), and of different levels of English proficiency (beginner, intermediate, and advanced). All students spoke Arabic as their first language. Participants were recruited at their educational institutions during the usual class time. Some data about the total number of participating students is provided in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Number of participating students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of participants at both phases (1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; and 2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;)</th>
<th>Total number of Excluded participants</th>
<th>Final number of participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>315</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some participants were excluded from the final sample for a variety of reasons as presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Reasons for excluding some participating students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absent at the 1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; phase</th>
<th>Absent at the 2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; phase</th>
<th>Incomplete responses</th>
<th>Invalid responses</th>
<th>Total number of excluded participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Learner groups were divided equally on two different groups as shown in Table 8.

**Table 8: Learner groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of Experimental groups</th>
<th>Total number of Control groups</th>
<th>Total number of learner groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 %</td>
<td>50 %</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participating students were divided on these groups as shown in Table 9.

**Table 9: Distribution of learners in learner groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total number of participants in the experimental groups</th>
<th>Total number of participants in the control groups</th>
<th>Total number of participants in the study groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>153</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52 %</td>
<td>48 %</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows the distribution of participating students by their groups.

**Table 10: Distribution of participating students by groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.2 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.1 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20.9 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All the participating students at this stage were males as shown in Table 11.

**Table 11: Gender of participating students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency/ Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age of students ranged from 12 to over 25 years as shown in Table 12.

**Table 12: Age of participating students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age range (yrs.)</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-18</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants represented different levels of EFL learning experience as Table 13 shows.

**Table 13: EFL learning experience of participating students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EFL learning experience (yrs.)</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>80.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participating students represented different levels of study (see Table 14).

**Table 14: School level of participating students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School level</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students came from three different regional backgrounds as shown in Table 15.

**Table 15: Regional distribution of students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital city</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western region</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern region</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.2.2.2 Research Protocol

As the goal of the study at this stage was to assess the teachers’ motivational teaching practices as well as the learners’ motivated behaviours and to try to find a link between such practices and behaviours, this project used a mixed of quantitative and qualitative methodologies and developed a variety of instruments for this purpose as follows:

**3.2.2.2.1 The Teachers’ Appraisal**

The goal of the teachers’ investigation was to appraise the EFL teachers’ motivational practices to identify whether their utilisation of motivational strategies in their classes would influence such practices. This research project made use of the following instruments as to assess teachers’ practices:

**3.2.2.2.1.1 Teacher’s Classroom Observation Instrument**

This instrument (see Appendix K) comprised some observational variables that measured the teacher’s motivating behaviours in the classroom. These variables were mostly concerned with the teacher’s non-verbal immediacy behaviours, which is emphasised by many researchers as one of the most important of teacher’s behaviours that influence students’ motivation (e.g. Moore et al., 1996). The most popular of the teacher’s non-verbal immediacy behaviours assessed in the current study are discussed below with some positive and negative examples for such behaviours:
Body movement:
- The teacher moves around the classroom while teaching.
- The teacher gestures while talking to students.
- The teacher uses positive head nodding while talking to students.

Vocal expressions:
- The teacher uses a variety of vocal expressions (non-monotonous) when talking to students.
- The teacher uses monotonous/dull voice when talking to students.

Eye contact/Eye gaze:
- The teacher looks at the whole class while talking.
- The teacher looks at only individuals while talking.
- The teacher looks somewhere else (e.g. at the board or notes) while talking to the class.

Facial expressions:
- The teacher smiles at the whole class while talking.
- The teacher smiles at just individual students while talking.

Body position:
- The teacher has a relaxed body posture while talking to class.
- The teacher has a very tense body posture when talking to class.

Physical proximity:
- The teacher sits in a chair while teaching.
- The teacher uses appropriate touch when dealing with students.

Most of the variables in this scale were adopted, slightly modified from the Non-verbal Immediacy Measure (NIM) of Richmond and colleagues (1987) with the exception of ‘positive head-nodding’ variable which was added to this scale based on theoretical assumptions made by many studies like that of Andersen (1979), Andersen and Andersen (1982), and Pogue and AhYun (2006), who verified that the teacher’s head nods is one of the positive non-verbal immediacy behaviours that plays an important role
in increasing students’ motivation. The new variable ‘teacher looks at only individual students’ is the reverse of the variable ‘teacher looks at the whole class,’ which was originally adopted from the NIM. This new variable was developed and added to the “Teacher’s Classroom Observation Scale” specifically for the sample and the context of our study.

To assess these behaviours, the observer used a 5-point frequency scale ranging from Very often to Never. N/A was used in case it was inapplicable for the teacher to convey certain behaviour. This scale was assigned the following values:

- **Very often** = 4
- **Often** = 3
- **Occasionally** = 2
- **Rarely** = 1
- **Never** = 0

N/A was assigned the value 9 and was regarded as a discrete missing value so that the SPSS software did not include its values in computations.

The negatively worded statements in this scale, which represented negative non-immediacy behaviours like ‘teacher uses monotone/dull voice,’ ‘teacher looks at only individual students,’ ‘teacher looks somewhere else,’ ‘teacher smiles at only individual students,’ ‘teacher has a very tense body position,’ and ‘teacher sits in a chair’ were assigned the opposite set of values given to the positive statements.

**3.2.2.2.1.2 The Teacher’s Post-Lesson Evaluation Scale**

A 7-point rating scale was developed to provide a post hoc overall evaluation of other teacher’s motivational practices during an observed lesson. This instrument, as can be seen in Appendix L, comprised variables relating to the teacher’s teaching style, the teacher’s verbal immediacy, and the teacher’s credibility as follows:

**3.2.2.2.1.2.1 The Teacher’s Teaching Style**

This instrument attempted to evaluate some of the teacher’s motivational teaching behaviours like the following:
Focused/Task-oriented vs. Unfocused/wastes time:
- How effectively the teacher uses time.
- The extent to which he/she allows students to distract him/her away from the lesson.
- The extent to which the teacher’s actions are purposeful.

Increases students’ expectancy of success vs. Increases students’ expectancy of failure:
- The extent to which the teacher scaffolds tasks and provides adequate support so that students feel confident that they know what to do and how to do it.

Clear instructions and explanations vs. Confusing instructions and explanations:
- The extent to which the teacher provides clear and timely instructions and explanations.

Humorous teaching style:
- The teacher uses humour to lighten up the proceedings, and/or shows that he/she has a sense of humour and does not take all situations seriously.
- The teacher uses dry teaching style.

Creative, takes risks vs. Uncreative, does not take risks:
- The teacher uses novel and unfamiliar ways to design tasks and present them to students.
- The teacher brings illustrative materials to familiarise students with tasks.
- The teacher takes risks when presenting tasks.
- The teacher uses abstract ways to present tasks.
- The teacher feels cautious to take risks while teaching.

Promoting L2 values:
- The teacher promotes the students’ awareness of the practical values associated with learning English such as helping them in completing their studies at their school/college, getting a job in the future, earning extra money, etc.
- The teacher brings to the classroom some cultural products like books, magazines, video tapes, etc., that talk about the foreign language and its culture.
- The teacher invites some L2 speakers to class to talk about their life and their
culture.
• The teacher asks students to look for English-speaking friends to communicate with them.
• The teacher does all class activities in English.

Establishing relevance:
• The teacher identifies the interests, goals, hobbies and needs of students.
• The teacher emphasises the present worth of the course content.
• The teacher connects in-class learning activities with situations in students’ out-of-class real life.
• The teacher emphasises the usefulness of the subject content in students’ future life.

Promoting autonomy:
• The teacher gives choices to students about their learning (e.g. gives them many tasks to choose from or lets them choose the way(s) they prefer performing specific activities).
• The teacher gives students the choice to choose the teaching materials of their course.
• The teacher allows students to ask questions and to express their ideas and thoughts.
• The teacher involves students into discussions.

Arousing curiosity or attention:
• The teacher adds new, unexpected and unfamiliar elements to the learning activities.
• The teacher asks students to give predictions about what they will learn before starting the lesson.
• The teacher involves students in stimulating learning discussions.
• The teacher involves students in a game-like activity relating to the topic.
• The teacher tells students some stories and anecdotes about real people and events relevant to the lesson topic.
• The teacher does the unexpected occasionally.

Promoting cooperation:
• The teacher allows students to sit and work together on an assigned activity in pairs or groups.
• The teacher allows students to sit together after individual activity and compare their answers.
• The teacher allows students to discuss and negotiate their answers together.

**Giving challenging tasks:**
• The teacher engages students in an activity that presents an intellectual challenge (e.g., puzzle-like; problem-solving, to discover something, overcome obstacles, avoid traps, find hidden information, etc.)

**Giving tangible tasks:**
• The teacher engages students in tasks in which they work on the production of a physical task outcome (e.g., a poster, a video clip, a brochure, etc.)

Some of the variables used in this instrument to evaluate the teacher’s motivational teaching style as well as his/her verbal immediacy behaviours were adopted from similar items in the study of Guilloteaux (2007) but the majority of the items were designed specifically for this study.

### 3.2.2.2.1.2.2 The Teacher’s Verbal Immediacy Behaviours

This instrument attempted to assess some of the teacher’s verbal immediacy behaviours like the following:

**Praise:**
• The teacher verbally appreciates students’ efforts and achievements.
• The teacher gives students some private encouraging notes and comments on their written works.
• The teacher uses variety of phrases for praising students.
• The teacher uses ambiguous statements to praise students.

**Feedback:**
• The teacher gives positive information feedback to students.
• The teacher gives controlling feedback to students.
• The teacher criticises students when giving his feedback on their work.
Encouragements:
• The teacher tells students he/she believes they will succeed.
• The teacher tells students they are capable to succeed.
• The teacher uses encouraging statements to encourage students to learn.
• The teacher discourages students when they make mistakes.

3.2.2.2.3 The Teacher’s Credibility

Four sources of teachers’ credibility were examined in this study: competence, trustworthiness, goodwill, and dynamism. Some of the items used to examine these sources were adopted from McCroskey and Teven’s (1999) measurement of credibility. Other items were drawn from Knight’s (2006) model of teacher’s credibility as well as from the section that measures the learners’ attitudes toward the L2 teacher in Gardner’s (1985) AMTB.

These are the concepts that our study used to assess the teacher’s credibility:

- **Competence:** ‘Competent vs. Incompetent.’
- **Trustworthiness:** ‘Sincere vs. Insincere.’
- **Goodwill / Caring:** ‘Kind vs. Unkind,’ ‘Helpful vs. Unhelpful.’
- **Dynamism:** ‘Enthusiastic vs. Unenthusiastic,’ ‘Interested vs. Uninterested,’ ‘Confident vs. Hesitant,’ ‘Calm vs. Nervous,’ ‘Exciting style, vs. Dull style.’

The observer used the post-lesson evaluation tool immediately at the end of each observed class to give an overall evaluation of the teacher’s behaviour. The assessment was based on a 7-point semantic differential scale defined with bipolar adjectives at either end as we can see in this instrument in Appendix L. The rating scale was adopted with a slight modification from the scale used in Ding and Ng (2008).

3.2.2.1.3 Illustrative Implementation Guide

This advisory guide (see Appendix G) was used only by the teachers who taught in the experimental groups to assist them in implementing our motivational strategies in their classes. Specific techniques to implement the top ten micro motivational strategies that emerged from the empirical investigation at the first stage were provided in this guide. The guide was specifically designed for the purpose of the present study. We reviewed and synthesised leading textbooks on motivation, educational psychology, and
motivation in education (e.g. Woolfolk & Margetts, 2007; Pintrich & Schunck, 2002; Plax & Kearney, 1992; Malouff et al., 2008; etc.) to come up with some specific techniques that would facilitate the implementation of these motivational strategies. For this purpose, the advice of some of the top experts in the field of motivation in FL teaching, psychology, and education was also sought. The participating teachers themselves were given the chance to offer their own opinions and ideas in relation to the implementation of each strategy.

### 3.2.2.1.4 Motivational Strategies Use Checklist

Teachers in the experimental groups were equipped with this material to make sure that they were using the strategies regularly in their classes during the experiment period (March–June 2009). Each teacher was advised to use this checklist (see Appendix H) in the following way:

- Use “✓” every time he/she uses the strategy.
- Use “X” in case he/she did not use the strategy.
- Use “N/A” in case it was inapplicable to use the strategy.

### 3.2.2.2 The Learners’ Appraisal

The principal goal of learners’ appraisal was to evaluate whether the utilisation of some motivational techniques in the language classrooms had a positive effect on the learners’ motivated behaviours and their attitudes towards their L2 learning environment components: L2 teacher, the L2 course, the L2 group of learners, and themselves as L2 learners.

This part of the study utilised two different instruments as follows:

#### 3.2.2.2.1 Students’ Motivation Questionnaire

Brophy (1987) and Tremblay and associates (1995) elaborated that student motivation to learn can be conceptualised as either a trait or state orientation. Julkunen (2001) and Dörnyei (2002) clarified that both the situation-situation specific and general motives are components of students’ task motivation. Based on this, our survey targeted variables relating to students’ trait motivation for learning in general as well as their situation-specific motivational disposition for learning English language in particular; in addition
to their attitudes towards their English language teacher, English course, the group of learners in their English class, and themselves as learners of English. The English and Arabic versions of this instrument are provided in Appendices J and K.

3.2.2.2.1.1 Selection of Variables

The selection of the variables included in this measure was based on both theoretical knowledge and empirical conclusions presented in earlier research that authenticated such variables as valid and reliable measures of L2 motivation. Most of these variables were drawn from Dörnyei’s (1994) Model of L2 Motivation. As detailed in section 2.3.2.2.1, this model has practical characteristics such as basing its divisions on empirical research findings, the conformity of its three levels with the three basic constituents of the L2 learning process as well as the reflection they present for the three different dimensions of language. Furthermore, the motivational strategies that empirically tested in some studies including the current study were primarily introduced and designed based on this model. All these features were major rationales for choosing most of the variables of this model in particular to be tested in our experiment. The selection of these variables was also based on the proposition that such variables are relevant to the FL classroom applications (e.g. language anxiety, self-confidence, attitude towards EFL teacher, etc). They are accordingly expected to be affected by or respond to changes in L2 teachers’ instructional practices, which is more likely to draw meaningful inferences about the hypothesised link between the teacher’s motivational teaching practices and students’ motivation (Guilloteaux, 2007).

3.2.2.2.1.2 Instrument Development

This measurement was developed to examine the validity of different learners’ motivational components and was divided into three main parts as follows:

3.2.2.2.1.2.1 Part A: Variables Measuring the Learners’ Trait Motivation for Learning

This section of the questionnaire contained a number of statement-questions about learning in general. It was more interested in participants’ overall disposition to learning generally rather than on any specific subject. For this purpose, the variables that were adopted from previous research were rephrased to suit the goal of this part of the survey (testing learners’ trait motivation for learning in general). The motivational variables that this part of our measuring tool tested were the following:
• The learner’s need for achievement (5 items)
The five items used in this scale were developed to measure the learners’ tendency to approach achievement situations like perceiving learning as one of the most important things to them, their interest in excellence through executing their best efforts on doing learning tasks, and volunteering for difficult tasks in their classrooms. Two items in this scale were negatively keyed to test the negative tendency for some learners to approach such achievement situations. Items in this scale were originally adopted from Dörnyei (1990) and Clément and colleagues (1994). A high score on the items of this scale reflects a high level of need for achievement.

• Learning anxiety (5 items)
Our instrument used five items in this section to measure the learners’ general learning anxiety towards some activities that take place in their class such as answering a question from the teacher, explaining things to classmates, and asking their class teacher a question. They also tested the degree of anxiety learners experience towards making mistakes in the language classroom in fear of the embarrassment they may feel in front of their classmates. The only positively worded item in this scale was the one that conveys the learner’s confidence when speaking in front of his/her class.

Four of these items were initially drawn from the studies of Clément and associates (1994), Clément and Baker (2001), and Horwitz and colleagues (1986). The other item, “I feel anxious to ask my teacher a question,” was designed mainly to fit our study sample and context. A high score in this scale suggests a low level of learning anxiety.

• Learning self-efficacy (4 items)
The four items used to measure this variable in the survey were developed to assess the respondents’ general beliefs about their capabilities for learning. These beliefs included the confidence of doing well on learning tasks in class, mastering the difficult tasks if they try, getting better grades if they try harder, and doing well on the required work in class if they persist. These items were initially modelled after similar items from the studies of Pintrich and Groot (1990) and Guilloteaux (2007), but were considerably modified for our study. A high score in this scale represents high level of learning self-efficacy.
• **Learning causal attributions (6 items)**

The questionnaire survey made use of three positively worded items to evaluate the learners’ positive attributions, and three negatively worded items to test the learners’ negative attributions of their general learning experience. Four of these six items were modified after similar items presented in Schmidt and associates (1996). The other two items that stand for attributions relating to the teacher’s teaching style were newly designed for the purposes of this study. A high score on the items of this scale reports a high level of learning causal attributions.

• **Learning intrinsic motivation (8 items)**

This study’s survey employed eight items to test the participants’ general intrinsic motivation for learning. These items were developed to test the enjoyment and the challenge learners experience while engaged in learning tasks. The learners’ willingness to study somewhere else if he/she had not been studying at his/her current institution or to pursue further studies in the future after leaving these institutions was also tested in this scale. There was also one item that measured the learners’ innate desire to learn for learning’s sake and not just for passing exams. There were two negatively worded items that presented learning as a boring activity and the unwillingness to learn if there is no need to do so. Six of these items were drawn from previous studies like that of Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), Jacques (2001), AlMiman (2005), and Al-Shammary (1984). The other two items in this scale were designed specifically for the purposes of our study. A high score on each item in this scale represents a high level of intrinsic motivation for learning.

• **Learning extrinsic motivation (4 items)**

The four items used in this scale attempted to measure the learners’ general trend to learn for external inducements, such as the desire of being more educated than other people, to demonstrate their abilities to others, to please their parents, and to have a broader view than other people. These items were modelled on similar items in the study of Schmidt and colleagues (1996) in Egypt. A high score on this scale symbolises a high level of extrinsic motivation for learning.
3.2.2.2.1.2.2 Part B: Variables Measuring the Learners’ State Motivation for Learning English

This section of the questionnaire contained a number of statements about learning English. It was exclusively concerned with the present situation-specific motivation of learners towards learning English within their current institutions at the time of experiment. This section of the survey was developed to test the following motivational variables:

- **English class anxiety (5 items)**
  Items of this scale were designed to measure the learners’ current nervousness and apprehension towards some activities taking place in the English language class, such as using the foreign language and volunteering answers for the teacher’s questions. They also tested the degree of learners’ anxiety towards making mistakes in the language classroom and the associated embarrassment they may feel in front of their classmates. The scale also measured the degree of anxiety learners experience in English class compared with that in classes of other subjects. The five items used in this scale were adopted with some minor modification from the measurement of foreign language anxiety developed by Horwitz and associates (1986). A high score on this scale represents a low level of English class anxiety.

- **English language motivational intensity (6 items)**
  This scale measured learners’ effort at the time of experiment on the tasks of learning English both inside and outside the language classroom. This effort is manifested in class by paying close attention and participating in class activities, and outside class by doing home assignments and preparing for the coming lessons. This scale also included an item asking respondents about their overall assessment of the current effort they were expending in learning English. The six items used in this scale were partly modelled after similar items presented in Gardner and colleagues (1997) and Al-Shammary (1984). The two negative items used in this scale were originally adopted from Al-Shammary’s study but were negatively worded for the purposes of this study. A high score for each item on this scale represents current considerable effort exerted on learning English.
• **Self-efficacy for learning English (4 items)**

The purpose of the four items used in this scale was to evaluate the respondents’ beliefs about their capabilities as learners of English in terms of mastering the learning tasks they do in English class including the difficult ones and in getting good grades in English course. These items were adopted from the studies of Pintrich and Groot (1990) and Guilloteaux (2007). A high score for each item on this scale signifies current high level of learners’ self-efficacy for learning English.

• **Intrinsic motivation for learning English (8 items)**

This instrument involved eight items to measure the learners’ inherent aspiration to learn English as a foreign language. These items aimed to test the enjoyment and the challenge learners felt while engaged in learning English. The learners’ willingness and desire to study English somewhere else in case it were not required by their current institutions or to pursue further studies in English in the future after they had left their institutions was also tested in this scale. There was also one item that measures the learners’ innate desire to learn English for learning’s own sake. Two negatively worded items were used in this scale to convey the learners’ unwillingness to study English if it had not been required by their educational institution or their affiliatives (e.g. parents or teachers). Most of these items were modelled, with some modification, on similar items in the surveys of Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009), Jacques (2001), and Al-Shammary (1984). The negative item “I wouldn’t study English if I didn’t have to” was newly designed for our study. A high score for each item in this scale represents high level of learners’ state intrinsic motivation for learning English.

• **Extrinsic motivation for learning English (4 items)**

On this scale, the questionnaire survey utilised four items to explore the learners’ extrinsic desires for learning English as that to have more knowledge and education, to demonstrate their abilities to other people, to achieve the satisfaction and recognition of their parents, and to have a broader view than that of other people. The four items used here were adapted, with minor modification, from the study of Schmidt and associates (1996). A high score on this scale indicates a high level of extrinsic motivation for learning English.
• Motivational attributions for learning English (6 items)
The six items used in this survey to test the learners’ causal attributions for learning English were divided in two main subscales with three items on each. The first subscale comprised items concerning positive attributions for learning English while the other contained other items relating to some negative attributions. A single item in each subscale was employed to test one type of causal attributions such as ability and effort as internal factors and the teacher’s teaching style as an external attribution factor. The four items used in this scale to measure the internal attribution factors (ability and effort) were modelled on comparable items from preceding studies like Tremblay and Gardner (1995) and Schmidt and colleagues (1996). The two items that targeted the teacher’s teaching style as an external motivational attribution factor were originally created by our study. A high score on the items of this scale reports a high level of the two different types of causal attributions for learning English.

• Instrumental motivation for learning English (5 items)
The five items used in this scale were designed to measure the learners’ need to study English as a foreign language for pragmatic reasons like getting a job in the future, pursuing future studies in an English-speaking country, browsing online websites or chatting in English with people on the internet, travelling to countries where English is used, and passing English exams. These items were modelled on similar items used in the studies of Gardner (1985), Clément and Baker (2001), and AlMiman (2005). A high score on each item in this scale shows a high level of current instrumental need for learning English.

• Integrative motivation for learning English (5 items)
The current study made use of five items to test the learners’ integrative motivation to learn English as a foreign language in terms of their desire to know about the way of life of the target language community, to interact with the people who speak this language, to gain English-speaking friends, to understand and appreciate the English art and literature, and to be similar to the native speakers of English like the British or the Americans. These items were modelled, with a slight modification, on items used in the studies of Gardner (1985), Clément and Baker (2001), and Alshaar (1997). A high score on this scale items indicates a higher desire to learn English for integrative purposes.
Other specific orientations (1 item)

There were numerous suggestions from most of the reviewers of the pilot study to include an item in the questionnaire concerning the orientation for learning English for the purpose of calling the non-Muslim speakers of English to Islam. In light of these requests, the study designed an item for this purpose “Studying English is important to me because I want to call the Non-Muslim English speakers to Islam” and decided to treat it as a single-item orientation scale. A high score on this item represents a high level of this orientation.

The questionnaire items in parts A and B were rated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from Very untrue to Very true. The respondents’ responses were assigned the following values and a higher score was proposed to indicate a greater degree of motivation as follows:

Very untrue = 1
Untrue = 2
Somewhat untrue = 3
Neutral = 4
Somewhat true = 5
True = 6
Very true = 7

Items 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 27, 28, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 42, 43, 54, 55, 58, 79, 82, 84, 90, 92, 102, 104, 109, 113, 117, 119, 122, 126, and 131 in the questionnaire survey (see Appendix I) were negatively worded items and they were assigned the opposite values given to the positive items as follows: 7 = Very untrue, 6 = Untrue, 5 = Somewhat untrue, 4 = Neutral, 3 = Somewhat true, 2 = True, 1 = Very true.

3.2.2.2.1.2.3 Part C: Evaluation of L2 Learning Environment: L2 Teacher, L2 Course, L2 Group of Learners, and L2 Learner

Items in this part of the survey were employed to evaluate the students’ attitudes towards their current L2 teacher, L2 course, L2 group of learners, and themselves as current L2 learners. Participants rated each concept in this section based on a 7-point semantic differential scale that uses contrary adjectives at both ends. Positive evaluations were
assigned higher values and the rating ranged from 1 as the value of the worst evaluation to 7 as the value of best evaluation.

• Evaluation of L2 teacher (23 items)
In this section, respondents were asked to establish their impressions about some concepts relating to their English language teacher’s personality, competence, and teaching style. Most of these concepts were adopted from the AMTB of Gardner (1985) and the study of Clément and Baker (2001). Others were adapted after similar items in these two studies like ‘Clear vs. Confusing’ and ‘Creative vs. Uncreative.’ Some items were developed specifically for this study like ‘Nervous vs. Calm,’ ‘Confident vs. Hesitant,’ and ‘Democratic vs. Controlling.’ Higher scores on this scale represent a more positive evaluation for the EFL teacher.

• Evaluation of L2 course (7 items)
Participants in this section were requested to evaluate their current English language course in terms of its attractiveness, difficulty, and usefulness. The items in this scale were adopted from Gardner (1985). The concept used in this study ‘Attractive vs. Unattractive’ was developed after a similar item in Gardner’s study: ‘Interesting vs. Boring’. Higher scores on this scale represent more positive evaluation for the L2 course.

• Evaluation of L2 group of learners (11 items)
A significant way this study differs from previous studies is that other studies have assessed the group motivation in terms of the group cohesiveness, while our study has tested more and new group-specific motivational components like the group members’ personality: ‘Friendly vs. Unfriendly,’ ‘Respectful vs. Unresentful,’ ‘Considerate vs. Inconsiderate,’ and ‘Obedient vs. Disobedient,’ the group collaboration: ‘Cooperative vs. Uncooperative,’ ‘Reliable vs. Unreliable,’ and ‘Coherent vs. Incoherent,’ the group enthusiasm: ‘Ambitious vs. Unambitious,’ ‘Stimulated vs. Not stimulated,’ ‘Lazy vs. Hardworking,’ and ‘Competitive vs. Uncompetitive.’

This study was also the first to assess the learners’ group motivation using a semantic differential scale. Almost all earlier studies used a Likert scale design for this purpose. Although some of these studies’ items were used, they were appropriately modified in
our study. A high score on this scale represents more positive evaluation for the L2 group of learners.

• **Evaluation of L2 learner (15 items)**

This study also sought the learner’s evaluation of his/her current motivation to learn the foreign language. It tested some aspects of the learner’s state motivational dispositions in the language classroom like the following:

- **Self-confidence**: ‘Calm vs. Nervous,’ ‘Confident vs. Hesitant.’
- **Satisfaction**: ‘Satisfied vs. Dissatisfied.’
- **Autonomy**: ‘Autonomous vs. Controlled.’
- **Feelings in ‘real life’ learning**: ‘Focussed vs. Unfocused,’ ‘Organised vs. Disorganised,’ ‘Enlightened vs. Confused,’ ‘Cooperative vs. Uncooperative.’

The concepts on the enthusiasm/passion scale were modelled after the student state motivation measurement developed by Christophel (1990). The satisfaction concept was adopted from Clément and Baker (2001). This study expanded the learners’ motivational self-evaluation measurement by including other scales for this purpose like that of self-confidence, autonomy, and the scale we labelled as “Feelings in ‘real life’ learning.”

High scores on this scale represent high level of state motivation for L2 learning on the learner’s part.

**3.2.2.2.2 Students’ Classroom Observation Instrument**

This instrument attempted to provide assessment for some variables belonging to the learner’s motivated behaviour in the classroom such as the level of ‘attention’ they pay and the degree of their ‘participation’ in learning tasks inside the classroom. Goodman (1990) and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2009) have argued that motivated classroom behaviour can be seen in terms of active and passive academic reactions. Goodman (1990) examples both types of responses by stating that active academic responding involves practicing the academic task (e.g., answering a question, doing a problem,
reading a text); while passive responding includes general attending behaviour, such as listening to another child reading and watching another child doing a problem.

In the current study, “paying attention” concerns students’ passive motivational reaction in the classroom and tested the following observational behaviours: ‘following the teacher’s movements,’ ‘looking at relevant visual stimuli,’ ‘orienting at another participating student,’ ‘following the text being read,’ and ‘making appropriate non-verbal responses.’ ‘Displaying inattentive or disruptive behaviour’ was a negatively keyed item that was used in this scale as a sign of students losing attention. The “attention” variable was introduced in the Motivational Orientation to Language Teaching (MOLT) observation scheme designed by Guilloteaux (2007) and was adopted by our study.

The “participation” variable concerns students’ active motivational reaction in the classroom and incorporated the following observational behaviours: ‘answering questions from the teacher,’ ‘answering questions from other students,’ ‘putting questions to the teacher,’ ‘putting questions to other students,’ ‘making comments and giving opinions,’ ‘raising hand to participate,’ ‘working on an assigned activity,’ and ‘volunteering for participation.’ The item ‘work on an assigned activity’ was adopted from the study of Guilloteaux (2007). The other items of this variable were modelled after similar items in an online “Classroom Participation Strategies Guide” developed at Monash University by CALT Learning Support (2007).

The learners’ motivated behaviours in this instrument were assessed using a 5-point scale ranging from Most to None. N/A was used in case it was inapplicable to observe the behaviour. The rating scale was adopted from the revised version of William and Mary Classroom Observation Scales designed by Baska and colleagues (2003).

What follows is a description for the points that this instrument used to measure the learners’ motivated behaviours:

**Most** = more than 75% of learners were taking part in the observed behaviour.

**Many** = between 50% and 75% of participants were taking part in the observed behaviour.
Some = between 25% and 50% of participants were taking part in the observed behaviour.
Few = less than 25% of participants were taking part in the observed behaviour.
None = No students were taking part in the observed behaviour.
N/A = Observing the motivated behaviour was inapplicable.

These variables were assigned the following values:
Most = 4
Many = 3
Some = 2
Few = 1
None = 0
N/A was not included in computations.

The negatively keyed statement in this scale ‘Students display inattentive or disruptive behaviour’ was assigned the opposite set of values.

3.2.2.2.3 Procedures

3.2.2.2.3.1 Pre-Recruitment

During the period from December, 2008 to early March, 2009, the researcher extended a formal invitation to the principals and the deans of many educational institutions from different parts in Saudi Arabia explaining to them thoroughly the goals, methodology, and the expected outcomes of his study, in order to gain their permission to perform the study at their institutions. After a formal permission by some institutions was granted, the researcher started forwarding similar invitations for EFL teachers from these institutions asking them to take part in the study.

Before commencing to the actual project, the researcher explained to all teachers the objectives of his study and the ways it was going to be carried out. Those teachers who gave their approval to take part in the study were then provided with a “strategies implementation guide.” Each teacher was given the opportunity to read the implementation guide and to decide on whether to join an experimental group or a control one. Seven teachers confirmed their readiness to work in the experimental
groups. The other seven teachers were assigned to work in the control groups. It is noteworthy that the two cohorts of teachers in the experimental and control groups were matched along a range of variables, such as qualifications, experience, age, etc. This ensured that the only significant variable between the two groups was the implementation of the motivational strategies.

Teachers in the experimental groups were exposed to some training, at the beginning of the experiment on how to use the implementation guide to implement this project strategies. This training was done by the researcher himself using the implementation guide. The researcher kept in continuous contact with those teachers during the whole period of experiment to assure that the implementation of the study strategies was appropriate. Teachers in these groups were asked to refer to the implementation guide every time they taught their students and to reflect on their use of all or at least most of the ten strategies in each single lesson.

Participating students were forwarded an invitation to participate along with information statements that contained comprehensive details about all aspects of the research project, including the nature of the research, the research methodology, the research objectives, the ways they would be recruited, etc. The recruitment of all participants (students and teachers) was subjected to strict ethical considerations. Those students who decided to participate were asked to sign a consent form to confirm their agreement to participate. For under-age participants (under the age of 18), parental consent was also obtained.

Before administrating the questionnaire to students, the English version of the questionnaire was translated into the subjects’ Arabic mother tongue and they were asked to respond to the Arabic version in order to ensure that inadequate knowledge of English would not be a factor in the way participants provided their responses. To ensure accuracy of the translation, the questionnaire was reviewed by a professional English-Arabic translator, and was piloted on five native speakers of Arabic (three students and two teachers). Based on the feedback obtained from the native speakers, an extra item was added and some of the items were slightly modified.
3.2.2.3.2 Data Collection

At this stage, the data of the research were collected from EFL teachers and learners from various parts in Saudi Arabia.

The project was conducted over one semester during the period from mid-March, 2009 to early June, 2009. The actual experimental period was eight weeks with a short semester break for about two weeks. The study commenced in the third week of the term so as to make sure that students had enrolled at their institutions and started their actual classes. The study concluded three weeks prior to final exams so as to make sure that the arrangements for these exams would not affect the study and to avoid the course withdrawals that might occur at the end of the semester. Participants were recruited over two different phases during the study. Recruitment of participants in the first phase commenced before the actual experiment started. Recruiting participants in the second phase was conducted at the end of the last week of the experiment (week 8). Recruitment of participants took place inside their educational institutions during the normal time of classes.

The recruitment process of participants in the first phase started from the capital city of Saudi Arabia (Riyadh) and subsequently moved on to the southern region and concluded in the western region. The same procedure was followed during the second phase so as to make sure that participants in all groups were exposed to exactly the same amount of time of experiment (8 weeks). At both phases, the researcher arranged to recruit both the teacher and students on the same day. On the day of recruitment, the classroom observation for both teachers and students commenced first. During each observation session, the researcher sat at the back of the class in a position that gave him clear visibility of the teacher and students. He started by completing a demographic form that contained information about the observed teacher’s name, qualification, years of experience, etc., and information about students like their gender and total number. Other information about the school level and the skill to be observed was also included in the form. The whole period of teaching in Saudi classes varies from 40 to 50 minutes depending on the nature of courses, learners, and institutions but the actual tutoring time usually takes between 30 and 40 minutes. Based on this, the researcher conducted a 30-minute classroom observation in which he observed the behaviours of both the teachers
and the learners. In each session, he conducted three observations for each teacher and another three observations for participants (at the beginning of the actual lesson, 15 minutes after the first observation, and 15 minutes after the second observation).

At all three observational sessions, the researcher started by observing the teacher’s motivational teaching behaviours for three minutes in which he marked all the teacher’s observational variables listed in the observation instrument. He observed theses variables sequentially (one after another) starting with the teachers’ body movement, then the teacher’s voice expressions, before moving to the other variables and concluding with the teachers’ physical proximity. The observer recorded the frequency of each variable during the period it was observed.

After finishing the teacher’s observation at each session, the observer kept monitoring the teacher’s various teaching behaviours for four minutes so as to have a clear assessment for such behaviours when completing the teachers’ post-lesson overall evaluation form at the end of the lesson.

After the four minutes, the observer commenced observing the students’ motivated behaviours in class for three minutes and followed almost the same protocol as with the teacher. He observed the students’ observational variables consecutively starting with marking the attention learners give in their class and moved to observe their degree of participation. This time, the observer recorded the approximate percentage of participants who were observed as taking part in the activity at the time of observation. The same process was repeated during the second and the third observational sessions at both phases. The total number of observed minutes was nine minutes for the teacher and another nine minutes for students at each phase.

At the end of each observed class, the observer completed the post-lesson evaluation form that provided a post hoc overall evaluation of the teacher’s motivational teaching style, verbal immediacy, and credibility behaviours during the observed lesson. Completing this form took up to fifteen minutes.

The next experimental task that took place was the administration of the questionnaire survey to participating students. As the presence of the class teacher may affect students’
responses, especially in those parts where respondents were asked to give some evaluation for their language teacher, the researcher arranged to administer the questionnaire to students himself and in the absence of teachers or administrators. Before he administrated the questionnaire to students, students were again provided with information statements attached to the Arabic version of questionnaire paper and were advised to read the information carefully. They were reminded that this survey was not a test and that there was no right or wrong answer for any statement provided in it, and that the researcher was only interested in their immediate personal reaction to each item in the survey. They were asked to give honest responses and advised that all the responses and information they provided during this research project were entirely confidential and that no information would be disclosed to their teacher or any other person not included in the research team under any circumstances. Participants were informed that some statement-questions in the questionnaire survey might appear repetitive and were advised not to worry about that as it is a common feature of this type of research. Respondents were advised to ask the researcher to clarify anything unclear for them in the instructions before they started responding to the questionnaire items.

Before completing the questionnaire, respondents were asked to fill in a background information sheet to provide some demographic information about each participant like his/her sex, age, EFL learning experience, regional background, etc. Students were then provided with some information about the scope of part A in the questionnaire and how they could respond to the items in this part. Next, they were asked to start responding to the items of that part and to ask the researcher for help if needed. Most of the help requested by participants concerned the need for further explanations about some items in the survey. Those who finished responding to this part before the other participants were asked to allow the slow respondents to catch up. Participants were asked then to check and make sure they have responded to all the statements in this section and requested to proceed next to part B. They were provided with the same instructions in parts B and C and the same procedure as that in part A was followed. It took students 60 to 90 minutes to respond to the whole questionnaire. After having finished responding to the questionnaire, each respondent was asked to return the completed questionnaire to the researcher in a sealed envelope; the envelop was provided with the questionnaire.
3.3 Data Analysis: An Overview

The main goal of the data analysis procedure was to conduct specific statistical analyses that would enable the researcher to address the research questions and objectives. Preliminary analyses were conducted to check for out-of-range and missing values and for reliability. Explanatory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted after that on some scales in order to uncover the constructs’ underlying dimensions in these scales. The resulting factors were in turn retested for internal consistency and if the reliability coefficient was found to be adequate (.60 and above), combined scores were calculated for each factor. Once the reliability of the scales was established, indices of these scales were formed and were then screened for normality. These analyses were carried out using version 17 of PASW Statistics Software (formerly SPSS).

More details about these preliminary analyses as well as the procedures that were carried out in the main analyses will be presented and discussed in the following two chapters.
Chapter 4

Preliminary Analyses

4.1 Overview

The goal of the preliminary analyses was to screen our data to check the accuracy of the data entered in the data files as well as the reliability and normality of the clusters of variables tested in our surveys. The first step conducted in relation to this was looking for and amending the out-of-range and missing values provided by respondents. After that, the values of the negatively worded items provided in the surveys were reversed. Some preliminary statistical analyses such as the internal consistency Cronbach alpha, explanatory factor analysis (EFA), and normality tests were finally conducted. The first procedure conducted was a prerequisite reliability alpha Coefficient test to measure the internal consistency of the clusters of variables used in the surveys. Item analysis was performed next and based on the alpha coefficients and intercorrelations values among the items in each scale, indices were computed. For reliability test, we went in line with what has been suggested in literature (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001a) that indices with alphas of .60 and greater are considered reliable. We therefore used .60 as a cut-off value and regarded indices with such value as reliable and they were used in the main analyses. Conversely, indices with alphas of less than .60 were considered unreliable and they were excluded from subsequent analyses.

EFA was conducted in two steps. First, Varimax rotation was asked for. The assumption with Varimax is that the extracted factors are uncorrelated (see Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). If the results were found to be uninterpretable, Oblimin rotation was asked for as a second step. The assumption with Oblimin rotation is that the extracted factors are correlated (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Ideally, each item should load strongly ($r > .30$) on one factor only, and weakly ($r < .30$) on others. Based on what Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) have mentioned that L2 motivation studies typically detect meaningful correlations within the 0.3-0.5 range, we excluded items with an absolute correlation value under 0.3. Further, once an interpretable solution was found, the items loading on
each factor were subjected to scale reliability analysis (Cronbach alpha). If the alphas were larger than .60, indices were formed for the new variables.

The skewness and kurtosis values were used as indicators of the normality of the distribution of our data samples. Skewness has to do with the symmetry of the distribution (the mean of the particular variable is not in the centre of the distribution) while kurtosis has to do with the peakedness of distribution (distribution is rather too peaked with short and thick tails or too flat with long and thin tails (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The typical value of skewness and kurtosis in case of normal distribution is zero. When we got non-normally distributed data, sequence of transformations was performed. A square root transformation was tried first, but if the data remained non-normally distributed, a logarithmic transformation was attempted (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007 for an explanation of these procedures).

4.2 Preliminary Analyses on Teachers’ Questionnaire Data

In this section, the terms “scale(s)” and “cluster(s)” refer, where used, to the term “macro motivational strategy/strategies”. The data collected from participating EFL teachers on the importance of various strategies was submitted to a number of primary statistical analyses to make the dataset more manageable. The 53 micro strategies in our final survey were originally grouped under 12 macro strategies/clusters based on their content similarities. This initial grouping followed Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), Dörnyei (2001), and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). The clusters were then rank-ordered based on the participating teachers’ responses in descending order of the mean. The internal consistency of the 12 scales was tested by means of a reliability analysis (alpha). Item analysis test was conducted next revealing the need to discard items: 6 ‘pay attention to your students’ personal needs and listen carefully to each one of them,’ 8 ‘support students to feel comfortable taking risks and don’t criticize them when they make mistakes,’ 25 ‘show students examples of success through real past successful students or video tapes,’ 34 ‘make the learning tasks challenging,’ and 50 ‘involve students in designing and running the English course’ because they were found to decrease the alpha coefficient of their scales, if included. Table 50 in Appendix (C) includes some details about the initial rank order and some descriptive statistics of the macro strategies/scales and their constituent micro strategies based on their mean value (M) and standard deviation (SD). Scales with discarded items are marked with ^.
shows, some of the scales had alphas lower than .6, suggesting that they could not be reliable indicators of teacher’s perceptions. Therefore, we conducted EFA in order to explore the possibility that there could be an alternative grouping. Indeed, the results from the factor analysis suggested that some regrouping was necessary. For example, strategies 30 ‘find out your students’ needs, goals and interests and build them into the teaching curriculum’ and 31 ‘relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students,’ which were designed to measure the “relevance of learning to the learners’ needs” were loading with strategies 32 ‘break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format,’ 33 ‘make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them,’ and 35 ‘select tasks that require involvement from each student’ under “making learning stimulating and enjoyable” scale. These two strategies were significantly correlating with the micro strategies in this scale ($r > 0.3$) and thus increasing its alpha value ($\alpha = .62$).

Similarly, strategies 36 ‘give clear instructions to students’ and 37 ‘raise the students’ expectations of the task outcomes,’ which were drawn initially to measure the importance of “motivating learning” loaded successfully under the “increase learners’ expectancy of success” scale. They substantially increased the alpha score of this scale ($\alpha = .68$) and significantly correlated with its micro strategies 21, 22, 23, and 24 (see Table 16). These findings are not in contradiction with what theoretically these strategies are supposed to be doing. In other words, making learning relevant to the learners’ needs is an important motivational method for stimulating students’ curiosity and sustaining their enjoyment in learning (see Keller, 1983; Burden, 2000; Dörnyei, 2001b), and likewise giving clear instructions to students and raising their expectations of the learning outcomes are influential ways to promote learners’ expectancy of success (e.g. Wlodkowski, 1999; Burden, 2000; Brophy, 2004). These micro strategies were then grouped under the macro strategies/scales they had newly loaded on and we ran the reliability test again so as to make sure of the reliability of the new scales. Table 16 contains the alpha values of these scales. As the new scales were reliable, they were used in the subsequent analyses.
Table 16: Final rank order and descriptive statistics of the newly extracted macro strategies scales by subscales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Make learning stimulating and enjoyable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha = .62; M = 3.62; SD = .38$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 30. Find out your students’ needs, goals, and interests and build them into the teaching curriculum. |
| 31. Relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students. |
| 32. Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format. |
| 33. Make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them. |
| 35. Select tasks that require involvement from each student. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Increase learners’ expectancy of success</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha = .68; M = 3.55; SD = .43$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 21. Prepare students sufficiently before taking a learning task. |
| 22. Explain the goal of each learning task. |
| 23. Guide and assist students to succeed in performing learning tasks. |
| 24. Make the criteria of success public and clear to students. |
| 36. Give clear instructions to students. |
| 37. Raise the students’ expectations of the task outcomes. |

Note. $\alpha =$ Cronbach alpha coefficient, $M=$ Mean, $SD=$ Standard deviation

4.3 Preliminary Analyses on Students’ Questionnaire Data

A reliability test was conducted on the data of this instrument followed by item analysis test. The major goal of the item analysis was to establish reliable indices that comprised exactly the same constituent items in both the experimental and the control groups during both the pre-experiment test (T1) and the post-experiment test (T2). For this purpose, the items that seemed to affect the reliability and/or the correlations of the generated indices in most or all of the comparable groups were discarded. This was supposed to help us in making clear statements about whether each construct has changed over time in the different groups or not.

Because our study used the same survey with the same respondents at two different periods of time (T1 and T2), a test-retest reliability of the items underlying the survey
scales/constructs was performed next. As to get a more practical measure of the test-retest reliability, we ran the Pearson correlation coefficient on these constructs in order to establish the size and the direction (positive or negative) of the relationships among them.

Based on the cut-off value of .60, indices were computed for some motivation constructs in this survey. The Cronbach alpha ($\alpha$) and Pearson correlation ($r$) coefficients of these constructs for the whole sample and for the experimental (Exp.) and control (Cont.) participants at time 1 (T1) and time 2 (T2) are presented in Table 17 below. Indices with discarded items are marked with $^\wedge$. Other constructs like ‘need for achievement,’ ‘negative attributions for learning,’ ‘extrinsic motivation for learning,’ ‘extrinsic motivation for learning English,’ and ‘negative attributions for learning English’ were excluded from all subsequent analyses as they were found to be unreliable scales with alpha value under .60 for each.

Table 17: Reliability coefficients (alpha) and Pearson correlation coefficients for the motivation constructs of students’ questionnaire for the whole sample and for the experimental and control groups at T1 and T2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Whole Sample</th>
<th></th>
<th>Sample by condition</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T1$ ($\alpha$) = .86</td>
<td></td>
<td>$T2$ ($\alpha$) = .89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T1$ ($\alpha$) = .87</td>
<td></td>
<td>$T2$ ($\alpha$) = .85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T1$ ($\alpha$) = .84</td>
<td></td>
<td>$T2$ ($\alpha$) = .88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$T1$ ($\alpha$)</td>
<td>$T2$ ($\alpha$)</td>
<td>$r$</td>
<td>$T1$ ($\alpha$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning anxiety</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learning self-efficacy</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning $^\wedge$</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>English class anxiety</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>English motivational intensity</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>English self-efficacy</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning English</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning English $^\wedge$</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Instrumental motivation for learning English</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The next preliminary analysis conducted was EFA. Our chief goal of conducting this preparatory analysis was to identify a factor structure and compute aggregate indices that were invariant across T1 and T2 measurements for some constructs. For this reason, we ran an EFA separately for T1 and T2 data and compared the findings of the two tests in order to uncover the latent dimensions that underlay these constructs.

We first ran factor analysis for the Evaluation of English teacher scale at T1 for both Exp. and Cont. groups in order to identify the number of the factors that would emerge under this scale and the items that would load on each factor/construct. Table 18 shows the ‘factor loadings’ as they load on the newly extracted factors.

**Table 18: Pattern Matrix (Oblimin Rotation) of the factors underlying the “Evaluation of English teacher” construct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style and competence</td>
<td>Teacher’s personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>Competent vs. Incompetent</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.</td>
<td>Capable vs. Incapable</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td>Insincere vs. Sincere</td>
<td>-.012</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>Intelligent vs. Unintelligent</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>-.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>Friendly vs. Hostile</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
<td>Suspicious vs. Trusting</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83.</td>
<td>Helpful vs. Unhelpful</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84.</td>
<td>Strict vs. Lenient</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $\alpha =$ Cronbach alpha coefficient, $r =$ Pearson correlation coefficient, $^\wedge$ items were discarded from this construct due to low (<.30) item-total correlations.
The two factors were strongly correlated at 0.59 at T1, 0.83 at T2. They alone explained over 57% of the variability in respondents’ scores. The first factor explained 49.53% of variance. It got loadings from items such as 77, 78, 80, 81, 83, etc. (see Table 18). This factor was labelled “the teacher’s teaching style and competence.” We got alpha value for this scale \( \alpha = 0.96 \) and all items correlated at above 0.5 \( (rs > 0.5) \). The second factor \( (7.77 \% \text{ variance}) \) comprised variables such as 79, 82, 84, etc. This factor was labelled as “the teacher’s personality," \( (\alpha = 0.76, rs > 0.4) \).

The first extracted factor, “the teacher’s teaching style and competence,” was imposed on the T2 (Exp. and Cont) groups separately. The alpha value of both groups was very high: \( \alpha = 0.93 \) for Exp., .96 for Cont., \( rs > 0.4 \) in both groups. By imposing factor two, “the teacher’s personality” on the T2 groups, we noticed that the alpha value confirmed the reliability of these scales: \( \alpha = 0.61 \) for Exp., .82 for Cont., \( rs > 0.3 \) in the experimental group, and \( > 0.5 \) in the control groups. As the two resultant factors were reliable in all groups over T1 and T2, we computed indices for them in all the study groups.

The Evaluation of English course scale was submitted to factor analysis in T1 groups (Exp. and Cont.) and the initial solution extracted only one component. No underlying structure was found under this scale and all items measured only one factor.
Factor analysis was also conducted on *Evaluation of the EFL group of learners* scale in the groups at T1 (Exp. and Cont.) Two factor loadings emerged as we can see in Table 19.

**Table 19: Pattern Matrix (Oblimin Rotation) of the factors underlying the “Evaluation of the EFL group of learners” construct**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor 1 Collectivist</th>
<th>Factor 2 Individualist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>107.</td>
<td>Friendly vs. Unfriendly</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>-.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109.</td>
<td>Unreliable vs. Reliable</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>-.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110.</td>
<td>Ambitious vs. Unambitious</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111.</td>
<td>Stimulated vs. Not stimulated</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112.</td>
<td>Competitive vs. Uncompetitive</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114.</td>
<td>Respectful vs. Disrespectful</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115.</td>
<td>Obedient vs. Disobedient</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116.</td>
<td>Considerate vs. Inconsiderate</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>-.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117.</td>
<td>Coherent vs. Incoherent</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The factors explained 63.34% of the total variance and $r = 0.61$ at T1, 0.57 at T2. Factor 1 (50.17 % variance) attracted loadings from variables such as 107, 109, 114, etc (see Table 19 above). These items were found to form a reliable scale at T1 $\alpha=.83$, $rs >0.5$. This scale was labelled as “collectivist” to reflect the receptivity and adjustment of students within the same group to the needs of each other. The other factor, which explained 10.08 % of the variance, received loadings from variables 110, 111, and 112. The three items formed a reliable scale at T1 $\alpha=.85$, $rs >0.5$. This construct was labelled as “individualist” as to display the learner’s individual-oriented characteristics within his/her group (Yu & Yang, 1994). Items 108 ‘Cooperative vs. Uncooperative’ and 113 ‘Lazy vs. Hardworking’ were excluded from this construct as they almost equally loaded on the two extracted factors.

The extracted factors were imposed to the T2 groups (Exp. and Cont.) and the first factor “collectivist” was highly reliable in both groups ($\alpha=.81$ for Exp., .87 for Cont., $rs >0.5$ with the exception of item 109 in the Exp. group ($r =.42$)). For the second factor “individualist”, high alpha values were scored for both groups ($\alpha=.85$ for Exp., and .88
for Cont., $r_s > 0.5$ in both groups). As these two factors were reliable in all groups over T1 and T2, indices were computed for them.

The final reliability coefficients of the newly extracted motivational constructs as well as their Pearson correlations are presented in Table 20.

**Table 20: Reliability coefficients (alpha) and Pearson correlation coefficients of the newly extracted motivational constructs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Whole Sample</th>
<th>Sample by condition</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>T1 (α)</td>
<td>T2 (α)</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>T1 (α)</td>
<td>T2 (α)</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>T1 (α)</td>
<td>T2 (α)</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style and competence</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Teacher’s personality</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Collectivist</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Individualist</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. $\alpha =$ Cronbach alpha coefficient, $r =$ Pearson correlation coefficient

As a next step in the preliminary analyses, all the variables were screened for normality of the score distributions. The descriptive statistics of some constructs (e.g. ‘learning self-efficacy,’ ‘positive attributions for learning English,’ ‘instrumental motivation for learning English,’ etc.) showed that they were negatively skewed. To bring them back to normality we performed square root (sqr) transformation on the reversed variables and noticed that the skewness values have considerably improved. For example, the skewness statistics for ‘learning self-efficacy’ was successfully brought down from -1.03 to -.395, and from 1.03 to -.345 for ‘positive attributions for learning English.’ After running the square root transformation, variables were reversed again so that their interpretation was in line with the rest of the data. Some other constructs (e.g. ‘teacher’s personality’), however, remained non-normally distributed even after a square root transformation and therefore they were subjected to logarithmic transformation. This transformation succeeded in normalizing the variables. Table 51 in Appendix D includes some descriptive statistics like mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis for the motivation indices of students’ questionnaire at T1 and T2. The figures in that table
show that all variables used in analysis, some after undergoing transformations, were normally distributed.

**4.4 Preliminary Analyses on Teachers’ Classroom Observation Data**

The aim of the preliminary analyses in this part was to test the internal consistency of the behavioural indices of this instrument as one composite variable at T1 and T2. As we used this instrument to conduct three observations for each teacher at both T1 and T2 in each study group, we tested its internal consistency at each conducted observation (T1-1, T1-2, T1-3, T2-1, T2-2, and T2-3). Table 52 in Appendix E contains the Cronbach alpha and Pearson correlation coefficients for this construct at each observation/test conducted at T1 and T2. The 14 items in this construct represented some of the teachers’ non-verbal immediacy behaviours like ‘body movement,’ ‘vocal expressions,’ ‘eye contact,’ ‘facial expressions,’ ‘body position,’ and ‘physical proximity.’ Two items had to be discarded due to low item-total correlations, thus reducing the number of items from 14 to 12. The correlation coefficients (rs) of the remaining 12 items ranged between .3 and above .9 and alphas ranged between .86 and .94. Table 21 shows some statistics for the underlying dimensions of this construct. Indices with discarded items are marked with ^.

**Table 21: Reliability coefficients (alpha) for the underlying dimensions of the teachers’ classroom observation construct at T1 and T2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th></th>
<th>T2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>(α)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>(α)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Body movement</td>
<td>1.28 (.62)</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>1.46 (.84)</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Vocal expressions</td>
<td>2.73 (.64)</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>2.66 (.82)</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Eye contact ^</td>
<td>2.76 (.29)</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>2.80 (.13)</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Facial expressions ^</td>
<td>2.14 (.14)</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>2.20 (.24)</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Body position</td>
<td>3.02 (.32)</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>3.01 (.39)</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Physical proximity ^</td>
<td>2.25 (.56)</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>2.38 (.52)</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. α = Cronbach alpha coefficient, ^ items were discarded from this construct due to low (<.30) item-total correlations. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviation (SD)*
‘Eye contact’ and ‘body position’ variables were found to be non-normally distributed and they had to be transformed. The skewness values of these variables were successfully brought back to normality using the sqr transformation procedure. For example, the skewness value for the ‘body position’ variable was brought down from -1.23 to -.328 at T1, and from -1.58 to .763 at T2.

4.5 Preliminary Analyses on Students’ Classroom Observation Data

As we conducted the same number of observations for students as that done for teachers, the preliminary analyses for this construct were conducted in exactly the same way done for teachers’ observation. Internal consistency test of the whole scale reliability was performed first. Table 53 in Appendix F contains the Cronbach alpha coefficients and Pearson correlations for this construct at T1-1, T1-2, T1-3, T2-1, T2-2, and T2-3.

One item in this scale had to be discarded due to low item-total correlations, thus reducing the number of items from 14 to 13. The 13 indices were all highly reliable with alphas ranging between .87 and .93 and correlation coefficients ranging between .3 and more than .9.

As discussed in section 3.2.2.2.2.2, this construct was hypothesised to have two dimensions of students’ motivation in the classroom. One represented the students’ passive motivational reaction ‘attention’; the other represented their active motivational reaction ‘participation.’ The internal consistency of the two underlying dimensions of this construct was examined (see Table 22 below).

**Table 22: Reliability coefficients (alpha) for the underlying dimensions of the students’ classroom observation construct at T1 and T2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>(a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Attention ^</td>
<td>1.38 (.40)</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>1.10 (.43)</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. a = Cronbach alpha coefficient, ^ items were discarded from this construct due to low (<.30) item-total correlations. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviation (SD).*
The normality of distribution in this scale was checked next. The skewness and kurtosis values suggested that the data was normally distributed in all the underlying dimensions of this construct.

### 4.6 Preliminary Analyses on Teachers’ Post-Lesson Evaluation Data

This instrument was submitted to the same sequence of preliminary analyses conducted on the previous instruments. Internal consistency test was conducted first and all the theoretical underlying dimensions of this construct were found to be reliable. The Cronbach alphas of these motivation dimensions at T1 and T2 are presented in Table 23.

#### Table 23: Reliability coefficients (alpha) for the underlying dimensions of the teachers’ post-lesson evaluation construct at T1 and T2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>(α)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td>3.15 (.75)</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Teacher’s verbal immediacy</td>
<td>2.81 (1.48)</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td>3.91 (.80)</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. α = Cronbach alpha coefficient, ^ items were discarded due to low (<.30) item-total correlations. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviation (SD).*

The skewness and kurtosis values show that the data in all the underlying constructs of this scale was normally distributed.

### 4.7 Summary

Data for the present study was collected with the use of five instruments, namely: teachers’ questionnaire, students’ questionnaire, teachers’ classroom observation, students’ classroom observation, and teachers’ post-lesson evaluation. These are presented in their entirety in appendices A, J, L, and M respectively. The main purpose of the preliminary analyses was to test whether the data gathered with these five instruments could form reliable scales/indices. Cronbach alphas were used as indicators of internal consistency of scales and, Pearson correlations were used as indicators of test-retest reliability. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on selected scales in
order to uncover their underlying dimensions. Skewness and kurtosis were used as indicators of the normality of the distribution of scores in each construct. Based on the initial results some items had to be removed, others had to be regrouped. As the tables in the exposition above and in the appendices show, as a result of these procedures, the refined indices reached high levels of reliability.
Chapter 5
Main Analyses, Findings, and Discussion

5.1 Overview

This chapter presents a comprehensive description and discussion of the main statistical analyses that were conducted on the sets of data collected for the purposes of the current project. The data was submitted to a variety of statistical analyses that were tailored to answer the four research questions. The first of these questions attempted to identify the final rank order of the 10 clusters (macro) strategies and the top 10 individual micro motivational strategies. To answer this question, ‘mean’ and ‘standard deviation’ statistical analyses were computed. Since the other questions were concerned mainly with the effect of the experimental intervention on the various motivational variables and how that effect resulted in differences between the experimental and control groups, the majority of the analyses used to answer these questions involved analysis of variance (ANOVA) and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). ANOVA was used to explore the effects of condition (experimental group versus control group), time (time 1 versus time 2), and interaction of condition and time factors on the motivational variables. The aim of ANOVA analyses was to identify the differences that existed between the experimental and control groups before the experimental treatment, and to disclose the amount of significant change that occurred over time between the study groups on certain motivational variables. The ANCOVA was used to reveal the significant changes that occurred between the study groups as a result of our experimental intervention. Dörnyei (2007b) has elaborated on a significant feature of ANCOVA by stating that “a special case of ANCOVA [test] in quasi-experimental designs occurs when we compare the post-test scores of the control and the treatment groups while controlling for the pre-test scores as the covariate,” (p. 222). Dörnyei adds that if we find in such a case any significant difference between the post-test scores, those will be related to the events that took place after the pre-test because the pre-
existing differences of the two groups have been removed by controlling for the pre-test scores.

Although some of our analyses could be run in t-test domain, we ran them in ANOVA/ANCOVA domain so that we could always control for effect size or ‘strength of association.’ The partial eta squared ($\eta_p^2$) was used as an estimator of the effect size of the factors manipulated in this study. There is a huge disagreement in the literature over determining the effect size based on the partial eta squared values (i.e. how we can classify the size of a certain effect as a small, moderate or large based on the value of this coefficient). We noticed in many previous studies and statistical manuals (e.g. Clark-carter, 1997; Kinnear & Gray, 2004, 2008, 2010; and Pallant, 2005, 2007) that the effect size of partial eta squared was interpreted in the following way (e.g. by Cohen, 1988): 0.01 = small effect, 0.06 = moderate effect, and 0.14 = large effect. We followed the same way of interpretation for partial eta squared used in these studies to determine the effect size of the factors investigated in the current study.

In addition to the ANOVA/ANCOVA analyses, correlational analysis was performed to establish what relationship existed between variables.

5.2 1st Research Question (Q1)

Which macro and micro L2 motivational strategies do EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia perceive as the most important for enhancing students’ English language learning motivation in that context?

In this section and its subsections (5.2.1 and 5.2.2), terms like “scale(s)”, or “cluster(s)” refer, where used, to the term “macro motivational strategy/strategies”; and, at the same time, terms like “individual strategy/strategies”, “single strategy/strategies”, or “technique(s)” refer, where used, to the term “micro motivational strategy/strategies”. In order for us to answer the above research question the data of teachers’ questionnaire was subjected to mean and standard deviation analyses that were computed to obtain the final rank order of the 10 clusters/macro strategies and the rank order of the set of micro strategies under each cluster in order to identify the top 10 single motivational strategies.
Table 54* below shows the final rank order and the descriptive statistics of the 10 macro strategies/scales and the constituent micro strategies of each. Scales with discarded items are marked with ^.

Table 24*: Final rank order and descriptive statistics of the macro strategies/scales and their constituent single/micro strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro strategy/ Micro Strategies</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **1. Demonstrate proper teacher behaviour.**
   \(^\text{^}\)  
   \(^{M=3.74, \text{SD}=.31, \alpha=.51}\) |     |     |
| 3. Show students that you care about their progress. | 3.86 | .42 |
| 5. Show students that you accept and care about them. | 3.81 | .42 |
| 1. Show students your interest and dedication in English language and share that with them. | 3.80 | .53 |
| **4. Be mentally and physically available to respond to your students’ academic needs in the classroom.** |     |     |
| 2. Show students that you value learning English language as a meaningful experience that enriches your life. | 3.46 | .77 |

| **2. Increase learners’ satisfaction.**
   \(^{M=3.66, \text{SD}=.47, \alpha=.66}\) |     |     |
| 51. Recognise students’ effort and achievement. | 3.82 | .43 |
| 54. Make sure that grades reflect the real effort and improvement of students. | 3.68 | .62 |
| 52. Monitor students’ progress and celebrate their success. | 3.63 | .71 |
| 53. Offer rewards for involving students in complex activities that require long engagement and creativity on the students’ part. | 3.50 | .84 |

| **3. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable.**
   \(^{M=3.62, \text{SD}=.38, \alpha=.62}\) |     |     |
| 32. Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format. | 3.87 | .33 |
| 33. Make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them. | 3.75 | .47 |
| 31. Relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students. | 3.71 | .51 |
| 35. Select tasks that require involvement from each student. | 3.42 | .82 |
| 30. Find out your students’ needs, goals, and interests and build them into the curriculum. | 3.33 | .73 |

| **4. Increase learners’ expectancy of success.**
   \(^{M=3.55, \text{SD}=.43, \alpha=.68}\) |     |     |
| 36. Give clear instructions to students. | 3.76 | .55 |
| 23. Guide and assist students to succeed in performing learning tasks. | 3.64 | .53 |
22. Explain the goal of each learning task. 3.58 .64
21. Prepare students sufficiently before taking a learning task. 3.57 .67
24. Make the criteria of success public and clear to students. 3.55 .80
37. Raise the students’ expectations of the task outcomes. 3.22 .89

5. Diminish learners’ anxiety and build their self-confidence.  
\[ M = 3.54, SD = .44, \alpha = .71 \]
40. Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed. 3.76 .52
43. Help students to accept the fact that making errors is a part of any learning environment and that making errors leads to success. 3.75 .52
39. Design tasks that are within the limits of the students’ ability. 3.72 .60
45. Avoid students face threatening acts such as humiliating criticism or putting them in the spotlight unexpectedly. 3.69 .70
55. Encourage students to attribute their failure experience when learning English to the lack of sufficient effort or bad luck rather than to their low ability. 3.59 .83
38. Always provide your students with positive feedback and appraisal about their performance. 3.50 .79
42. Promote cooperation between students instead of competition. 3.34 1.01
44. Teach students learning strategies and let them decide on selected strategies by which they will learn better. 3.29 .93
41. Avoid making social comparisons between students such as comparing the performance of two students or the public announcement of grades. 3.22 1.01

6. Familiarise learners with L2 culture and L2 related values.  
\[ M = 3.54, SD = .45, \alpha = .71 \]
16. Increase the amount of English you use in the language classroom. 3.80 .46
20. Remind students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language. 3.78 .51
17. Encourage students to use English outside the classroom. 3.60 .66
19. Encourage students to discover interesting information about the foreign language and the foreign community via the internet. 3.32 .74
18. Bring various L2 cultural products like magazines and video recordings to the classroom to familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language. 3.21 .84

7. Promote learners’ autonomy.  
\[ M = 3.31, SD = .58, \alpha = .58 \]
47. Encourage students’ contribution and peer teaching. 3.40 .78
49. Encourage students to adopt, develop, and apply self-motivating strategies for learning English. 3.39 .74
48. Give students the chance to assess themselves sometimes. 3.13 .84

8. Promote group cohesiveness and set group norms.  
\[ M = 3.25, SD = .54, \alpha = .63 \]
Encourage cooperative learning by dividing students into small groups and let them work towards the same goal.

3.54 .77

14. Explain, at the beginning of each term, the class rules to students and the consequences of violating these rules.

3.50 .72

11. Encourage students to interact and share personal experiences and thoughts.

3.43 .78

15. Allow students to suggest other class rules and discuss the suggested rules with them.

2.95 .87

13. Encourage extracurricular activities and outings that increase the cohesiveness of students in English class.

2.82 1.06

**9. Promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs.**

\[ M = 3.18, \ SD = .59, \ \alpha = .73 \]

26. Encourage students to set clear, short-term, and realistic learning goals for themselves.

3.51 .64

29. Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning.

3.43 .65

27. Negotiate with your students their learning goals and outline with them a specific class goal for learning English.

3.15 .85

28. Display the class goal on a wall chart and review it regularly.

2.64 .99

**10. Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere.** ^

\[ M = 3.00, \ SD = .66, \ \alpha = .38 \]


3.27 .76

10. Encourage learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste.

2.73 .92

Note. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, \( \alpha \) = Cronbach alpha coefficient, ^ items were discarded from this scale due to low (<.30) item-total correlations.

The low Cronbach alpha coefficients of some scales (e.g. scales 1 and 7) can be attributed to the nature of the items used in the survey. Dörnyei and Cheng (2007) have indicated that unlike attitude surveys, this type of surveys was designed to explore the teaching practices of the participating teachers and therefore the items were behavioural items that tend to be more heterogeneous even within one domain than attitude scales.

5.2.1 Macro Strategy Rankings

First of all, it is noteworthy that participating EFL teachers placed a considerable degree of importance on most of the strategy items that came in the final list of strategies. The mean value of the macro strategies/scales ranged between 3.00 (out of 4) as a minimum value to 3.74 as the maximum value. The overall mean value of the whole scale was 3.44.
In order to identify the macro strategy ranking we classified the macro motivational strategies/scales obtained in the final ranking into three groups based on the degree of importance they were assigned by the participants. The first included the highest-ranked macro strategies with mean scores of 3.50 and above. Six macro strategies qualified in this group and they were the top six macro strategies in the whole survey.

“The demonstrate proper teacher behaviour” \( (M=3.74, SD=31) \) came on the top of the macro strategies with a substantial high mean far higher than most of the other macro strategies in the whole survey. This ranking is consistent with the findings of most of previous studies like that of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary, Chambers (1999) in Britain, and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan, and confirms Dörnyei’s (2001b, p. 120) claim that “[a]lmost everything a teacher does in the classroom has a motivational influence on students, which makes teacher behaviour the most powerful motivational tool.”

EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia recognised the importance of three motivational dimensions of the teacher behaviour. The three motivational aspects were represented by five single strategies in the final set of strategies. These dimensions were the teacher’s commitment towards his/her students’ progress, his/her development of a positive relationship with students, and the teacher’s passion and enthusiasm for teaching English.

Participating teachers perceived being committed towards students’ academic progress and taking their learning very seriously (strategies 3 and 4) as the most important motivational characteristic of the teacher. Showing students acceptance, respect, and personal care (strategy 5) was considered the second most important motivational dimension of the teacher behaviour.

The importance of the teacher’s enthusiasm for teaching was regarded as the third important motivational dimension of the teacher behaviour in our study. Respondents believed that showing students interest and dedication in English language and sharing that with them (strategy 1), as well as showing them that the teacher values learning English language as a meaningful experience that enriches his/her life (strategy 2) were the best strategies for demonstrating such enthusiasm.
“Increase learners’ satisfaction” (M=3.66, SD=47) was ranked as the second most important macro strategy by our subjects. This finding is in line with the general assumption that the feeling of satisfaction is a major component of learners’ motivation (see e.g., Keller, 1983; 2000; Burden, 2000; Dörnyei, 2001a).

In their responses to our survey, participants recognised the importance of both intrinsically and extrinsically satisfaction-promoting outcomes. For intrinsically motivating outcomes, they placed high importance on recognising students’ effort and achievement (strategy 51) as well as on monitoring students’ progress and celebrating their success (strategy 52).

Participants also acknowledged making sure that grades reflect the real effort and improvement of students (strategy 54), and offering rewards to students who engaged in complex activities that required long engagement and creativity on the students’ part (strategy 53) as two important extrinsically motivating consequences that support students’ satisfaction with learning.

The third rank-ordered macro strategy in our survey was “Make learning stimulating and enjoyable” (M=3.62, SD=38). The significance of this macro strategy is well emphasised in many different fields like psychology and education (see Raffini, 1993; 1996; Dörnyei, 20001b). Participants in the current study recognised the importance of different individual strategies for making learning stimulating and enjoyable. The majority of those participants regarded breaking the routine of the classroom by varying learning tasks and the presentation format (strategy 32) as the most prominent technique for presenting stimulating and enjoyable learning to students. They also considered making the content of the learning tasks attractive by including novel and humours elements to them (strategy 33) as another significant technique for making learning stimulating and enjoyable.

The importance of making the content of learning relevant to students’ interests, needs, goals, experiences, and backgrounds in order to establish enjoyable learning (strategies 31 and 30) was also acknowledged by respondents. Interestingly, we can clearly notice that strategy 30, M= 3.33 scored a pretty big drop in mean value compared to strategy 31 M= 3.71. Participating teachers considered finding out about their students’ needs, goals
and interests and building that into the curriculum (strategy 30) as less important than relating the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of their students (strategy 31). This in fact might be attributed to two reasons: first, the lack of needs’ analysis techniques (e.g. questionnaire surveys) by which teachers can explore their students’ needs and interests (see Al-Subahi, 1991). Al-Subahi has maintained that EFL curriculum designers in Saudi Arabia usually design the curriculum based on their personal subjective anticipations rather than on students’ actual needs and goals. He explains that those designers do not use surveys to explore students’ needs and desires about the curriculum content. Teachers themselves in that context do not use surveys to know about their students’ learning goals and needs as such surveys are usually not available for them to do so. Second, even when these surveys are available, teachers might feel that using them to investigate learners’ needs, goals, and interests would be useless as they would be unable to build up such needs and goals in the ready-made curriculum they have to teach to their students. For this reason, participating teachers have regarded strategy # 30 “Find out about your students’ needs, goals and interests and build that into the curriculum” as inapplicable to implement in the Saudi EFL context due to the presence of the prescribed curriculum. They therefore ranked it as less important than strategy # 31 “Relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of your students” which those teachers might regarded as applicable and easier for them to utilize in the Saudi EFL context.

Selecting certain tasks that allow students to be actively involved in learning activities (strategy 35) was ranked as the second least important technique for making learning stimulating and enjoyable. Participants might regarded this strategy as inapplicable in the Saudi context as teachers do not usually choose learning tasks on their own but rather involve students in pre-designed tasks provided in the ready-made curriculum.

There was a clearly apparent competition between macro strategies 4-6 to qualify in higher positions. There was only a difference of .01 in the total mean value of strategy 4 compared to that of macro strategies 5 and 6. It was also the standard deviation (SD) value that made the difference in the ranking order of macro strategies (5 and 6) when they equalised in the mean score (3.54). Macro strategy 5 was ranked in a higher position than macro strategy 6 due to its lower SD. The competition between the three
macro strategies is an indicator of the very similar degree of importance participants assigned to them.

“Increase the learners’ expectancy of success” ($M=3.55, SD=43$) was ranked as the fourth most important macro strategy in this study. This macro strategy/scale comprised some micro strategies that reinforce the expectancy of success of learners through the learning process.

Out of all the single strategies ranked as important to boost students’ expectancy of success, participants in this study appeared to be fully aware of the importance of giving clear instructions and explanations to students in a manner that enables them to understand and easily follow the teacher to perform learning tasks successfully (strategy 36).

EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia regarded offering assistance to students to succeed in performing tasks (strategy 23) as another crucial and important strategy for increasing their expectancy of success.

Respondents in this study also perceived explaining the goals and objectives of tasks to students (strategy 22) as an important factor that makes them aware of the value attached to learning tasks which could increase their expectancy of success in that task and subsequently their motivation. Participants deemed that it is also important to expose students to sufficient preparation before involving them in learning as to generate their expectancy of successful performance of the learning tasks (strategy 21).

Making the criteria of success public and clear to students (strategy 24) was ranked as the second least strategy with respect to its importance in promoting students’ expectancy of success. The relatively low importance that our participants attached to this strategy could be attributed to the fact the EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia usually do not have a clear criteria of success other than grades that determine success and failure in schooling in that context.

Despite the importance of raising students’ expectations in the outcomes of any learning task (see Brophy, 2004; Burden, 2000; and Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006), the
participating EFL teachers in the current study considered strategy 37 that was related to this concept as the least important strategy that can be used for this purpose. Respondents might have regarded it as a vague and general strategy comprising many details that could not be easily accomplished in the Saudi EFL context.

“Diminish learners’ anxiety and build their self-confidence” ($M=3.54$, $SD=.44$) took the fifth place in the final rank order. It was not surprising to see this macro strategy qualifying in the top half of our study final top 10 macro strategies and, at the same time, being represented by a big number of individual strategies (9 strategies) as it is well-established in the literature that the way students believe about themselves and their perceptions of their own abilities has a vital effect on the amount of effort they devote in performing learning tasks (see e.g., Clément et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 1994; Good & Brophy, 1994). The nine micro strategies represented on this scale have characterised the importance of four aspects of learner’s self-confidence that are very essential motives not only in the field of foreign language learning but in many other fields of knowledge more generally. These aspects were diminishing learners’ anxiety, promoting their self-efficacy and motivational attributions, and providing them with a positive motivational feedback.

Participants in our study emphasised a well-established fact in educational psychology: that diminishing learners’ anxiety is the best way to build up their self-confidence (see, Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Horwitz, et al., 1986; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; McIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001b). As a result of this attentiveness, they appointed five out of nine micro strategies in this scale to recognise the importance of reducing learners’ anxiety. These strategies addressed many aspects and ways of diminishing students’ anxiety. Participants endorsed the view that the best way to diminish students’ anxiety is by calling their attention to the fact that learning a foreign language such as English in an EFL environment such as Saudi Arabia is a process that is very often, if not always, associated with making a lot of mistakes and that getting benefit from such mistakes is a way of success in learning that language (strategy 43). They also established that it is important for teachers to design tasks that are within the ability limits of students in order to reduce their anxiety of failure in completing these tasks and consequently boost their self-confidence (strategy 39).
Respondents appeared mindful of the destructive and damaging influences that some teachers’ misbehaviours (see for example Teven, 2007) such as aggressive criticism or other acts that may embarrass students in front of their classmates can have on students’ personality and motivation. Strategy 45 represented this belief.

Respondents regarded promoting cooperative learning in which students work together collaboratively and share the responsibility of performing tasks (strategy 42) as more effective in decreasing their anxiety than competitive learning in which they work against each other under a huge pressure and anxiety of losing the competition (see Sharan & Shaulov, 1990; Wigfield et al., 1998).

Participants also believed that the public comparisons of the performance or grades of students (strategy 41) should be avoided as such comparisons can badly affect the learners’ beliefs and judgment of their own abilities and can accordingly have very negative impacts not only on their learning but also on many aspects of their character (including motivation).

The micro strategies our participants selected as the most important for building up and promoting learners’ self-confidence were those concerning promoting learners’ self-efficacy, providing them with a positive feedback and appraisal about their performance, and teaching students learning strategies.

Respondents appeared to believe that showing faith in students’ abilities to succeed as well as making use of some encouraging expressions to serve this purpose (strategy 40) can be powerful forces that strongly push towards promoting learners’ self-efficacy — a significant component of their self-confidence (cf. Dörnyei’s (1994) model of L2 motivation).

Participants recognised the importance of the teacher’s positive feedback as an important factor in promoting his/her students’ self-confidence (strategy 38). Those participants have previously recommended that it is important in order to diminish students’ anxiety that teachers avoid providing them with a controlling feedback through making social comparisons between learners’ performance (strategy 41). Here, they highlighted the importance of another type of feedback (information feedback) by which
teachers can provide students with information rather than judgements about their strengths, weaknesses, progress, achievement, etc.

Participants also believed that it is important that teachers provide students with the amount of support they need for successful learning in order to promote their self-confidence. Among such support is a variety of strategies that teachers can present to students to help them discover different ways for themselves by which they can learn better (strategy 44).

Subjects in this study appeared to be well aware of the importance of promoting students’ motivational attributions as an important factor that can help in diminishing their L2 anxiety and fostering their self-confidence at the same time. This can be achieved by referring learners’ L2 past unsuccessful learning experiences to some manageable factors like insufficient effort rather than to stable and uncontrollable factors like low ability (strategy 55).

“Familiarise learners with L2 culture and L2 related values” \( (M= 3.54, SD=45) \) was ranked the sixth most important macro strategy in this study. Although this strategy had exactly the same mean value as that of macro strategy 5 “Promote learners’ self-confidence,” it was the slightly higher standard deviation value that put it in a lower rank order. While this might reveal that participants have reflected the true fact that L2 culture and values are typically avoided by EFL teachers, previous research has demonstrated that "familiarising learners with L2 culture and related values" does have a positive motivating effect on learners (refer to section 2.7.2.1). It is, however, interesting to notice that respondents recognised the importance of three different sorts of L2 values: intrinsic values (strategy 16), instrumental values (micro strategies 20 and 17), and integrative values (micro strategies 19 and 18). Participants distinctly ranked the importance of the three value dimensions. They ranked the intrinsic value component as the most important. The importance of those strategies that symbolised the instrumental values was acknowledged next, and the strategies that represented the integrative values were recognised as the least important values with which to familiarise students.
Participants perceived the intrinsic values of the foreign language as the most important value aspect with which learners should be familiarised in order to enhance their L2 motivation. They considered that increasing the amount of English the teacher uses in the language classroom (strategy 16) is the most important technique that can be employed to enable their students to recognise such values. The high mean of this strategy (3.80) placed it not only on the top of the single strategies in this scale but also in the list of the top 10 most important micro strategies in the whole survey. In our study, it seems that the majority of participants considered that when the teacher uses the foreign language in all or at least most of class activities, this would uncover many different inherent aspects of the foreign language to students and would make them appreciate and intrinsically value that language. This belief seems in line with what has been reported by earlier research (e.g., Netten & Germain, 2004; MacFarlane, 2005; Kristmanson, 2006) that the increased exposure to the target language enhances students’ motivation to learn and use the language. Furthermore, the high importance participants laid on this strategy could be seen as an indication of their belief that despite that in EFL contexts language teachers are typically not native speakers of the target language and often a lot of the proceedings take place in the learners’ first language, the extensive use of the learners’ Arabic mother tongue during English classes in Saudi Arabia (see Arishi, 1984; and Al-Ahaydib, 1986) is the phenomenon that should disappear as it is the fastest way to undermine the value of the foreign language in their students’ view. It is worth mentioning that this strategy came in the same position as the top most important strategy for familiarising students with L2 related values in the study of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan.

Micro strategies 20 and 17 represented the importance of instrumental values and pragmatic benefits associated with the foreign language learning in enhancing students’ motivation. It seems that our respondents were attentive to the importance of the leading role that English language plays in the whole world and the perceived practical benefits that the mastery of this language can create, such as passing exams, getting a career, pursuing future studies, and improving one’s social position (strategy 20). Respondents believed that encouraging students to use English outside the classroom to apply what they have learned in class in their daily life is another technique to familiarise them with the instrumental benefits of the foreign language learning (strategy 17). The importance that respondents attached to these two micro strategies suggests that Saudi teachers
identify about their students’ instrumental motivation. Teachers seem conscious of the fact that Saudi students are mostly instrumentally motivated as acknowledged by many previous studies (e.g. Al-Shammary, 1984; Al-Amr, 1998; Al-Otaibi, 2004; Alrabai, 2007). They thus emphasised the importance of these strategies that may help in maintaining or even fostering the existing levels of instrumental motivation their learners have. Another interesting thing was that respondents might share Brophy’s (1998) belief that instrumental strategies are the simplest method of addressing the value aspect of motivation, since by using them, teachers do not need to change or improve existing values but rather simply link the successful completion of the task to consequences that the students already value (Dörnyei, 2001b).

Participants in the current study regarded L2 integrative values as the least important with which to familiarise their students in order to enhance their L2 motivation. They considered that encouraging learners to conduct their own explorations to discover interesting information about the foreign language and the people who speak it through the internet (strategy 19), and bringing various L2 cultural products like magazines and video recordings to the classroom to familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language (strategy 18) as of less importance for familiarising learners with the L2 values. Respondents appeared to think that students might be too entrenched in the content of the fixed curriculum and the routinely used teaching materials and therefore they would be unable to bring such products to their classes. They might believed that even bringing such materials to the language classroom will not help much in familiarising their students with the integrative values of L2 in the absence of a direct contact with L2 speakers as well as many other aspects of the foreign language in their daily life (see Al-Shammary, 1984). This latter fact (absence of contact) can be reasonably considered a rationale for why participants in this study perceived the individual strategies relating to integrative values as the least important ones for familiarising students with the foreign language values and subsequently promoting their L2 motivation. In his study of EFL teachers’ behaviours in Saudi Arabia, Arishi (1984) found that the teaching practices of Saudi teachers completely overlooked the target language culture. He attributed this phenomenon to many reasons such as the EFL programs’ content, which emphasises the teaching of English literature rather than the teaching and learning process as well as the extensive use of the mother language in EFL classes.
We will notice when discussing the top 10 most important individual/micro strategies that all these strategies came out from the top six macro strategies/scales. Not a single micro strategy came from scales 7-10.

Scales 7 and 8 formed the middle-ranked strategies that comprises strategies that obtained mean scores from 3.25 up to 3.50.

There was a noticeable drop in mean value scored by scales 7-10 compared to that of the top 6 scales. This would be obvious if we compared the mean of macro strategy/scale 6 (3.54) with that of macro strategy 7 (3.31). This can be interpreted as an indication that our participants regarded macro strategies 7-10 as less important than macro strategies 1-6.

“Promote learners’ autonomy” \((M = 3.31, SD=.58)\) was ranked seventh by our participants in terms of its importance in enhancing students’ motivation. The single strategies that this macro strategy encompasses are those relating to encouraging students’ contributions and peer teaching (strategy 47), encouraging students to adopt, develop, and apply self-motivating strategies for learning English (strategy 49), and giving students some opportunities for self-assessment (strategy 48).

Despite the importance of promoting learners’ autonomy to their motivation (see Deci & Ryan, 2000; Brophy, 2004), we can clearly notice the big drop in the mean value this macro strategy scored compared to the top six macro strategies (.23 points below the sixth strategy), which is in line with the assumption of Good and Brophy (1994) and Benson (2000) that schools are not the best place to exercise autonomy due to the few opportunities education provides learners with to exercise autonomy in the practice of learning. Moreover, Warden and Lin (2000) have argued that in countries with a history of obedience to authority, a teacher is not seen as a facilitator but as a presenter of knowledge. This is, in fact, the exact case in Saudi Arabia and the ranking that our study came up with for this macro strategy was not a surprise due to some cultural beliefs of the Saudi EFL teachers. In the Saudi educational context, the common belief is that the teacher is an authoritarian figure who is seen as the main source of knowledge and the ultimate controller of the class. The teacher seems to be rather an autocratic more than a democratic leader (see Ehrman and Dörnyei, 1998, pp. 159-162) for explanations.
about these two leadership styles). A consequence of the EFL teacher’s authoritarianism in the Saudi context is a continued blocking of student’s autonomy. Learners are most often regarded as passive and merely observers in classrooms. Students in that context are rarely asked to bring in their own ideas in the target language and teachers rarely use students’ ideas extensively (see Arishi’s 1984 conclusions about the teacher-students interaction in EFL classes in Saudi Arabia). Furthermore, learners have no choices about the content they study as it is prescribed by a rigid curriculum (see Al-Otaibi, 2004). Under the current cultural beliefs in the Saudi EFL context, it is probably hard for strategies concerning learner’s autonomy to be implemented properly in such a context and it was no surprise then that under such conditions, choices about learning will not be provided to learners and the autonomy aspect of learners will not be worth much into teachers’ account.

Our study’s findings about promoting learners’ autonomy is in congruence with Cheng and Dörnyei’s (2007) empirical study findings in which EFL teachers in Taiwan ranked promoting learners’ autonomy as the least important macro strategy and it came at the bottom of the list of their top 10 macro strategies. This similar finding could be attributed to some cultural similarities between the two contexts given that Saudi Arabia and Taiwan are both classified as collectivist societies.

“Promote group cohesiveness and set group norms” \( (M=3.25, SD=.54) \) was ranked eighth in this study. The low rank order of this macro strategy made it possible to see some individual strategies in this scale with a mean score under 3.00. Participants in this study selected five micro strategies to indicate the importance of two factors of group dynamics (group cohesion and group norms). Three of these strategies were concerned with the importance of group cohesion while the other two symbolised the importance of group norms.

Respondents estimated that the most important way to generate group cohesiveness is to foster students’ collaboration where students work together, depend on each other, and share the same common goals of learning (strategy 12). They deemed that when students learn about each other through sharing personal information and experiences that help to create a sense of solidarity and collaboration within the group and thus contribute towards the cohesion of that group (strategy 11). Participants regarded involving
students in extracurricular activities (strategy 13) as of little importance in enhancing learners’ group cohesiveness. The low importance attached to this strategy might also be attributed to the nature of EFL classes in Saudi Arabia where teaching and learning almost always stick to the fixed curriculum content with few or no chances for extracurricular activities to take place.

Participants confirmed Dörnyei and Murphey’s (2003) proposition that group cohesiveness by itself will not work in the best way to motivate students unless associated with a “rules of conduct” protocol that governs the group members’ behaviours in the classroom and makes it possible for its cohesiveness to grow. They deemed that explicitly establishing the rules that run the learning process as well as outlining to group members, early at the beginning of their group’s life, the specific consequences of violating each rule (strategy 14), is the best way to increase students’ awareness of these rules. Respondents considered that drawing out some suggestions for additional group norms from learners and discussing the rules they propose with them in order to make an agreement over common rules (strategy 15) can be of little importance for formulating the rules that run the language classes.

As already explained, in such a controlling environment as the Saudi EFL setting, teachers are seen, may be at all times, as the ultimate controllers of their classes who decide what students can and cannot do. Such behaviours as well as the other norms imposed by education institutions for running classes can be seen as barriers that make it impossible for this strategy to be effective in the Saudi EFL context, which may explain the low importance our participants attached to it.

The third group of macro strategies/scales consists the low-ranked ones and comprises the strategies that obtained mean scores under 3.25. This group involved scales 9 and 10. “Promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs” ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .59$) was ranked ninth in the final list of macro strategies of our study. Participants categorised three micro strategies as relatively important for setting positive learning goals while they selected only one single strategy to point to the importance of helping students to develop realistic beliefs about learning English.
Respondents considered helping students to set individual goals for learning English (strategy 26) as important to enhance their L2 motivation. According to this strategy, these goals should be specific (i.e. not vague and too general), short-term (i.e. can be achieved in a specific period of time; e.g. one semester), and realistic (i.e. not too ambitious and possible for students to achieve based on their own current skills and mastery levels of the language). Participants considered initiating a discussion with learners about their personal goals of learning English (strategy 27) as another important way for outlining a common goal for the learners’ group, which can enhance their goal-orientedness to learn English. Strategy 28, which was the third individual strategy ranked to state the importance of goal-setting, scored the third lowest mean score in the final ranking of all survey items — an indication of the very low importance our participants place upon it. Respondents appeared to think that it is not important for the goal upon which the group members agree as their shared goal for learning English to be displayed publically in class.

The only individual strategy that participating teachers selected as to demonstrate the importance of developing realistic beliefs about learning English was helping students to develop realistic and true, rather than false, beliefs about learning English (strategy 29).

“Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere” \((M= 3.00, SD=.66)\) was ranked by EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia as the least important macro strategy for promoting their students’ motivation. This strategy came at the bottom of this study’s list of macro strategies despite the positive effects that a pleasant and supportive climate in classroom can have on students’ motivation, such as diminishing learners’ anxiety and fostering their self-confidence, developing a good rapport between students and their teachers and between students themselves, as well as making learning stimulating and enjoyable to students (see Good & Brophy, 1994; Chambers, 1999; and Dörnyei, 2001a). Participants in this study selected only two micro strategies to illustrate the importance of creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere in order to increase learners’ motivation, but, these two single strategies, especially the second one, had low mean scores providing evidence of the low importance respondents attached to them.

Respondents presumed that bringing humour in the language classroom (strategy 9) could be a relatively important strategy that can help in creating a relaxed, supportive,
and safe climate for learners in the language classrooms and also reduce the tension that sometimes takes place in these classes.

Decorations, posters, and the different objects that can add to the physical learning environment (strategy 10) were considered by our participants as of little or even no importance in constructing a pleasant and supportive classroom. In relation to this, we have to repeat again that the EFL teaching/learning environment in Saudi Arabia, where students’ contributions to their learning environment is usually at its minimum, is a major contributor for such a situation.

Based on the ranking provided by participants in this study, the scales/macro strategies that appeared in our final ranking distributed almost equally on the four dimensions of the systematic theoretical framework of motivational strategies presented by Dörnyei (2001b) as follows:

A. Scales 1, 8 and 10 represented the dimension of creating the basic motivational conditions.

B. Scales 4, 6 and 9 represented generating initial motivation dimension.

C. Scales 3, 5 and 7 represented maintaining and protecting motivation dimension.

D. Scale 2 represented encouraging positive self-evaluation dimension.

Another important and interesting conclusion about the macro strategies that came in our final ranking was that these strategies represented the importance of most of the motivational constructs presented in the three levels of Dörnyei’s (1994) framework of L2 motivation as follows:

A. Macro strategy 6 represented both the integrative and instrumental motivational subsystems at the language level of the model.

B. Macro strategy 5 symbolised language confidence and the various aspects it encompasses like self-efficacy, language anxiety, causal attributions, and motivational feedback at the learner level of the model. In this study, ‘causal attributions’ and ‘motivational feedback’ clustered under this scale as two components of the learner’s
self-confidence in exactly the same way they were categorised in Dörnyei’s (1994) L2 motivation construct.

C. The other macro strategies/scales represented the learning-situation level of the model as follows:

a. Macro strategies 2, 3, and 4 represented some of the course-specific motivational components like relevance, interest, expectancy, and satisfaction.

b. Macro strategies 1, 7, and 10 categorised some of the teacher-specific motivational components like affiliative drive, authority type, and direct socialisation of students’ motivation.

c. Macro strategies 8 and 9 symbolised some of the group-specific motivational components like goal-orientedness, norms system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure.

A third significant conclusion about the final rank order obtained for the motivational macro strategies/scales in our study is that it was mostly similar to that of two previous experimental studies conducted on motivational strategies in Hungary (1998) and in Taiwan (2007). It is important to note that there were some differences with the analytical design between these three studies. In Hungary, the initial 51 single strategy items were grouped under 18 clusters/macro strategies and the top 10 of these clusters were labelled as “The Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners.” In Taiwan, all the 48 single motivational strategies were clustered into 10 macro strategies. In our study, the 53 single strategy items that were initially grouped under 12 clusters. The final 48 reliable strategies loaded on 10 factors/scales based on factor analysis findings and were finally clustered under 10 macro strategies/scales, which is similar to what happened in Taiwan. As we were more concerned with the findings of these analyses (i.e. how the top 10 macro strategies/clusters were ranked in each study and the constituent micro strategies of each cluster) rather than the analytical designs, we proposed that a kind of comparison could be performed between the findings of the three studies. Comparisons between scales took place just in case there was a content similarity between the single strategies that constitute each scale in two or more of the
comparable studies. The comparison was carried out according to the rank order obtained in the current study. Table 24 contains a comparison of the rank order of the macro strategies obtained in this study and in the study of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary, and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan.

Table 25: Comparison of the final rank order of the macro strategies/scales obtained in this study and in Hungary (1998), Taiwan (2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Macro strategy / Scale</th>
<th>FINAL RANKING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hungary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Demonstrate proper teacher behaviour</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Increase learners’ satisfaction</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Make learning stimulating and enjoyable</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Increase learners’ expectancy of success</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Diminish learners’ anxiety and build their self-confidence</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Familiarise learners with L2 culture and L2-related values</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Promote learners’ autonomy</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Promote group cohesiveness and set group norms</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparison revealed a considerable degree of importance imposed on different macro motivational strategies by the three studies that were conducted in three different EFL contexts. Other conclusions drawn from this comparison were the following:

A. All the three studies ranked macro strategy/scale 1: “Demonstrate proper teacher behaviour” similarly in the top place of their top 10 most important macro motivational strategies.
B. Our study and the study of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary were identical in ranking scales 1 (explained above), 5: “Diminish learners’ anxiety and build their self-confidence,” 7: “Promote learners’ autonomy,” and 9: “Promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs.” They ranked the other scales differently.

C. The ranking obtained in the current study was also the same as that obtained in the study of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan in terms of scales 1 as explained in “A,” and 2: “Increase learners’ satisfaction.” It was different elsewhere.

D. Despite the enormous cultural, social, and educational differences between the Saudi and Hungarian contexts, the ranking obtained in the current study is more comparable to that of the Hungarian study than the Taiwanese one.

E. We noticed that three of the macro strategies that came out in the top 5 scales in our study were ranked in the top 5 scales in the other two studies. These scales/macro strategies were 1: “Demonstrate proper teacher behaviour,” 4: “Increase the learners’ expectancy of success,” and 5: “Diminish learners’ anxiety and build their self-confidence.” This can actually lead to the significant conclusion that these macro strategies embody fundamentally important beliefs in teaching pedagogy and thus can be universally treated as central tenets for any teaching practice (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). Moreover, this resemblance is verification that these strategies can be seen as very powerful factors for generating, maintaining, and promoting students’ L2 motivation in different EFL contexts. It is also a reassurance that they are transferable across diverse cultural and ethno-linguistic milieus and thus that they can be utilised in different EFL contexts for motivating language learners.

F. We can see that scales 6, 7 and 9 in our study were ranked in the bottom 5 macro strategies in all the three studies. Scale 8 in the current study was ranked ninth in the Taiwanese survey and did not even show up in the top 10 list in Hungarian survey. Apart from macro strategy 6, which got a high mean score in this study, there was an agreement between the three studies over the little importance these strategies can bring with regard to promoting learners’ motivation.
The ranking of scales 3 and 10 in our study was different from their ranking in the other two studies. Scale 3 was ranked in the top 5 scales in this study while it came in the bottom 5 scales in the Hungarian and Taiwanese studies. Macro strategy 10 was dramatically ranked at the bottom of the current study list while it was ranked in the top 5 macro strategies in the other studies. It appears that the participating EFL teachers in our study regarded macro strategy 3 as culturally and contextually dependent to the Saudi EFL context while macro strategy 10 as sensitive in that context.

5.2.2 Micro Strategy Rankings

Due to the high competition in the mean value scored by a large number of single strategies, we followed a more practical approach to establish the top individual motivational strategies that will be treated as the most important micro strategies to be implemented in the Saudi EFL classrooms to promote students’ foreign language motivation. We computed the mean score of each micro strategy to its standard deviation (M/SD) and used the combined index of mean and standard deviation of each strategy to determine its ranking. Following this, we obtained the top 10 single motivational strategies in our survey. Some descriptive statistics of these strategies are shown in Table 25.

Table 26: The final rank order and descriptive statistics of the top 10 micro motivational strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank order</th>
<th>Micro strategy</th>
<th>Macro strategy /Scale</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Index (M/SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>32. Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format.</td>
<td>Making learning stimulating.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>11.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3. Show students that you care about their progress.</td>
<td>Proper teacher Behaviour.</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>9.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>5. Show students that you accept and care about them.</td>
<td>Proper teacher Behaviour.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>9.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>51. Recognise students’ effort and achievement.</td>
<td>Increasing learners’ satisfaction</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>8.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>4. Be mentally and physically available to respond to your students’ academic needs in the classroom.</td>
<td>Proper teacher Behaviour.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>8.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>16. Increase the amount of English you use in the language classroom.</td>
<td>Familiarising learners with L2 values.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td><strong>8.26</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>33. Make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them.</td>
<td>Making learning stimulating.</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td><strong>7.98</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>20. Remind students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language.</td>
<td>Familiarising learners with L2 values.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td><strong>7.41</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>31. Relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students.</td>
<td>Making learning stimulating.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td><strong>7.27</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>40. Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed.</td>
<td>Promoting learners’ self-confidence.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td><strong>7.23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. M = mean, SD = standard deviation, Index (M/SD) = the mean value of the strategy divided by its standard deviation.

Based on the findings obtained from this ranking we drew the following conclusions:

A. All the top 10 micro motivational strategies/techniques obtained very high mean scores that ranging between 3.76 to 3.87. This clearly reflects how our participants regarded these strategies as important, influential, and relevant for motivating EFL students in Saudi Arabia.

B. The top 10 micro motivational strategies distributed on five motivational factors/scales in an indication of the perceived importance of these factors in motivating EFL students in that context. Micro strategies 1, 7, and 9 emphasised the importance of “making learning stimulating and enjoyable” as a prominent motivational factor. Micro strategies 2, 3, and 5 highlighted the importance of “demonstrating proper teacher behaviour” as a powerful tool for motivating EFL learners. Micro strategy 4 established the importance of “promoting learners’ satisfaction” to enhance their motivation. Micro strategies 6 and 8 represented the importance of “familiarising learners with L2 values” in order to enhance their foreign language motivation. Micro strategy 10 indicated the
significance of “promoting learners’ self-confidence” for the purpose of fostering their L2 motivation.

C. “Demonstrate proper teacher behaviour” remains as the top most important motivational factor with all the three single strategies that showed the importance of this factor (strategies 2, 3, and 5) qualifying in the top 5 most important individual strategies in the whole survey.

D. Seven of our top 10 micro strategies have already appeared as very important for motivating EFL learners and sometimes at the top of their scales in the study of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan. These strategies were 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, and 10. Micro strategies 3, 7, and 10 also turned up in the top 10 motivational scales in the Hungarian study conducted by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998). This is clear evidence of the vital importance and validity of these strategies to be employed for motivating EFL learners in various EFL contexts such as Hungary, Taiwan, and Saudi Arabia; and potentially in other contexts. Interestingly, we can notice that the ranking of micro strategies in the current study is more comparable to their ranking in the Taiwanese study in contrast to our ranking of macro strategies which was more comparable to the Hungarian one.

E. The top 10 most important single strategies of this study represented five motivational factors as explained in point “C”: demonstrating proper teacher behaviour, making learning stimulating and enjoyable, familiarising learners with L2 values, recognising learners’ efforts, and promoting learners’ self-confidence. The top 10 micro strategies in the study of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary asserted the importance of three of these factors: demonstrating proper teacher behaviour, making learning stimulating and enjoyable (interest), and promoting learners’ self-confidence. In the study conducted in Taiwan by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), the top 10 most important single strategies emphasised the importance of three of these motivational factors: demonstrating proper teacher behaviour, increasing learners’ satisfaction, and promoting learners’ self-confidence. Four out of five of the motivational factors that were represented by our 10 most important micro strategies were therefore recognised in the other two empirical studies. The fifth factor that appeared only in our study was “familiarising learners with L2 values,” which seems to be dependent to the Saudi context.
5.2.3 Summary

The answer to the question about the ranking of our research’s strategies reveals that participating teachers regarded the majority of the strategies provided in the questionnaire survey as important for motivating EFL learners in Saudi Arabia. They considered ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour’ as the most important macro strategy to be used to enhance learners’ L2 motivation in that context. The ranking of this macro strategy in the current study is identical to its ranking in the two previous studies conducted on motivational strategies by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). The ranking provided for most of the other macro strategies in this study is also similar to that obtained in the other two studies. Out of the 53 individual strategies tested in this study, 10 strategies obtained very high mean scores and they were considered as the top 10 micro motivational strategies. These strategies were selected to be implemented in the EFL classes at the second stage of the study for the purpose of promoting learners’ L2 motivation. Three of the most important of the top 10 micro strategies concern ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour’ to students. The other seven strategies relate to ‘making learning stimulating and enjoyable,’ ‘increasing learners’ satisfaction,’ ‘familiarising students with L2 values,’ and ‘promoting learners’ self-confidence.’
5.3 2nd. Research Question (Q2)

*Does the implementation of the top 10 micro motivational strategies by teachers in the experimental classes affect these teachers’ motivational behaviours?*

After training in the implementation of the 10 micro motivational strategies, we could anticipate a change in the teachers’ behaviour in the classroom. The implementation of these strategies targeted different aspects of the teacher’s teaching practice as a whole; comprising the teacher’s immediacy behaviours (verbal and non-verbal), motivational teaching style, and the teacher’s credibility. Most of these strategies have been utilized as means for a motivational teaching style. For instance, some non-verbal immediacy behaviours as those recommend for teachers in point 5 under *task presentation* in the implementation guide, p. 262, were designed as tools for appealing/motivating teaching style and thus could be employed to serve micro strategy # 1 “Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format.” Other strategies such as micro strategy # 2 “Show students that you care about their progress,” # 3 “Show students that you accept and care about them,” and micro strategy # 5 “Be mentally and physically available to respond to your students’ academic needs in the classroom” concern very important aspects of the teacher’s credibility (e.g. goodwill/caring, trustworthiness, etc.;) as explained in section 3.2.2.1.2.3. Strategies like # 4 “Recognise students’ efforts and achievement” and # 10 “Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed” were concerned with some of the verbal immediacy behaviors that the teacher can use to promote students’ motivation like effective praise, motivational feedback, and encouragements.

To test whether such a change occurred, we applied a sequence of ANOVAs and ANCOVAs tests to the teachers’ classroom observation and teachers’ post-lesson evaluation instruments.

These analyses were conducted first on the teachers’ classroom observation. A mixed-model analysis of variance was performed to explore the effects of three factors (condition, time, and interaction of condition x time) on the teachers’ motivational non-verbal immediacy variables.
The results from the mixed model test revealed that time factor had no significant effect on any of these variables ($ps > .05$).

The effect of condition was found to be significant ($ps < .05$) in all these observational variables (e.g. ‘body movement’ $F(1, 12) = 6.17, p < .05$, ‘vocal expressions’ $F(1, 12) = 7.53, p < .05$, etc.). The effect size of the condition factor was large ($\eta_p^2 > .14$) in all of the teachers’ non-verbal immediacy behaviours tested in this study. This suggests that training in motivational strategy implementation had a significant effect on the teachers’ non-verbal immediacy behaviours in the classroom.

The combined factor (interaction of time by condition) had a significant impact on only the ‘body movement’ $F(1, 12) = 7.68, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .39$, and ‘eye contact’ $F(1, 12) = 11.40, p < .05, \eta_p^2 = .49$. The results of all these analyses are presented in Table 26.

Table 27: The mixed model ANOVA condition x time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (teachers’ classroom observation data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Time Factor</th>
<th>Condition Factor</th>
<th>Combined Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$F(1,12)$</td>
<td>Sig. $\eta_2$</td>
<td>$F(1,12)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Body movement</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>.26 .11</td>
<td>6.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Vocal expressions</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.71 .01</td>
<td>7.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.11 .20</td>
<td>24.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Facial expressions</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.27 .10</td>
<td>11.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Body position</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.92 .00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Physical proximity</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.46 .05</td>
<td>6.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ($F$) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = $p$ value, ($\eta_p^2$) = partial Eta squared.

A two-way between-subjects analysis of variance was performed to help us identify the observational variables that had some preexisting differences between the teachers in the experimental and control groups at T1. As we can see in Table 27, there was a statistically significant main effect for condition at T1 with regard to ‘eye contact’ amongst the participating teachers in the experimental group ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .24$), and
those in the control group ($M = 2.57, SD = .37$). The effect size of this factor was large ($\eta_{p}^2 = .62$). As the probability figure “Sig” shows, the $F$ value was statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level, $F (1, 12) = 19.35$. This value confirmed the fact that there were some true (i.e. not accidental) pre-existing differences between the study groups on this variable at T1. As we can see in the same table, the main effect of the condition factor did not reach statistical significance in any of the other variables of this scale, suggesting lack of preexisting differences between teachers in the experimental and control groups on these variables at T1 (i.e. before the experimental treatment started).

**Table 28: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 teachers’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$F$ (1, 12)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>$\eta_{p}^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Body movement</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Vocal expressions</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.35</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Facial expressions</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Body position</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Physical proximity</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (SD) = standard deviation, ($F$) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = $p$ value, ($\eta_{p}^2$) = partial Eta squared, (No Sig.) = no significant differences were detected between the experimental and control groups in this variable at T1.

A within-subjects ANOVA analysis was conducted next. This analysis was expected to reveal whether the significant changes that took place over time in some variables were larger for the experimental than the control group of teachers or not. As we can see in Table 28, the time factor had a statistically significant effect on only the ‘body movement’ $F (1, 6) = 8.20, p < .05$, $\eta_{p}^2 = .58$, and ‘eye contact’ $F (1, 6) = 19.56, p < .001$, $\eta_{p}^2 = .77$ in the experimental group. Time had no significant effect on these two variables in the control group nor on any other variables in either of the groups. The significant change in ‘body movement’ in the experimental group was in the positive
direction (increased at T2), $M_{T1}$ (mean at T1) = 1.48, $M_{T2}$ (mean at T2) = 2.03, and in the negative direction (decreased at T2) in ‘eye contact’, $M_{T1}$ = 3.31, $M_{T2}$ = 2.89. The negative change in teachers’ ‘eye contact’ with students could be interpreted that this behaviour has something to do with individual approach to students and it is not a favourable one in the classroom. The significant change in the experimental but not in the control group in the two variables could be due to the effect of training in new strategy use in the experimental group and to the time factor in the control group. Table 28 contains the F statistics, p, $\eta^2_p$, and mean values over T1 and T2 for all the variables of this scale.

### Table 29: Time repeated measure ANOVA on teachers’ classroom observation data separately by group conditions (Experimental vs. Control)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>EXP.</th>
<th>CONT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$F$ (1, 6)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Body movement</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Vocal expressions</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>19.56</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Facial expressions</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Body position</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Physical proximity</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, ($\eta^2_p$) = Partial Eta squared.

Finally, a condition between-subjects analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on T2 data was conducted to figure out the significant changes that occurred as a result of our experimental treatment. We ran this test after specifying all T1 variables as ‘covariates’ in order to control for their likely effects on T2 scores. As we can see in Table 29, after adjusting for T1 preexisting differences between groups, there was a statistically significant effect for the condition factor in all variables at T2 (except ‘eye contact’ and ‘body position’ variables). The adjusted mean scores (marginal means) of the significantly changed variables suggested a larger change in favour of experimental
group than control group at T2 (e.g. body movement: $MM$ (marginal mean) = 1.92, $SD = .77$ for Exp. group, $MM = 1.00$, $SD = .40$ for Cont. group). None of these variables showed any significant differences between the experimental and control groups at T1 (see Table 27); however, they were all significantly different in the two groups at T2 (see Table 29). The size of the condition effect ($\eta^2_p$) was quite large in all the affected variables at T2 and considerably larger than $\eta^2_p$ at T1. The significant $F$ values, which were larger in all of these variables at T2 than T1, confirmed that the effect of condition was significant and large enough for these changes not to be accidental. We should clarify here that it is known that the larger the $F$-ratio, the greater the effect of a factor would be (Brace et al., 2009). All these figures suggest that utilising some motivational strategies in EFL instruction allowed for a positive change in some of the motivational non-verbal immediacy behaviours of those teachers in the experimental group compared with no change in these variables for those in the control group due, in all likelihood, to the lack of intervention in their group. The behaviours that hold some significant differences between teachers in the experimental and control groups at T2 were ‘body movement,’ ‘vocal expressions,’ ‘facial expressions,’ and ‘physical proximity.’ The two behaviours in which there were no significant differences between teachers in the two groups were ‘eye contact’ and ‘body position.’ This finding answers the first part of question 2 about the change in teachers’ behaviours by uncovering the teacher’s non-verbal immediacy behaviours that were affected by our experimental manipulation.

**Table 30: Condition between-subjects ANCOVA on T2 teachers’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Body movement</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>11.16</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Vocal expressions</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Facial expressions</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Body position</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Physical proximity</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>7.34</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The analysis on the teachers’ post-lesson evaluation instrument data was expected to answer the second part of question 2 about the teachers’ behaviours. The same sequence of analyses as that conducted for the previous instrument was carried out for this appraisal tool as follows:

A mixed-model analysis of variance was conducted to examine the effects of three factors (condition, time, and condition x time) on the EFL teacher’s motivational behaviours tested in this instrument: the teacher’s motivational teaching style, verbal immediacy, and credibility. The figures in Table 30 show that the time factor had no statistically significant effect on any of the variables in this scale ($p_s > .05$).

The condition factor had a significant impact on the ‘teacher’s teaching style’ and ‘teacher’s credibility’ but not on the ‘teacher’s verbal immediacy variable.’

The interaction factor had also a significant effect on the same variables: ‘the teacher’s teaching style’, and ‘teacher’s credibility’. This factor had no significant effect on the ‘teacher’s verbal immediacy’ (see Table 30).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Time Factor</th>
<th>Condition Factor</th>
<th>Combined Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$F$ (1,12)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>$F$ (1,12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Teacher’s verbal immediacy</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>8.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ($F$) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = significance value, ($\eta^2$) = Partial Eta square.

A condition between-subjects ANOVA test was performed next on T1 data to identify the preexisting differences between participants in the study groups.
As Table 31 shows, the condition factor had no statistically significant effect on any of the variables of this construct at T1. This suggests that there were no preexisting differences between the EFL practitioners in neither the experimental nor the control group with regard to these variables before the experimental manipulation took place.

**Table 32: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data on each variable at the time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (Mean)</th>
<th>Cont. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F (1, 12)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>ηp2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher’s verbal immediacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (SD) = standard deviation, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, (ηp2) = partial Eta squared, (No Sig.) = no significant differences were detected between the experimental and control groups in this variable at T1.

A time repeated measure ANOVA separately by group conditions (Experimental vs. Control) test was conducted next. As we can see in Table 32, the time factor had a significant effect on only the ‘teacher’s credibility’ variable in the experimental group and no significant effect on this variable in the control group. The change that took place in this variable over time was in the positive direction (increased at T2), M_T1 = 5.14, M_T2 = 5.75. The time factor had no statistically significant effect on all the other variables (i.e. ‘teacher’s teaching style’ and ‘teacher’s verbal immediacy’) in any of the groups. Table 37 contains the different statistics (F, p, ηp2, and mean values over T1 and T2) of these variables.

**Table 33: Time repeated measure ANOVA on teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data separately by group conditions (Experimental vs. Control)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>EXP.</th>
<th>CONT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F (1, 6)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher’s verbal</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We noted that there were no preexisting differences between participants in the study groups (experimental vs. control) at T1 on the variables of this construct (see Table 31), suggesting that the teachers in the two groups were similar in their teaching style, verbal immediacy, and credibility. As can be seen in Table 33, experimental and control groups have significantly statistically differed on some variables at T2.

**Table 34: Condition between-subject ANCOVA on T2 teachers’ post-lesson evaluation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F (1, 11)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>ηp²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Teacher’s verbal immediacy</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (M Mean) = Marginal means, (SD) = standard deviation, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = significance value, (ηp²) = Partial Eta squared

The figures in Table 33 show that there were statistically significant differences between teachers in the two groups on the ‘teacher’s teaching style’ \(F (1, 11) = 7.53, p < .05, η_p² = .41\), and the ‘teacher’s credibility’ \(F (1, 11) = 5.48, p < .05, η_p² = .33\). The size of condition effect was large in these two variables. The significant \(F\) values indicated that there were actual differences between the two study groups at T2 with regard to the ‘teacher’s teaching style’ and ‘teacher’s credibility’. The marginal means in both variables showed a larger positive change in favour of the experimental group (e.g. ‘teacher’s teaching style’: MM = 4.24, SD = 1.32 in the experimental group, MM = 2.89, SD = .68 in the control group). The condition factor had no significant effect on the ‘teacher’s verbal immediacy’ at T2 as we can see in Table 33. These results suggest that
making use of some motivational strategies had a significant large effect on the participating EFL teachers’ motivational teaching style as well as their credibility in the experimental groups but not on their verbal immediacy behaviours. Further, the significant effect of the experimental interference has resulted in significant differences occurred between teachers in the experimental classes and those in the control classes with regard to their motivational teaching style and credibility behaviours.

The results that came out from the analysis of the data of this instrument as well as that of the teacher’s classroom observation suggest that the observed motivational behaviours of the EFL teachers who volunteered to implement our research motivational strategies in their classes were largely impacted by the manipulation they implemented.

5.3.1 Summary

This research question asked whether the use of some motivational strategies by EFL teachers in the experimental group would result in a positive change in their motivational behaviours as observed by the researcher. These behaviours were immediacy (verbal and non-verbal), motivational teaching style, and credibility. Two instruments (a classroom observation and a post-lesson evaluation) were used to evaluate teachers’ behaviours in order to provide an answer for this question. The analysis of the data obtained with these instruments indicated that there was a significant positive change in the teachers’ non-verbal immediacy, teaching style, and credibility behaviours in the experimental group. This change has resulted in significant differences between the teachers in the experimental group and those in the control group at test 2 (T2) in these behaviours.
5.4 3rd. Research Question (Q3)

What is the effect of the 10 micro motivational strategies implemented by teachers on students’ English language learning motivation?

To answer this question, we conducted the same sequence of analyses as those done for the teachers’ data in the previous sections on students’ classroom observation and questionnaire survey.

5.4.1 Effect of Motivational Strategies on Students’ Classroom Behaviour

The mixed model ANOVA test examined the effects of the condition, time, and condition x time factors on two students’ motivational behaviours in the language classroom: attention and participation. There was a significant main effect of time on both variables; there was no significant main effect of condition on any of the variables; and there was a significant effect of time by condition interaction. The statistics of these three tests are presented in Table 34.

Table 35: The mixed model ANOVA condition x Time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (students’ classroom observation data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Time Factor</th>
<th>Condition Factor</th>
<th>Combined Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$F$ (1, 12)</td>
<td>Sig. $\eta^2$</td>
<td>$F$ (1, 12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$F$ (1, 12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>14.04</td>
<td>.00 .54</td>
<td>1.08 .32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.57 .04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>21.77</td>
<td>.00 .65</td>
<td>.25 .63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ($F$) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, ($\eta^2$) = partial Eta squared.

As we can see in Table 35, the condition between-subjects ANOVA test indicates that the main effect of condition did not reach statistical significance in any of the observational variables of this scale representing no preexisting differences between students in the experimental and control groups with regard to their ‘attention’ and ‘participation’ before the experimental treatment started.
Table 36: Condition between-subject ANOVA on T1 students’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F (1, 12)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>ηp²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (SD) = standard deviation, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, (ηp²) = partial Eta squared, (No Sig.) = no significant differences were detected between the experimental and control groups in this variable at T1.

The figures of the time repeated measure ANOVA test in Table 36 show that the time factor had a high significant effect on the ‘attention’ F (1, 6) = 15.45, p<.05, ηp² =.72, and ‘participation’ F (1, 6) = 17.74, p<.05, ηp² =.75 in the experimental group. As this table shows, the two variables changed over time in the same positive direction (‘attention’ M = 1.43 at T1, 1.69 at T2, ‘participation’ M = 1.08 at T1, 1.49 at T2). This factor had no statistically significant effect on any of the variables in the control group (see Table 36).

Table 37: Time repeated measure ANOVA on students’ classroom observation data separately by group conditions (Experimental. vs. Control)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>EXP.</th>
<th>CONT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F (1, 6)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>T1. (Mean)</td>
<td>T2. (Mean)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>15.45</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>17.74</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, (ηp²) = Partial Eta squared.

Although the condition factor had no significant effect on students’ motivational variables at T1, showing no preexisting differences between students in the study groups at that time, an ANCOVA test confirmed that this factor had a statistically significant effect on these variables at T2 F (1, 11) = 7.41, p<.05, ηp² =.40 for ‘attention’, and F (1, 11) = 6.38, p<.05, ηp² =.37 for ‘participation’. This effect was large in both variables at

184
T2. The adjusted means showed a larger positive change in these variables in the experimental group (e.g. ‘attention’: $MM = 1.65$, $SD = .44$ in the experimental group; $MM = 1.43$, $SD = .28$ in the control group). All these findings suggest that the experimental intervention through implementing some motivational strategies in the experimental group resulted in a significant positive change in students’ ‘attention’ and ‘participation’ in that group and in significant differences between those learners and learners in the control group with regard to these variables. These findings answer the first part of our research third question (Q3).

Table 38: Condition between-subject ANCOVA on T2 students’ classroom observation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>$F$ (1, 11)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>$\eta^2_p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (M Mean) = Marginal means, (SD) = standard deviation, ($F$) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = significance value, ($\eta^2_p$) = Partial Eta square.

5.4.2 Effect of Motivational Strategies on Students’ Motivational Variables

Due to the comprehensive range of motivation variables the students’ questionnaire involved, and the very large number of participants responded to it, it was anticipated that the analyses of the data of this instrument would substantially contribute in answering the main research question (Q3) by giving us a clear idea about whether or not there was a change in students’ motivation.

A mixed-model ANOVA was conducted first. This test was expected to provide us with an overview of the key findings of the effects of three factors (condition, time, and condition x time) on the variables of interest in this survey. As can be seen in Table 38, the time factor had no significant effect ($ps > .05$) on variables like ‘learning anxiety,’ ‘English class anxiety,’ ‘English motivational intensity,’ ‘integrative motivation for learning English,’ ‘teacher’s personality,’ ‘evaluation of English course,’ or ‘EFL Learner’s motivational self-evaluation’ indicating that, this factor was not behind the significant changes that took place in these variables. On the other hand, this factor had
a significant effect (ps < .05) on other variables like ‘positive attributions for learning,’ ‘English self-efficacy,’ ‘intrinsic motivation for learning English,’ ‘evaluation of English teacher,’ reflecting that there were some changes over time in these variables. To decide whether or not the statistical significance detected for this factor in some variables was meaningful we tried to specify the size of the observed effects using the partial Eta squared (ηp²) values. The effect of time factor ranged from weak/small in some variables, e.g. ‘learning self-efficacy’, ηp² = .02, and ‘intrinsic motivation for learning’, ηp² = .02; moderate in ‘evaluation of the EFL group of learners’, ηp² = .08, and ‘collectivist’, ηp² = .10; to large in ‘positive attributions for learning’, ηp² = .50, ‘English self-efficacy’, ηp² = .60, ‘positive attributions for learning English’, ηp² = .47, and ‘Evaluation of English teacher’, ηp² = .53 (all ps <.05).

The effect of condition was found to be significant in all the motivational variables experimented in this study since the probability values (ps.) were found to be <.05 in all these variables with the exception of instrumental motivation for learning English (p = .50), and integrative motivation for learning English (p = .31). The size of the effect (ηp²) of condition was, however, smaller than that of time. This effect ranged from weak in some variables such as ‘learning self-efficacy’ F (1, 294) = 5.93, p <.05, ηp² = .02, and ‘English self-efficacy’ F (1, 294) = 7.04, p <.05, ηp² = .02; moderate in (e.g. ‘Evaluation of English course’ F (1, 294) = 41.34, p <.001, ηp² = .12), to quite large in (e.g. ‘teacher’s personality’ F (1, 294) = 106.58, p <.001, ηp² = .27). These figures suggest that although the intervention factor was found to have a statistically significant effect in most of the motivation variables experimented in this survey, the ηp² indicated that it did not have a large effect in the majority of these variables.

The effect of the interaction of time by condition factor on the motivational variables has identified the variables that changed over time differently for the experimental and the control groups. As we can see in Table 38, the interaction factor had a significant effect on 13 out of 19 variables (e.g. learning anxiety, intrinsic motivation for learning, English class anxiety, etc.). For the statistics of the rest of these variables as well as the other non-affected variables, see Table 38. The size effect (ηp²) of this factor was moderate in ‘EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation’ F (1, 294) = 31.68, p <.001, ηp² = .10, ‘teacher’s teaching style and competence’ F (1, 294) = 27.02, p <.001, ηp² = .08, and
‘teacher’s personality’ $F (1, 294) = 24.64, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .08$; and relatively small in all the other affected variables. This suggests that the interaction of time and condition factor had a significant small to moderate impact on the majority of the motivational variables tested in this study.

Table 39: The mixed model ANOVA condition x Time (time: repeated factor) on each T1/T2 variable at the time (students’ questionnaire data)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Time Factor</th>
<th>Condition Factor</th>
<th>Combined Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$F$ (1,294)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>$\eta^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning anxiety</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learning self-efficacy</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning</td>
<td>295.46</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>English class anxiety</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>English motivational intensity</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>English self-efficacy</td>
<td>448.96</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning</td>
<td>260.02</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Instrumental motivation for learning</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Integrative motivation for learning</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Evaluation of English teacher</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style and competence</td>
<td>14.92</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Teacher’s personality</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Evaluation of English course</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Evaluation of the EFL group of learners</td>
<td>26.89</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Collectivist</td>
<td>32.53</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Individualist</td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, ($\eta^2_p$) = partial Eta squared.
A condition between-subjects analysis of variance was performed next on T1 data. The goal of this test was to help us establish on which variables there were preexisting differences between the experimental and control groups at T1. As we can notice in Table 39, there were no significant differences \((ps > .05)\) between students in the two groups in terms of ‘learning anxiety,’ ‘learning self-efficacy,’ ‘English class anxiety,’ ‘English self efficacy,’ ‘instrumental motivation for learning English,’ and ‘integrative motivation for learning English.’ This factor had, on the other hand, a significant effect \((ps < .05)\) on variables such as ‘intrinsic motivation for learning,’ ‘English motivational intensity,’ ‘EFL Learner’s motivational self-evaluation,’ and the like, reflecting the existence of some differences between students in the study groups in these variables before the experimental manipulation was implemented. The size of most of these differences was, however, very small; (see the \(p\), \(\eta^2\), and \(F\) values in Table 39). The largest differences were in the students’ perceptions of the ‘teacher’s personality’ \(F(1,294) = 45.82, p < .001, \eta^2 = .14\), and their ‘evaluation of English teacher’ \(F(1,294) = 36.12, p < .001, \eta^2 = .11\). Among the many variables that scored very small significant differences were ‘positive attributions for learning’ \(F(1,294) = 7.36, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02\), ‘English motivational intensity’ \(F(1,294) = 4.75, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02\), and ‘intrinsic motivation for learning English’ \(F(1,294) = 5.23, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02\).

**Table 40: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 students’ questionnaire data on each variable at the time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>(F) (1,294)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>(\eta^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning anxiety</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learning self-efficacy</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>English class anxiety</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>English motivational intensity</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>English self-efficacy</td>
<td>No Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning English</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning English</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A within-subjects ANOVA analysis was then conducted to follow up formally
the significant condition and time interactions found in test 1. The aim was to
see whether or not the changes that occurred over time in some variables
were in expected directions and larger for experimental than control
group. As we can see in Table 40, the time factor had a significant effect
on all the variables in the experimental group with the exception of the ‘evaluation of
English course’. This factor had a lesser effect on the variables in the control
where only eight variables changed over time compared with eighteen variables in
the experimental group (see Table 40).

Table 41: Time repeated measure ANOVA on students’ questionnaire data separately by
group conditions (Experimental. vs. Control)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>EXP.</th>
<th>CONT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( F ) (1,152)</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning anxiety</td>
<td>9.55</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learning self-efficacy</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 40 shows, the effect of time was significant in both groups (Exp. and Cont.) for some variables (e.g. ‘learning anxiety’ $F(1, 152) = 9.55, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .06$ for the experimental group, and $F(1, 142) = 9.41, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .06$ for the control group). This table contains some statistics for the variables that changed over time in the two groups like (F statistics, p value ‘Sig.’, the partial Eta squared ‘$\eta^2_p$’, and the mean value) of each variable at T1 and T2.
As we can see in Table 40, the size of the significant change that occurred in these variables over time was larger in the experimental group for ‘English motivational intensity’ $F(1, 152) = 13.30, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .08$, ‘English self-efficacy’ $F(1, 152) = 248.86, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .62$, ‘collectivist’ $F(1, 152) = 26.71, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .15$, and ‘EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation’ $F(1, 152) = 30.33, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .17$. In the control group, the size of change was larger in some other variables like ‘positive attributions for learning’ $F(1, 142) = 161.34, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .53$, ‘positive attributions for learning English’ $F(1, 142) = 162.20, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .53$, and ‘evaluation of English teacher’ $F(1, 142) = 176.74, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .55$.

On the other hand, as Table 40 shows, there were some variables that significantly changed over time in only the experimental group such as ‘learning self-efficacy’ $F(1, 152) = 7.64, \ p < .05, \ \eta_p^2 = .05$, ‘intrinsic motivation for learning’ $F(1, 152) = 11.21, \ p < .01, \ \eta_p^2 = .07$, ‘English class anxiety’ $F(1, 152) = 27.81, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .16$, etc. The significant change for these variables in only the experimental group suggests that the experimental treatment implemented in this group has played a substantial role in producing this change.

The time factor had no significant effect on the evaluation of English course variables in this study as it did not significantly change over time in either group (Exp. and Cont.) as we can see in Table 40.

After concluding that the condition and time interaction had a larger effect in the experimental group than in the control group, we next conducted the necessary analyses to establish the direction of the significant change that took place in each group as a result of this effect. Table 40 displays some of the variables that significantly changed in the same direction, based on the effect size ($\eta_p^2$) and mean (M) scores over time in both the experimental and control groups. One of the variables that significantly changed in the same positive direction (increased at T2) in both groups was ‘English self efficacy’ $F(1, 152) = 248.86, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .62$, $M_{T1} = 5.39, M_{T2} = 6.54$ for the experimental group, and $F(1, 142) = 203.49, \ p < .001, \ \eta_p^2 = .59$, $M_{T1} = 5.15, M_{T2} = 6.35$ for control group. The only variable that changed in the similar negative direction (declined at T2) in both groups was ‘positive attributions for learning English’ $F(1,$
152) = 95.28, \( p < .001 \), \( \eta^2_p = .39 \), \( M_{T1} = 6.54 \), \( M_{T2} = 5.75 \) for the experimental group, and \( F (1, 142) = 162.02, \ p < .001 \), \( \eta^2_p = .53 \), \( M_{T1} = 6.44 \), \( M_{T2} = 5.17 \) for the control group. It is clear, based on the significant fall in the mean score of this variable in both groups, that learners were not in favour of attributing their L2 learning progress to positive causes like their high abilities or their teacher’s fascinating teaching style. This could be due to the fact elaborated by Dörnyei (2001b) that people usually tend to use negative rather than positive ability attributions when learning a foreign language. The other possible justification for such a fall could be the nature of the two items used in the final scale of this variable which were concerned with two stable/uncontrollable causes for success and failure in L2 learning (i.e. the learner’s ability and teacher’s style). According to Brophy (2004), the way people attribute success and failure in learning depends on whether the attributed causes are controllable and uncontrollable by the person as well as to whether they are stable or unstable across situations. It seems thus that participants did not tend to positively attribute their progress to uncontrollable/stable factors. It appears as well that the learners’ general tendency for negative attributions especially in the presence of uncontrollable attribution causes was a rationale for the clearly noticeable decline that took place in the learners’ L2 positive motivational attributions in the experimental group despite the implementation of some strategies which have focused explicitly on promoting learners’ L2 positive attributions in that group.

Although these variables significantly changed in the same direction in both groups, we can notice that the change that took place over time was not equal in the different groups. The significant change was larger in the positive direction (increased at T2) in the experimental group with regard to ‘intrinsic motivation for learning,’ ‘evaluation of the EFL group of learners,’ and ‘collectivist.’ In the control group, the change was larger in the positive direction for ‘positive attributions for learning,’ ‘English self-efficacy,’ and ‘evaluation of English teacher.’ We must note, however, that the larger positive change in these variables in the control group might be attributed to the higher mean values they scored at T2 compared with the low mean values they had at T1. It does not reflect higher means in the control group compared with the experimental group since the mean scores of all these variables were higher in the experimental group rather than the control group at both T1 and T2. The similar change in these variables implies that
the condition and time interaction had a similar effect on these variables in both the experimental and control groups.

There were some other variables that significantly changed in opposite directions in the two groups. One of these variables was ‘EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation’ $F(1, 152) = 30.33, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .17, M_{T1} = 5.30, M_{T2} = 5.69$ for the experimental group, and $F(1, 142) = 7.05, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .05, M_{T1} = 4.91, M_{T2} = 4.69$ for the control group. These variables changed differently over time in the two groups. They changed in the positive direction in the experimental group and in the negative direction in the control group (except for ‘learning self-efficacy’ where there was no change in the variable mean over time in this group). This indicates that the mean scores of these variables increased at T2 in the experimental groups while decreased in the control group, (see Table 40 for the rest of these variables). Based on the point made in the methodology chapter, p.120, that a high score in the “learning anxiety” variable suggests a low level of learning anxiety for learners, the change that took place in this variable $F(1, 152) = 9.55, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .06, M_{T1} = 4.64, M_{T2} = 4.95$ for the experimental group, and $F(1, 142) = 9.41, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .06, M_{T1} = 4.34, M_{T2} = 4.03$ for the control group is in line with the positive motivational change that took place in the experimental group. The higher mean this variable scored at T2 suggests a declining level of learning anxiety for the members of this group. At the same time, a significant negative change has taken place in this variable in the control group displaying increased levels of learning anxiety for the members of that group. The significant change that took place differently in the study groups could be attributed to the effect of the new strategies teachers used in the experimental group and to the time factor in the control group. The drop in mean of these variables in the control group at the post test confirmed a phenomenon noticed by some earlier studies conducted in the Saudi EFL context (see Al-Shammary, 1984; AlMaiman, 2005), which indicated that the relatively high levels of motivation of students as they start learning English decline over time until reaching their lowest levels by the end of the year. AlMaiman noticed that there was a decline in the post-test mean scores of all the motivational variables examined in his study, which were integrative motivation, parental encouragement, instrumental motivation, attitudes towards the learning situation, motivational intensity, desire to learn English, attitudes towards learning English, etc.
The final analysis conducted on this instrument was a condition between-subjects analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on T2 data (see Table 41). This analysis was anticipated to indicate whether the differences that appeared in some variables at T2 between the experimental and control groups had remained after the impact of these differences at T1 had been removed.

Table 42: Condition between-subjects ANCOVA on T2 students’ questionnaire data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>ηp²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning anxiety</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learning self-efficacy</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>7.85</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning</td>
<td>6.54</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>9.39</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>English class anxiety</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>English motivational intensity</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>English self-efficacy</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning English</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning English</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Instrumental motivation for learning English</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Integrative motivation for learning English</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>6.46</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Evaluation of English teacher</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style and competence</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Teacher’s personality</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Evaluation of English course</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Evaluation of the EFL group of learners</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Collectivist</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Individualist</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The figures in Table 41 show that after controlling for preexisting differences at T1, the condition (intervention) had a significant effect on all the variables at T2, except on ‘instrumental motivation for learning English’. If we compare the statistics found in Table 39 with those of Table 41, we can notice that all the variables that hold no significant differences between the experimental and control groups at T1 (e.g. ‘learning anxiety,’ ‘English class anxiety,’ ‘English self-efficacy’) became significantly different in the two groups at T2 (see Table 41). Moreover, the size of condition effect ($\eta_p^2$) was larger at T2 than T1 in 16 out of 18 variables that significantly changed at T2 (e.g. ‘intrinsic motivation for learning English’ $\eta_p^2 = .02$ at T1, .10 at T2, ‘EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation’ $\eta_p^2 = .03$ at T1, .14 at T2). The only variables that had no larger effects at T2 were ‘evaluation of English course’ in which this effect declined from .08 at T1 to .05 at T2, and ‘positive attributions for learning’ where the effect size of this factor was equal at T1 and T2 ($\eta_p^2 = .02$). The $F$ statistics were larger in all of the T2 variables than T1 variables except ‘positive attributions for learning,’ $F (1,294) = 7.36$ at T1, (1, 293) = 4.60 at T2, and ‘Evaluation of English course,’ $F (1,294) = 26.03$ at T1, (1, 293) =16 at T2. The adjusted means in all variables suggest a larger change in favour of experimental groups (e.g. ‘English class anxiety’: $MM = 5.16$, $SD = 1.44$ in the experimental group, $MM = 4.43$, $SD = 1.72$ in the control group).

The condition factor had a large effect at T2 on the ‘evaluation of English teacher,’ $F (1, 293) = 89$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .23$, and its two constituting dimensions: the ‘teacher’s teaching style and competence’ $F (1, 293) = 83$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$, and the ‘teacher’s personality’ $F (1, 293) = 75$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .21$. This factor had also a large effect on the ‘EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation’ $F (1, 293) = 47$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .14$. The largest effect scored for the ‘evaluation of English teacher’ is actually an interesting finding that deserves special consideration. There is a huge amount of theoretical research that acknowledges the teacher’s personal and teaching behaviours as the most powerful means for motivating students (see for example Oxford & Sherian, 1994; Wlodkowski, 1999; Burden, 2000; Dörnyei, 2001b; Brophy, 2004). This fact also
confirmed what was empirically established by many experimental studies (e.g. Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Chambers, 1999; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007): that demonstrating proper teacher behaviour should be seen as the main starting point where seeking improvements in students’ motivation should commence. It was also emphasised by the findings of the first data collection of this study. Demonstrating proper teacher behaviour should be accordingly the first strategy to be utilised in order to bring a change in learners’ motivation. It appears that the participating EFL teachers in the current study have practically recognised their role as the most important players in the game of motivating their learners by utilising what they previously acknowledged as the most important strategy for motivating those learners in their teaching practices. Students’ perceptions of their teachers seem to be consequently positively affected by such recognition, which resulted in positive evaluation of their teachers’ practices. This conclusion is in line with Dörnyei’s (2001b, p. 120) claim that “[a]lmost everything a teacher does in the classroom has a motivational influence on students, which makes teacher behaviour the most powerful motivational tool.” As far as our study is concerned, the results from the analysis of the teachers’ classroom observation and the post-lesson evaluation instruments leave very little doubt that the teachers’ enhanced motivational behaviours in the experimental group were regarded very positively by the learners in this group and were responsible for a significant increase in learner motivation along a range of motivational dimensions.

The large effect that the intervention had on variable 19 in the students’ survey is also an interesting finding as this variable was the best indicator of students’ state motivation. This finding suggests that students’ state motivation, which was the main target of our experimental treatment, was strongly influenced by the treatment. This finding is further addressed in relation to research questions 3 and 4.

The condition/intervention was found to have a moderate effect in seven student variables such as ‘learning anxiety’ $F(1, 293) = 31, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .10$, ‘English class anxiety’ $F(1, 293) = 25, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .08$, ‘intrinsic motivation for learning English’ $F(1, 293) = 33, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .10$, etc. This factor had a small effect on the other seven variables (e.g. ‘learning self-efficacy’ $F(1, 293) = 7.85, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .03$, ‘intrinsic motivation for learning’ $F(1, 293) = 9.39, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .03$, ‘integrative motivation for
learning English’ $F(1, 293) = 6.50, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .02$. The small size effect of the intervention in these seven variables should not be of real concern due to the experimental nature of our study as well as to the area of research where this study was conducted. Tabachnik and Fidell (2007) have explained that experimental studies tend to have smaller effects than non-experimental studies especially in the fields of education and psychology.

In answer to the question as to whether motivational strategies affect students’ motivation, it seems undeniable that implementing motivational strategies in different Saudi EFL classrooms resulted in a significant positive change in the learners’ L2 motivation in these classes. This conclusion is consistent with Guilloteaux and Dörnyei’s (2008) study in the South Korean EFL context, which established that the limited motivational practice implemented by EFL teachers in that context was associated with a significant difference in students’ motivation. The findings of our study (alongside the South Korean one) have largely justified the strong claims grounded in the theoretical literature about the potential usefulness of motivational strategies (see for example Williams & Burden, 1997; Wlodkowski, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001b; Pintrich & Schunck, 2002; Brophy, 2004). These findings have also addressed the concerns raised by some previous studies like Gardner and Tremblay’s (1994) about the need empirically to test and validate the effectiveness of motivational strategies in language classes. It is necessary to note that our study involved examining the effects of a range of individual motivational strategies while Guilloteaux and Dörnyei’s (2008) study focused on the teachers’ motivational practice as a whole, but regardless of the differences, the two studies provide solid empirical evidence for the value of using motivational strategies in the language classrooms.

The only variable that was not significantly affected by the experimental intervention in this study (i.e. ‘instrumental motivation for learning English’) deserves some commentary. Many previous studies that investigated the role of L2 motivation in the Saudi EFL context (e.g. Al-Shamary, 1984; Al-Amr, 1998; Al-Otaibi, 2004; Alrabai, 2007) found that Saudi EFL learners were instrumentally motivated in the first place. This fact was confirmed by the high (and almost equal) mean values this variable scored at T1 in both the experimental and control groups ($M = 6.58$ for Exp., $6.57$ for Cont.). Given these originally existing high values, one cannot realistically expect that an
experimental intervention would make a significant difference in the instrumental motivation of Saudi EFL learners. This finding confirms Brophy’s (1998) assumption that by using strategies to enhance learners’ L2 instrumental values we do not need to change or improve existing values but rather simply link the successful completion of tasks to consequences that students already value. Brophy seemed thus to have anticipated no change in learners’ pre-existing sources of instrumental motivation even in the presence of experimental interference as the case was with Saudi EFL learners in this study.

In order to seek further validation for the noticeable positive change in students’ motivation that emerged from the analysis of the two previous surveys, this study examined the change that took place in students’ trait and state motivation. There were only four trait motivation variables tested in the study: ‘learning anxiety,’ ‘learning self-efficacy,’ ‘positive attributions for learning,’ and ‘intrinsic motivation for learning.’ The other trait variables: ‘need for achievement,’ ‘extrinsic motivation for learning,’ and ‘negative attributions for learning’ were excluded in the final analyses as they were found to be unreliable scales. In addition to the four trait variables, the final survey comprised fifteen state motivation variables (variables 5-19 in Table 41).

To detect the type and amount of change that occurred in variables at each level in the study groups, we computed one variable for trait motivation and another variable for state motivation and performed a two-way between-subjects analysis of variance to identify the preexisting differences between the experimental and control groups at T1 in these two variables.

As we can see in Table 42, the ANOVA test at T1 indicates that the condition factor had a statistically significant effect on students’ trait and state motivation, which suggests that there were some preexisting differences between subjects in the experimental and control groups in these variables before the experimental treatment. These differences were small in trait motivation $F (1,294) = 9.32, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .03$, and moderate in state motivation $F (1,294) = 28.87, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .09$. 
Table 43: Condition between-subjects ANOVA on T1 students’ trait & state motivation data on each variable at the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F (1, 294)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>ηp²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Trait motivation</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>9.32</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>State motivation</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>28.87</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (SD) = standard deviation, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = p value, (ηp²) = partial Eta squared.

After that, we carried out a condition between-subject ANCOVA test after specifying the T1 variables as ‘covariates’ in order to control for their likely effects on T2 scores. The ANCOVA test revealed the effect size of the condition factor that took place after T1 test and the direction of this effect in the experimental and control group as we can see in Table 43.

Table 44: Condition between-subjects ANCOVA on T2 students’ trait & state motivation data on each variable at the time (T1 variable as covariate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Exp. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cont. (M Mean)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F (1, 293)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>ηp²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Trait motivation</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>25.79</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>State motivation</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>62.96</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. (Exp.) = experimental group, (Cont.) = control group, (M Mean) = Marginal means, (SD) = standard deviation, (F) = variance of the group means, (Sig.) = significance value, (ηp²) = Partial Eta square.

The figures in Table 43 show that after controlling for the preexisting differences that emerged in the trait and state motivation variables at T1, the condition (intervention) had a statistically significant effect on these variables at T2. The effect of this factor was moderate in the trait motivation $F(1,293) = 25.79, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .08$, and large in state motivation $F(1,293) = 62.96, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .18$. The adjusted means suggested a large positive change in the two variables in favour of the experimental group (e.g. state motivation: $MM = 5.79, SD = .53$ in the experimental group, and $MM = 5.36, SD = .70$ in the control group). These findings imply that regardless of the preexisting differences that appeared between students in the study groups at T1, utilising certain motivational
strategies in the experimental group classes had a larger statistically significant positive effect on both the trait and state motivation of learners in that group. As we can see in Table 43, this effect was larger in the state motivation variable, which was actually the main target of most of our research strategies. The larger increase in students’ state motivation went in line with the findings of Frymier (1993) who found in his study for the impact of teachers’ immediacy on students’ motivation over one semester that students who began the semester with low or moderate state motivation had increased levels of motivation later in the semester when exposed to a highly immediate teacher. This also validates what we obtained in more than one place (e.g. the large effect the condition factor had on ‘EFL learners’ motivational self-evaluation’ variable in students’ survey, the positive correlation between ‘teachers’ non-verbal immediacy’ and ‘credibility’ with their students’ state motivation as we will see later, that the experimental intervention had a positive effect on students’ state motivation in the experimental group at T2. This verifies Christophel’s (1990) finding that teachers’ immediacy behaviours can affect and modify students’ state motivation levels. The significant larger change occurred in learners’ trait motivation in the experimental group at T2 could be attributed to the positive larger change occurred in their state motivation at that time. Guilloteaux (2007) hypothesised that appropriate teacher’s interventions designed to stimulate state motivation would have positive repercussions on trait motivation. In summary, a positive change occurred in students’ trait and state motivation in the experimental group at T2 which can be attributed to the use of motivational strategies in that group.

In order to establish whether the motivational behaviours of the participating teachers interrelated with students’ motivational variables examined in this study, a standard Pearson correlation analysis was performed. As a requisite procedure to run these correlations, we computed composite variable(s) for each scale by calculating the means of the variables in that scale. For example, the mean scores of the non-verbal immediacy variables (e.g. ‘body movement,’ ‘eye contact,’ ‘facial expressions,’ etc.) were computed in one composite index named “teacher’s non-verbal immediacy behaviours” because all these items addressed one single behaviour: the teacher’s non-verbal immediacy. The means of the indices in the students’ questionnaire were computed in two composite variables representing the two main conceptualisations of motivation examined in this study: “students’ trait motivation” and “students’ state motivation.” As
the variables in students’ classroom observation were all concerned with measuring the
students’ motivational reaction at the classroom level, they were computed in a single
composite variable “students’ observed motivation.” Each of the variables in the
teachers’ post-lesson evaluation scale (i.e. teacher’s teaching style, teacher’s verbal
immediacy, and teacher’s credibility) was treated as a distinct single index since they
were found to affect learners’ motivation independently.

The first correlation analysis examined the relationship between the variables that were
computed to represent the teacher’s behaviours (i.e. the teacher’s non-verbal immediacy,
his/her motivational teaching style, verbal immediacy, and the teacher’s credibility), and
the other variables that represented students’ motivation; these were students’ trait
motivation, state motivation, and students’ observed motivation.

To make the data of these scales comparable, we got a mean score for each scale in each
of the 14 study groups. For instance, we obtained the mean score for the non-verbal
immediacy behaviours of the teacher taught in group 3 by dividing the total mean score
of these behaviours in that group by their total number. The means of students’ data in
each group were obtained in the same way. This procedure enabled us to merge the
students’ data with teachers’ data in one data file.

As the data of these instruments were pooled from various subsamples (teachers and
students in experimental and control groups) at two different periods of time (T1 and
T2), we tried to control for the heterogeneous nature of subsamples by standardizing our
data. This involved the conversion of the distribution within the sample in a way that the
mean was 0 and the standard deviation 1 (Dörnyei, 2007b). Gardner (1985) and Dörnyei
(2007b) have hypothesised that this transformation is permissible with correlation-based
analyses and that it makes the scores obtained from different subsamples readily
comparable by equalising the mean scores in these subsamples. We obtained the
standardised scores of the composite measures and finally submitted them to correlation
analysis. Table 44 contains the Pearson ($r$) coefficients of the significant correlations
between the teachers’ and students’ motivational behaviours in each of the study groups
(experimental and control) at T1 and T2.
Table 45: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teachers’ and students’ motivational behaviours in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Students’ trait motivation</th>
<th>Students’ state motivation</th>
<th>Students’ observed motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exp. T1 r</td>
<td>Exp. T2 r</td>
<td>T1 r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s non-verbal immediacy</td>
<td>X X X X</td>
<td>.87*</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td>X X X X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s verbal immediacy</td>
<td>X X X X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td>X X X X</td>
<td>.80*</td>
<td>.86*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. X = no significant correlation was detected between the two variables, * p < .05, ** p < .01.

As we can see in the table above there was no significant correlation between the teachers’ non-verbal immediacy behaviours and students’ motivation variables at T1 in neither the experimental nor the control group. This represents no relationship between the two variables in the different groups over time 1. The teachers’ non-verbal immediacy variable was not interrelated with students’ motivational variables in the control group at T2 either. There was, however, a significant positive correlation between this variable and students’ state motivation (r = .87) and students’ observed motivation, (r = .76) in the experimental group at T2. The positive correlation between teachers’ non-verbal immediacy and students’ state motivation is well-established in the literature (see for example Christophel, 1990; Frymier, 1993, 1994; Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Pogue & Ahyun, 2006).

The teachers’ teaching styles had no significant correlation with any of the students’ motivational variables in the study groups over either T1 or T2 indicating no relationship with students’ motivation in either of the groups.

The only motivation variable that the teacher’s verbal immediacy behaviours had a significant correlation with was the students’ observed motivation (r = .77) in the experimental group at T2. This is consistent with Frymier’s (1993) statement that both verbal and non-verbal immediacy are clearly useful behaviours in the classroom for enhancing students’ motivation. This variable was not interrelated with any other variable elsewhere.
It is well-acknowledged in the literature that the perceptions of teacher’s credibility are usually positively associated with students’ motivation (e.g. Frymier & Thompson, 1992; Martin et al., 1997; Pogue & Ahyun, 2006). This was clearly represented in our study when this variable had more of a relationship with students’ motivation. This variable had a high significant positive correlation with students’ state motivation in the experimental and control groups at T1 ($r_s = .80$ for experimental, $.88$ for control) and another significant correlation with the same variable in the experimental group at T2 ($r = .86$). It had also a significant positive relationship with students’ observed motivation in the experimental group at T2 ($r = .83$).

Some earlier studies (e.g. Thweatt & McCroskey, 1998; Thweatt, 1999; Teven & Hanson, 2004) found that teachers’ immediacy was positively correlated with their perceived credibility assuming that teachers who were more immediate were perceived as more credible. This relationship has been tested in our study by running a correlation analysis between the two variables in the two study groups over T1 and T2.

As Table 45 shows, the teachers’ overall immediacy had a very strong positive correlation with their credibility behaviours in the experimental group at both T1 and T2 ($r_s = .82$ at T1, $.91$ at T2) and at only T2 for the teachers in the control group ($r = .86$). This suggests that the more immediate the teachers were, the more credible they were perceived to be by their students in both groups. Teachers’ verbal immediacy was correlating with their credibility just in the control group at T2 ($r = .79$) and did not correlate to the credibility behaviours of the teachers in the experimental group. There was on the other hand a high significant positive correlation between the teachers’ non-verbal immediacy and their credibility in the experimental group at both tests ($r_s = .88$ at T1, $.92$ at T2). These variables were also correlating in the control group at just T1 ($r = .92$). All these significant correlations are in line with what earlier studies like Thweatt and McCroskey (1998) and Thweatt (1999) concluded that the teachers’ immediacy was positively correlated with their perceived credibility (see Table 45).
Table 46: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teachers’ immediacy behaviours and their credibility in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Teachers’ verbal immediacy</th>
<th>Teachers’ non-verbal immediacy</th>
<th>Teachers’ immediacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T1  r</td>
<td>T2  r</td>
<td>T1  r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.92**</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>.82*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. X = no significant correlation was detected between the two variables, * p <.05, ** p <.01.

In order to establish the relationship between the overall teachers’ motivational practices and students’ overall motivation we computed further composite measures. The mean scores of the teacher’s non-verbal immediacy, teaching style, verbal immediacy, and the teacher’s credibility variables were computed in one single measure: “the teacher’s motivational practice.” Students’ trait motivation, state motivation, and students’ observed motivation were composited in a single measure labelled “students’ motivation.”

We first tested the relationship between each single variable of the teachers’ behaviours and students’ overall motivation; the results are shown in Table 46.

Table 47: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teacher’s motivational behaviours and students’ overall motivation in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Students’ motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T1 r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s non-verbal immediacy</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s verbal immediacy</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s credibility</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. X = no significant correlation was detected between the two variables, * p <.05.
As the figures in Table 46 show, the only teacher’s behaviours that had significant relationships with students’ motivation were teacher’s non-verbal immediacy and teacher’s credibility. The teacher’s non-verbal immediacy explained a high significant positive correlation with students’ motivation in only the experimental group at T2 (\(r = .84\)). The teacher’s credibility variable interrelated differently over time with students’ motivation in the study groups. It showed a significant positive relationship with students’ motivation in the control group at T1 (\(r = .76\)), and the same relationship in only the experimental group at T2 (\(r = .82\)).

We finally examined the relationship between the teachers’ overall motivational practices and students’ overall motivation, (see Table 47).

**Table 48: The Pearson coefficients (r) for the significant correlations between teacher’s motivational practice and students’ motivation in (Exp. and Cont.) groups at T1 and T2.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Students’ motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s motivational practice</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. X = no significant correlation was detected between the two variables, *p < .05.*

As we can see in Table 47, the teacher’s overall motivational practice had a significant positive correlation with students’ motivation in only the experimental group at T2 (\(r = .81\)), reflecting a strong relationship between the two variables in that group at that specific time. Correlation research has been criticised for its inability to identify cause and effect relations (cf. Dörnyei, 2001, 2007), but in light of the data presented in Table 47 it seems very likely that it was the teachers’ motivational practices that influenced students’ motivation in the experimental group and resulted in such a significant positive relationship between the two variables in this group.

In summary, the correlational analyses undertaken to identify the relationship between teachers’ practices and students’ motivation in the study groups over T1 and T2 confirms that teachers’ practices and students’ motivation were more related to each other in the experimental group than the control group. Given that the teacher’s overall motivational practices correlated with students’ motivation in only the experimental
group at T2 confirms that teachers’ behaviours in this group did affect their students’ motivation.

5.4.3 Summary

This research question targeted the changes in students’ L2 motivation that were anticipated to occur as a result of the implementation of a range of motivational strategies in the experimental classes. Students’ motivation was operationalised in terms of their classroom motivational reaction (attention and participation) as well as other variables concerning their trait and state motivations for learning English. Two instruments (a classroom observation and a questionnaire survey) were used to track the possible changes in students’ motivation. The analysis of the data of these instruments revealed that the experimental treatment had a considerable significant effect on the majority of the variables experimented in these surveys. This effect has resulted in a significant positive change in all students’ motivational variables in the experimental group (except ‘evaluation of English course’ variable). It also resulted in significant differences between those students and students in the control group in all these variables at T2 (except in ‘instrumental motivation for learning English’). These findings were additionally reinforced by the positive significant change in the overall trait and state motivations for learners in the experimental group as well as the significant correlation detected between teachers’ practices and students’ motivation at T2 in that group.
5.5 4th. Research Question (Q4)

Which L2 macro motivational strategies are likely to work best towards making a change in Saudi students’ English language learning motivation?

Dörnyei’s (1994) model of foreign language motivation was the foundation on which Dörnyei’s (2001) systematic framework of motivational strategies was built. The latter was the source after which most of the motivational strategies in the current study were modeled after. As discussed in the literature review chapter, Dörnyei’s (1994) model comprises different motivational variables that are categorised on three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. Dörnyei’s (2001) model of motivational strategies, on the other hand, comprises a variety of macro and micro motivational strategies. Six of the macro strategies of this model have been utilised in this study. One of these scales/macro strategies is ‘promoting L2 related values’ which was utilised to affect certain variables at the language level, such as EFL intrinsic motivation, integrative motivation, and instrumental motivation. Another macro strategy was ‘diminishing learners’ anxiety and promoting their self-confidence,’ which targeted variables at the learner level like English class anxiety, English self-efficacy, and positive attributions for learning English. Other macro strategies like ‘enhancing learners’ expectancy of success,’ ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour,’ ‘making learning stimulating and enjoyable,’ and ‘enhancing learner’s group cohesiveness’ were concerned with variables at the learning situation level. Based on what has been hypothesised by many earlier studies (e.g. Mitchell & Nebeker, 1973; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Wen, 1997), viz. that the effort students execute on tasks is determined by their expectations of success, ‘enhancing learners’ expectancy of success’ was measured by learners’ English motivational intensity as a component relating to the attitudes towards English course. ‘Making learning stimulating and enjoyable’ targeted other course-specific components as well. ‘Demonstrating proper teacher behaviour’ was concerned with some attitudinal variables relating to the L2 teacher like the overall evaluation of the teacher, the teacher’s teaching style and competence, and the teacher’s personality. ‘Enhancing learner’s group cohesiveness’ targeted some of the learners’ group variables like the general evaluation of the EFL group of learners, collectivist, and individualist. Our study attempted to examine how the utilisation of some of the strategies proposed
in Dörnyei’s (2001) model of motivational strategies has affected certain motivational variables included in Dörnyei’s (1994) model of foreign language motivation.

Our answer to this question is based on the effect size ($\eta_p^2$) of the condition factor that took place in each of the variables in Table 41 at T2. Due to the fact that the motivational strategies in our study were initially developed to enhance the EFL learners’ motivation, we limited the answer of this question to the variables that were more concerned with measuring learners’ motivation towards learning English (variables 5-18 in Table 41). Variable 19 was excluded as it comprised a variety of items that could similarly measure different variables at the three different levels of the model.

In order to identify the most effective of the utilised strategies we divided the total effect size ($\eta_p^2$) of the whole strategies in each group by the number of strategies in that group. The higher the computed effect size of a strategy, the more influential it was considered. As we can see in Table 48, out of all strategies, ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour’ was found to be the most effective with the highest computed effect size of .22. Despite the fact that all the other clusters of strategies had significant effects on the motivational variables tested in this study, their values are much lower than that of ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour’ with effect size index under .10 for all these strategies (see Table 48).

**Table 49: The macro motivational strategies in Dörnyei’s (2001) model ranked according to their effectiveness in making changes in students’ motivational variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking (Best effect)</th>
<th>Macro strategy</th>
<th>Targeted variable(s)</th>
<th>Effect size index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>Demonstrating proper teacher behaviour.</td>
<td>▪ Evaluation of English teacher (12), ▪ Teacher’s teaching style and competence (13), and ▪ Teacher’s personality (14).</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>Enhancing learners' expectancy of success.</td>
<td>▪ English motivational intensity (6).</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3A)</td>
<td>Diminishing learners’ anxiety and promoting their self-confidence.</td>
<td>▪ English class anxiety (5), ▪ English self-efficacy (7), and ▪ Positive attributions for learning English (9).</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(3B) Enhancing learner’s group cohesiveness.
- Evaluation of the EFL group of learners (16),
- Collectivist (17), and
- Individualist (18).

(5) Making learning stimulating and enjoyable.
- Evaluation of English course (15).

(6) Promoting learners’ L2 related values.
- Intrinsic motivation for learning English (8),
- Instrumental motivation for learning English (10), and
- Integrative motivation for learning English (11).

We also relied on the effect size ($\eta^2_p$) of the condition factor that occurred in each variable at T2 (see Table 41) to deduce the variables that were affected most by our experimental intervention. The effect size of each group of variables at each level was computed by dividing the total size effect of the whole variables in that level by their total number. The higher the effect size of a variable, the more affected the variable was considered. As Table 49 shows, the highest effect for our experiment occurred at the learning situation level of the L2 motivation construct (computed $\eta^2_p = .12$). The other two levels were also significantly affected but the effect size was much lower than that of the learning situation level ($\eta^2_p = .06$ at the learner level, and .04 at the language level). The most affected level comprised three sub-levels of motivational components. Variables 6 and 15 measured some components relating to the attitudes towards English course. The other variables measured some of the attitudinal variables relating to the L2 teacher (12, 13, and 14), and the EFL group of learners (16, 17, 18). The most affected of these sub-levels was the teacher-specific motivational components level with a computed size effect of ($\eta^2_p = .22$). The other two sub-levels were moderately affected by the experimental manipulation ($\eta^2_p = .07$ for course-specific motivational components, and .06 for group-specific motivational components) as we can see in Table 49. The figures in this table, as well as those in Table 48, confirm that the motivational behaviours of the teachers in the experimental classes have been positively affected by the motivational strategies they utilised.
Table 50: The levels of variables in Dörnyei’s (1994) model ranked according to the degree they were affected by motivational strategies implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ranking (Most affected)</th>
<th>Level/Sub-level</th>
<th>Utilised Variables</th>
<th>Effect size index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>Learning situation level</td>
<td>6, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1A)</td>
<td>* Teacher-specific motivational components *</td>
<td>• Evaluation of English teacher (12), • Teacher’s teaching style and competence (13), and • Teacher’s personality (14).</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1B)</td>
<td>* Course-specific motivational components *</td>
<td>• English motivational intensity (6). • Evaluation of English course (15).</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1C)</td>
<td>* Group-specific motivational components *</td>
<td>• Evaluation of the EFL group of learners (16), • Collectivist (17), and • Individualist (18).</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>Learner level</td>
<td>• English class anxiety (5), • English self-efficacy (7), and • Positive attributions for learning English (9).</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>Language level</td>
<td>• Intrinsic motivation for learning English (8), • Instrumental motivation for learning English (10), and • Integrative motivation for learning English (11).</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. * indicates a sub-level.*

5.5.1 Summary

This question examined how the utilisation of some motivational strategies influenced particular language learning motivational variables. The motivational strategies (e.g. demonstrating proper teacher behaviour, making learning stimulating and enjoyable, promoting learners’ self-confidence, etc.) were basically drawn from Dörnyei’s (2001) framework of motivational strategies. The tested variables were, on the other hand, modeled after similar variables (e.g. instrumental motivation, self-efficacy, motivational attributions, evaluation of English teacher, etc.) in Dörnyei’s (1994) model of L2 motivation. The effect size of the condition factor in the experimental group showed that demonstrating proper teacher behaviour was the most effective strategy used in this study. This resulted in the teacher’s motivational variables being the most affected by the implementation of motivational strategies.
Chapter 6
Conclusions, Contributions, Limitations, and Implications

6.1 Overview
This chapter brings our study to its conclusion. The chapter begins by reviewing the study and summarising its major findings as well as the contributions its empirical investigations make to the study of L2 motivation. It then outlines some of the limitations that came into play at certain stages of the study. The chapter concludes by offering some implications to improve EFL teaching/learning in the Saudi EFL context and finally identifies some directions for future research in the field of L2 motivation to be investigated.

6.2 General Review
The chief goal of this study was to examine the effectiveness of certain motivational strategies in promoting the L2 motivation of Saudi EFL learners in their EFL classes. For this purpose, the study conducted an empirical investigation over two different stages. In the first stage, primary data were collected with regard to how EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia consider some specific motivational strategies as important to be used in the language classrooms to promote learners’ L2 motivation. In relation to this, the study utilised a 53-item questionnaire survey among 119 EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia whereby they were asked to rate each single strategy on a five-point Likert scale ranging from not important to very important. Based on the participating teachers’ responses, the top 10 motivational micro strategies that were implemented in the Saudi EFL classes at the second stage of the experiment were identified.

At the second stage, 296 EFL students and 14 teachers were recruited. Students were divided into two groups: an experimental group that was exposed to the pre-selected 10
motivational strategies in their classes, and a control group whose EFL instruction followed the classical way of teaching. At this stage, the study used classroom observations to evaluate the teachers’ motivational practices and students’ motivated behaviours. A students’ questionnaire survey and a teachers’ post-lesson evaluation instrument were also used so as to increase the reliability of students’ and teachers’ motivational behaviours evaluation. Motivational surveys and classroom observations were conducted pre and post the experimental period. Based on the findings obtained from the analysis of the data collected at this stage, the effect of the motivational strategies utilised in the experimental group was recognised.

6.3 Summary of the Major Findings of the Study

There were many noteworthy findings that emerged from the analysis of the data collected for this project.

6.3.1 Summary of the Major Findings of the Empirical Investigation at the First Stage

The experimental investigation at the first stage of this study has revealed many interesting findings. A significant one of these findings is that participating teachers perceived most of the motivational strategies they rated as important for motivating Saudi EFL learners. Those participants considered demonstrating proper teacher behaviour to students as the most important macro strategy for this purpose. They also placed high importance on other macro strategies like increasing learners’ satisfaction, making learning stimulating and enjoyable, increasing the learners’ expectancy of success, diminishing learners’ anxiety and building up their self-confidence, and familiarising learners with L2 culture and L2 related values.

Those participants, on the other hand, considered promoting learners’ autonomy, and promoting group cohesiveness and setting group norms as of middle importance to increase learners’ L2 motivation. Promoting learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs, and creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere were perceived as of little importance in this respect.
Another significant finding of the experimental study at this stage was that the ranking provided by participants in the current study was similar to most of the ranking provided in the studies of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Hungary and Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan on motivational strategies. For example, all the three studies have ranked demonstrating proper teacher behaviour similarly as the top most important motivational macro strategy for enhancing students’ L2 motivation. Promoting learners’ autonomy and promoting group cohesiveness and setting group norms were regarded as less important for this purpose by all the three studies. The ranking of making learning stimulating and enjoyable and creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere in this study was, however, different from their ranking in the other two studies.

A third major finding of the first empirical investigation of this study was that it revealed the top 10 micro/individual motivational strategies that were implemented in the Saudi EFL classes at the second stage of the study. These micro strategies have represented different motivational aspects. Show students that you care about their progress, show students that you accept and care about them, recognise students’ effort and achievement, and be mentally and physically available to respond to your students’ academic needs in the classroom have all represented the importance of ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour to students.’ Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format, make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them, and ‘relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students have embodied the importance of ‘making learning stimulating and enjoyable.’ ‘Promoting learners’ L2 related values’ was characterised by two micro strategies: increase the amount of English you use in the language classroom and remind students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language. Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed indicated the importance of ‘promoting learners’ self-confidence.’
6.3.2 Summary of the Major Findings of the Empirical Investigation at the Second Stage

The experimental treatment at the second stage of this project has revealed some remarkable findings. It was clear that the utilisation of certain micro motivational strategies in EFL instruction resulted in a positive change in most of the teachers’ motivational behaviours like their ‘non-verbal immediacy’ behaviours (e.g. body movement, vocal expressions, facial expressions, etc.) as well as their ‘teaching style’ and ‘credibility’ behaviours. Such a positive change has accordingly resulted in significant differences between the experimental teachers and the teachers in the control group where no such change was observed.

The experimental intervention also resulted in a significant positive change in students’ L2 motivation in the experimental classes. There were some improvements in their classroom attention and participation behaviours as well as in many other motivational variables relating to different aspects of students’ trait and state motivation. This intervention has resulted in some statistically significant differences between students in the study’s two groups. While a positive change was detected in learners’ motivation in the experimental group, no such change was established with regard to the learners in the control group.

The teacher’s overall motivational practices had a significant positive correlation with students’ overall motivation in only the experimental group at T2 suggesting that the positive changes occurred in the teachers’ motivational practices have positively affected learners’ motivated behaviours in that group.

Out of all the strategies utilised in our experiment, ‘demonstrating proper teacher behaviour’ was found to be the most effective strategy resulting in the teacher-specific motivational components being the most affected variables by the experimental treatment.

6.4 Contributions of the Study

A major contribution of this study is the original novel way in which it approached the study of L2 motivation, which has not been part of previous studies elsewhere. This
approach involved examining the direct relationship between the motivational strategies use and students’ motivation in the EFL classes. This was conducted by identifying empirically the strategies that teachers of English in Saudi Arabia perceive as the most important to enhance L2 students’ motivation in that context as a first step. The next step involved designing, based on both theoretical and empirical literature, a guide of implementation that was used for the utilisation of selected motivational strategies in the experimental EFL classes during the treatment period.

The findings of this study provide strong support for theoretically grounded claims (e.g. Williams & Burden, 1997; Wlodkowski, 1999; Pintrich & Schunck, 2002; Brophy, 2004) about the effectiveness of motivational strategies in promoting students’ language motivation.

The study’s results additionally reinforce the importance of the language teacher’s teaching behaviours as the most powerful tool for motivating students (see Oxford & Sherian, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001b; Brophy, 2004; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Chambers, 1999; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007).

6.5 Limitations of the Study

This section summarises some of the major limitations that were faced in the course of the study. First of all, the study confined its focus to the issue of motivational strategies and did not study other aspects of L2 motivation (e.g. how the positive changes detected in students’ motivation as a consequence of the implementation of motivational strategies could affect their L2 achievement).

Another limitation for this study lies in the fact highlighted by Dörnyei (1994, 2001b) that the proposed motivational strategies are not rock-solid golden rules, but rather suggestions that may work with one teacher or group better than another due to the differences amongst the learners in their culture, age, proficiency level, the relationship to the target language, etc. It is unclear therefore, whether the motivational strategies tested in the current study would be as effective with different populations of language learners and in different socio-cultural and educational contexts.
The study examined instructional motivational strategies utilised by the EFL teacher. Self-regulating motivational strategies used by the EFL learner were not considered in our study.

There is also a variety of other factors different from instructional motivational strategies that can contribute to enhancing the language learners’ motivation (e.g. types of learning materials used in the classroom). These factors have not been utilised in the current study.

A further limitation of this study concerns the lack of female participants in its second stage. This was completely due to the fact that there is no co-education in Saudi Arabia as a result of religious and cultural restrictions. Females (both students and teachers) in Saudi Arabia study and teach in schools and colleges that are completely separated from those of males and it is impossible for a male individual to have an access to their institutions.

Furthermore, this study did not investigate how the EFL teacher’s own motivation to teach the foreign language can affect his/her utilisation of motivational strategies.

A final limitation for this study lies in the nature of the short period of training to which the participating teachers in the experimental classes at the second stage were exposed. This training was conducted by the researcher himself for just a short time, which raises the question about the sufficiency and soundness of the training. Teachers should be exposed to comprehensive and professional training on the use of motivational strategies.

6.6 Implications of the Study

This study suggests a number of implications and recommendations for EFL instructors, EFL learners, EFL curriculum designers, and EFL policy makers in Saudi Arabia; and for future researchers in the field of L2 motivation.

Most of the recommendations provided here concern EFL educators in Saudi Arabia since they are the main players in the course of motivating students to learn the foreign language. In addition, the recommendations will concentrate more on some of the
mostly ignored aspects of students’ motivation in such a procedure in Saudi Arabia (e.g. promoting learners’ self-confidence and autonomy).

Teachers should be aware of the importance of integrating motivational and instructional practices in their language classes. This study recommends that they should take their students’ motivation into account and behave as models when demonstrating both their personal and teaching behaviours in the classrooms. Teachers should first demonstrate proper behaviours to students by showing passion and enthusiasm for teaching the foreign language, showing commitment towards students’ progress, and developing positive personal relationships with students. Those teachers should also promote learners’ satisfaction about learning English through providing them with both intrinsically and extrinsically satisfaction-promoting outcomes. Further, they ought to arouse learners’ curiosity and sustain their interest to learn English by making learning stimulating and enjoyable. Teachers should also try to increase the learners’ expectancy of success in learning the foreign language so as to enhance their motivation to learn it.

In addition, educators should do their best to diminish learners’ anxiety and build up their self-confidence. In this respect, they should avoid some of the misbehaviours that teachers usually act against their students like the aggressive criticism and the acts that may embarrass students in front of their classmates. They should also promote cooperative learning in which students work together instead of competitive learning, avoid the public comparisons of the performance or grades of students, show faith in students’ abilities to succeed and make use of encouraging expressions for this purpose, provide students with a positive feedback and appraisal about their performance, and promote students’ motivational attributions by referring their past failure to controllable factors, such as insufficient effort or lack of experience, rather than to uncontrollable factors, such as their low ability.

Instructors have to promote learners’ autonomy in their EFL classes. Despite that most of the suggestions for practice provided here are based on related literature rather than on the findings of this study, the study recommends that teachers have to give students more control over their learning and involve them in decision-making. In this regard, teachers should give learners the chance to select learning tasks on their own, encourage
students’ contributions, encourage them to use self-motivating strategies for learning English, and give students some chances to assess their progress. Teachers should also abandon the belief that they are the ultimate controllers of classes who decide what students can and cannot do. They should instead adopt the idea that students are their partners in the learning process whose thoughts and ideas should be asked for and extensively used in classes. Generally, teachers should be supporting their students rather than be controlling or demanding.

Teachers should also demonstrate to students the various values associated with the learning of the foreign language such as the intrinsic values, instrumental values, and integrative values. They should also promote learners’ group cohesiveness. In addition, they should promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs for learning English. They should also create a welcoming and pleasant classroom atmosphere in their EFL classes. Moreover, teachers should go beyond the fixed curriculum and the traditional methods of EFL teaching and involve as many motivational strategies as possible in their teaching. Furthermore, they should involve students in extracurricular activities that allow them to think beyond the content of the readymade curriculum.

From a personal perspective, teachers have to stay up to date with developments in motivational strategies and to display as much as they can of such developments in their classes. In addition, this study recommends that the teachers’ development programs, usually provided by the Ministry of Education, should involve teachers in pre-service and in-service training in which they should be exposed to extensive instruction on how to use motivational strategies in the language classes.

As this study has not investigated the self-regulating motivational strategies employed by learners to motivate themselves, it provides only few implications to EFL learners in Saudi Arabia in this respect. This study proposes that these learners should try to respond properly to and get benefit of the motivational strategies EFL teachers implement in their classes. To do so, these learners should firstly be aware of the fact that learning English is possible if they abandon the false belief that such a task is overly difficult or even impossible.
This study advises that EFL curriculum designers in Saudi Arabia are to allow for the utilisation of motivational strategies to take place in the Saudi EFL classes. They are asked to comprise motivational strategies in the content of the pre-scribed curriculum provided to students and teachers. Prior to designing the curriculum, designers should investigate students’ needs, goals, and interests and try to incorporate them into the curriculum. In other words, EFL curriculum content should be built on what students see as important not on what designers think important. In this regard, there should be clear and effective ways to connect the content of learning tasks in the student’s book to students’ interests, needs, goals, experiences, daily life activities, and real-world situations. In addition, learning tasks in this book should contain novel, attractive, and humorous elements that arouse students’ curiosity to learn. The designed tasks should be within students’ limits of ability in order to reduce their anxiety of failure and instead boost their confidence in successful completion of these tasks. The content of the prescribed book should allow for students’ contributions to their learning and for their ideas to be sought and used. There should be tasks into the curriculum that encourage cooperative learning where students work collaboratively and exchange personal experiences and ideas. Designers should also care for the quality rather than the quantity of the curriculum content. They should try to reduce the density of the EFL curriculum content for each stage in a way that diminishes the teacher’s fears that he/she will not be able to cover the whole content on time. This will provide teachers with sufficient chances to make use of motivational strategies in their classes.

In the teacher’s book, designers should provide a list of motivational strategies to be associated with the implementation of each lesson and recommend that teachers use them. The teaching materials provided with this book should be attractive and curiosity-arousing to promote students’ motivation. The teaching methods recommended in this book should also give the teachers the opportunity to go beyond the classical way of teaching and adopt novel approaches by which teachers can make use of motivational strategies.

There are also some implications for schools’ administrators. Schools have to remove the obstacles to implementing motivational strategies in EFL classes. A significant recommendation in relation to this is to decrease the strict institutional norms they usually impose. They can instead grant both teachers and students a kind of freedom to
run classes using their own ways. Schools also have to find practical solutions for the phenomenon of overcrowded EFL classes, which is a real barrier to the proper utilisation of motivational strategies in these classes.

Finally, this study proposes some future trends in the field of L2 motivation for future researchers to investigate. Future research can examine how the utilisation of motivational strategies in EFL classes can affect students’ achievement in the foreign language. This can be achieved through examining the relationship between the use of motivational strategies in these classes and students’ L2 motivation as a first step. If positive changes are detected in students’ motivation, research can further examine whether or not such a positive change results in better student achievement.

There remains plenty of room for investigating more motivational strategies other than those tested in the current study. Students’ self-regulating motivational strategies and those relating to other factors that can promote the language learners’ motivation (e.g., types of learning materials) could be effective strategies to utilise in the language classroom.

Despite the fact that the majority of the motivational strategies tested in the current study appeared to be effective in the Saudi EFL context, the need remains for future research to establish whether these strategies would be effective in different socio-cultural and educational contexts.

As there were no female participants exposed to motivational strategies in our experiment, it falls on future research to include female population of language learners in order to establish whether or not there will be gender-based differences in the way learners respond to different motivational strategies.
Bibliography


Learning, 40(1), 45-78.


230


65-72.


243


Appendix A: Teachers’ questionnaire (English version)

Based on your personal experience as a teacher of English, please rate the following strategies in terms of how important you consider each strategy to be used in the EFL classroom in Saudi Arabia to enhance the students’ language learning motivation. Use the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Of little importance</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1- Show students your interest and dedication in English language and share that with them.

2- Show students that you value learning English language as a meaningful experience that enriches your life.

3- Show students that you care about their progress.

4- Be mentally and physically available to respond to your students’ academic needs in the classroom.

5- Show students that you accept and care about them.

6- Pay attention to your students’ personal needs and listen carefully to each one of them.

7- Keep your students’ parents regularly informed about their children’s progress and ask for their assistance in performing certain supportive tasks at home.

8- Support students to feel comfortable taking risks and don’t criticize them when they make mistakes.

9- Bring and encourage humour in the language classroom.
10- Encourage learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

11 – Encourage students to interact and share personal experiences and thoughts.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

12- Encourage cooperative learning by dividing students into small groups and let them work towards the same goal.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

13- Encourage extracurricular activities and outings that increase the cohesiveness of students in English class.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

14- Explain, at the beginning of each term, the class rules to students and the consequences of violating these rules.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

15- Allow students to suggest other class rules and discuss the suggested rules with them.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

16- Increase the amount of English you use in the classroom.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

17- Encourage students to use English outside the classroom.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

18- Bring various L2 cultural products like magazines and video recordings to the classroom to familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

19- Encourage students to discover interesting information about the foreign language and the foreign community via the internet.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

20- Remind students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language.
- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

21- Prepare students sufficiently before taking a learning task.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Task Description</th>
<th>Importance Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Explain the goal of each learning task.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Guide and assist students to succeed in performing the learning task.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Make the criteria of success public and clear to students.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Show students examples of success through real past successful students or video tapes.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Encourage students to set clear, short-term, and realistic learning goals for themselves.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Negotiate with your students their learning goals and outline with them a specific class goal for learning English.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Display the class goal in a wall chart and review it regularly.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Find out your students’ needs, goals, and interests and build them into the teaching curriculum.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them.</td>
<td>Very important  Somewhat important  Of little importance  Not important  Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34- Make the learning tasks challenging.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Of little importance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>35- Select tasks that require involvement from each student.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>36- Give clear instructions to students.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>37- Raise the students’ expectations of the task outcomes.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>38- Always provide your students with positive feedback and appraisal about their performance.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>39- Design tasks that are within the limits of the students’ ability.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>40- Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>41- Avoid making social comparisons between students such as comparing the performance of two students or the public announcement of grades.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>42- Promote cooperation between students instead of competition.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>43- Help students to accept the fact that making errors is a part of any learning environment and that making errors leads to success.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>44- Teach students learning strategies and let them decide on selected strategies by which they will learn better.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
45- Avoid students face threatening acts such as humiliating criticism or putting them in the spotlight unexpectedly.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

46- Adopt the role of "facilitator".

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

47- Encourage students’ contribution and peer teaching.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

48- Give students the chance to assess themselves sometimes.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

49- Encourage students to adopt, develop, and apply self-motivating strategies.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

50- Involve students in designing and running the English course.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

51- Recognise students’ effort and achievement.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

52- Monitor students’ progress and celebrate their success.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

53- Offer rewards for involving students in complex activities that require long engagement and creativity on the students’ part.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

54- Make sure that grades reflect the real effort and improvement of students.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

55- Encourage students to attribute their failure experience to the lack of sufficient effort or bad luck rather than to their low ability.

- Very important
- Somewhat important
- Of little importance
- Not important
- Uncertain

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CONTRIBUTION TO THIS STUDY
لاستيعابي الخاص بعمليه/معالمات اللغة الإنجليزية

يحتوي هذا الاستبيان على مجموعة من الاستراتيجيات والتكتيكات التي تقدم لتحسين الطلاب والطالبات لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية داخل الفصل الدراسي.

1. أظهر للطلاب فصول اللغة الإنجليزية اهتمامك وشجعهم الكبير في اللغة الإنجليزية وأجعلهم يشاركون هذا الاهتمام.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

2. وضع للطلاب أن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كان بمثابة التجربة التي أثرت جوانب مختلفة من حياتهم.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

3. أظهر للطلاب مدى اهتمامك بمشاركتهم وتأديبهم العلمي.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

4. كن جاهزًا وحدياً للاستيعاب لمنطق الطلاب الأكاديمية داخل فصول اللغة الإنجليزية.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

5. أظهر للطلاب أنك تعتبر بهم وتنقبل أيهم.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

6. أظهراً اهتمامك بالاحتياجات الشخصية وأسست بأهمية لكل واحد منهم.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

7. أبقوا الأمور على نظام تم التنشر فيه تنظيمهم واقتراح مساعدة في إدارة بعض الواجبات المنزلية.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

8. شجع الطلاب على تعدد المهام التعليمية بكل إرتباط داخل فصول اللغة الإنجليزية ولا تقم بإستعماله عندما يركزون الأخطاء.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

9. شجع روح الدعابة والتفاهم داخل فصول اللغة الإنجليزية.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □

10. شجع الطلاب على أن يقوموا بإبتكار هي نقلة اللغة الإنجليزية طبقًا لأدوارهم وذلك بالإضافة بعض الأشياء الجمالية كالملصقات واللوائح الخاصة على سبيل المثال.
   - مهتم جداً □
   - لم يرد □
   - ذو آهمية قليلة □
   - غير متاح □
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>رقم</th>
<th>الفعل أو الreguntaة</th>
<th>الملاحظة</th>
<th>النتيجة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>شجع الطلاب على أن يتفاعلون مع بعضهم البعض وأن يتبادلوا الأفكار والتجارب الشخصية.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>شجع التعليم التفاعلي وذلك بقسم الطلاب إلى مجموعات صغيرة وأجر أفراد كل مجموعة بعملوا لتحقيق هدف واحد.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>شجع أو نظم أن كان يمكن بعض الأنشطة اللدائية والرحلات الترفيهية التي تزيد من ترابط طلاب فصل اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>وضح للطلاب عند بداية كل فصل دراسي القوانين التي تحكم فصل اللغة الإنجليزية والنتائج المترتبة على خرق هذه القوانين.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>اقتراح قوانين أخرى لفصل اللغة الإنجليزية وناقش القوانين المفتتحة معي.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>أكثر من استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية داخل الفصل الدراسي.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>شجع الطلاب على استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية خارج الفصل الدراسي.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>أوضح إلى الطلاب بعض المحتويات الثقافية كمحادثات العلمية الإنجليزية وتسجيلات الفيديو باللغة الإنجليزية من أجل إعادة الطلاب على بعض الجوانب الثقافية للفصل الإنجليزية ومنحت هذا اللغة.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>شجع الطلاب على استكشاف بعض المعلومات عن اللغة الإنجليزية وعن محتوى هذه اللغة عن طريق الإنترنت.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>أداة للفصل في اللغة الإنجليزية كثمة عالمية وتزامن القوانين المترتبة على أقان مهارات هذه اللغة.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>لفصول بصورة كافية قبل القيم بأي مهنة تعليمية.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>وضع للطلاب بصورة كافيةcompact من أي مهمة تعليمية قبل القيام بها.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>أراضي الطلاب وساعدهم على تقدير كل مهمة تعليمية بالنجاح.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>أجاز معايير النجاح في تربية المهارات التعليمية واضحة لجميع الطلاب.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>أضر فصول الطلاب عند النجاح وذلك من خلال إعداد طلاب مثقفين ناجحين لفصل اللغة للتحدث عن تجارتهم أمن خلال محتوى غير الشرطة الفيديو.</td>
<td>لمهم جدا</td>
<td>غير متأكد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>رقم السؤال</td>
<td>السؤال</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>شرع الطلاب على أن يضعوا أهدافه تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>نافذة مع طالب أهدافه التي وضعها تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>أعرض هدف الفصل الملائم عليه لواحة حافظة وقم بمراعته. معقل هدف تعلم اللغة.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>ساع الطالب على أن يكون لديهم مقاوم واقعية عن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>اكتشف الاحتياجات الطلابية. أهدافهم. اهتماماتهم وضمن ذلك في المهندس الدراسي المتمادى.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>اجعل محتوى المهندس الدراسي والمهمة التعليمية لغادة اللغة الإنجليزية مرتبطة بجوانب الحياة اليومية للطلاب وتجاربهم.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>أكمل الروتين الموجود داخل الفصل الدراسي وذلك بتقسيم المهام التعليمية وأسباب الشرح.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>اجعل المهام التعليمية أكثر جاذبية وذلك بإضافة عناصر جديدة ونقدية تجاه البوا.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>اجعل المهام التعليمية أكثر صعوبة وتحديا.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>اختبر المهام التعليمية التي تتطلب أن يشارك فيها جميع الطلاب.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>أعط الطلاب تعليمات واضحة قبل وإثناء القياس بأي مهمة تطبيقية منهم.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>أرفع مستوى توقعات الطلاب إلى النطاق أي مهارة تعليمية.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>دائما أعط الطلاب تقديرهما ايجابيا عن ادائهم.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>اختبر المهام التعليمية التي تكون في حدود قدرات الطلاب.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>شرع الطلاب دائما وذلك لفتحهم إلى الآلنة في وجههم وقراراتهم من النجاح في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
41. تجنب القيام بوظائف شخصية بين الطلاب كمقارنة بين الطلاب أو إعلان درجات الطلاب بوصورا عتية.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

42. تقيف التعامل بين الطلاب بدلا من التنازل.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

43. ساعده الطلاب على تقبل ركبتة من اد شركته تعليمية وان ارتكب الطلاب الآخرين يقيدون إلى النظا.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

44. اعمل على تعليم الطلاب استراتيجيات العمل واجعلهم يختاروا استراتيجيات محددة لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

45. تجنب أساليب التأثير والتهدئة تجاه الطلاب مثل النقد الجائر أو وضعهم في مواقع محرجة أمام زملائهم في الفصل الدراسي.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

46. تقصص دور القائد الموثر داخل الفصل الدراسي.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

47. شجب الطلاب على ان يطوروا ويطبقوا استراتيجيات ذاتية لتحسين انفسهم لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

48. اعط الطلاب الفرصة لتقييم تجسيدهم احيانا.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

49. شجب الطلاب على ان يطوروا ويطبقوا استراتيجيات ذاتية لتحسين انفسهم لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

50. اعط الطلاب الفرصة للمشاركة في تصميم وتطوير منهج اللغة الإنجليزية.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

51. قدر مجهود الطلاب واتمنى أن تزاجتهم.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

52. رافق وتطوع في اطارات الطلاب واحتفال بنجاحهم.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

53. قدم المكالمات للطلاب على انجاز المهام المعنوية التي تتطلب الإبداعية من جانب الطلاب والعمل الابداعية لاجزها.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

54. تأكد من أن الدرجات المنقولة للطلاب تعكس مجهودهم وطورتهم الحقيقي.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة

55. شجب الطلاب على ان يطوروا شغفهم في الماضي عند دراستهم اللغة الإنجليزية إلى عم بظل المجهود الكافي من قبلهم للنجاح أو اسوء الخطأ يدل من مزيد ذلك إلى قدراتهم الصعبة التي لم تتمكن من النجاح.  
- مهتم جداً  
- ليس مهماً  
- ذو اهتمام قليلة
Appendix C: Table 51: Initial rank order and descriptive statistics of the macro strategies/scales and their constituent single/micro strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro strategy/ Micro strategies</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **1. Demonstrate proper teacher behaviour. \(^{^\wedge}\)**<br>
\(M=3.74, SD = .31, \alpha = .51\) |       |     |
| 3. Show students that you care about their progress. | 3.86  | .42 |
| 5. Show students that you accept and care about them. | 3.81  | .42 |
| 1. Show students your interest and dedication in English language and share that with them. | 3.80  | .53 |
| 4. Be mentally and physically available to respond to your students’ academic needs in the classroom. | 3.78  | .43 |
| 2. Show students that you value learning English language as a meaningful experience that enriches your life. | 3.46  | .77 |
| **2. Make learning stimulating and enjoyable. \(^{^\wedge}\)**<br>
\(M=3.68, SD = .38, \alpha = .53\) |       |     |
| 32. Break the routine of the classroom by varying the learning tasks and the presentation format. | 3.87  | .33 |
| 33. Make the learning tasks more attractive by adding new and humorous elements to them. | 3.75  | .47 |
| 35. Select tasks that require involvement from each student. | 3.42  | .82 |
| **3. Increase learners’ satisfaction.**<br>
\(M=3.66, SD = .47, \alpha = .66\) |       |     |
| 51. Recognise students’ effort and achievement. | 3.82  | .43 |
| 54. Make sure that grades reflect the real effort and improvement of students. | 3.68  | .62 |
| 52. Monitor students’ progress and celebrate their success. | 3.63  | .71 |
| 53. Offer rewards for involving students in complex activities that require long engagement and creativity on the students’ part. | 3.50  | .84 |
| **4. Increase learners’ expectancy of success. \(^{^\wedge}\)**<br>
\(M=3.58, SD = .43, \alpha = .58\) |       |     |
| 23. Guide and assist students to succeed in performing learning tasks. | 3.64  | .53 |
| 22. Explain the goal of each learning task. | 3.58  | .64 |
| 21. Prepare students sufficiently before taking a learning task. | 3.57  | .67 |
| 24. Make the criteria of success public and clear to students. | 3.55  | .80 |
| **5. Diminish learners’ anxiety and build their self-confidence.**<br>
\(M=3.54, SD = .44, \alpha = .71\) |       |     |
<p>| 40. Consistently encourage students by drawing their attention to the fact that you believe in their effort to learn and their capabilities to succeed. | 3.76  | .52 |
| 43. Help students to accept the fact that making errors is a part of any learning environment and that making errors leads to success. | 3.75  | .52 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Design tasks that are within the limits of the students’ ability.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>Avoid students’ face threatening acts such as humiliating criticism or putting them in the spotlight unexpectedly.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>Encourage students to attribute their failure experience when learning English to the lack of sufficient effort or bad luck rather than to their low ability.</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Always provide your students with positive feedback and appraisal about their performance.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Promote cooperation between students instead of competition.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Teach students learning strategies and let them decide on selected strategies by which they will learn better.</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Avoid making social comparisons between students such as comparing the performance of two students or the public announcement of grades.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6. Familiarise learners with L2 culture and L2 related values.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M = 3.54, SD = .45, α = .71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Increase the amount of English you use in the language classroom.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Remind students of the importance of English as a global language and the usefulness of mastering the skills of this language.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Encourage students to use English outside the classroom.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Encourage students to discover interesting information about the foreign language and the foreign community via the internet.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Bring various L2 cultural products like magazines and video recordings to the classroom to familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7. Make learning relevant to the learners’ needs.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M = 3.52, SD = .49, α = .37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Relate the subject content and the learning tasks to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the students.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Find out your students’ needs, goals, and interests and build them into the curriculum.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8. Use motivating teaching.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M = 3.49, SD = .59, α = .42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Give clear instructions to students.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Raise the students’ expectations of the task outcomes.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>9. Promote learners’ autonomy.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M = 3.31, SD = .58, α = .58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Encourage students’ contribution and peer teaching.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Encourage students to adopt, develop, and apply self-motivating strategies for learning English.</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Give students the chance to assess themselves sometimes.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>10. Promote group cohesiveness and set group norms.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M = 3.25, SD = .54, α = .63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Encourage cooperative learning by dividing students into small groups and let them work towards the same goal.</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Explain, at the beginning of each term, the class rules to students and the consequences of violating these rules.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Encourage students to interact and share personal experiences and thoughts.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Allow students to suggest other class rules and discuss the suggested rules with them.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Encourage extracurricular activities and outings that increase the cohesiveness of students in English class.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>11. Promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Promote learners’ positive goals and realistic beliefs.</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Encourage students to set clear, short-term, and realistic learning goals for themselves.</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Negotiate with your students their learning goals and outline with them a specific class goal for learning English.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Display the class goal on a wall chart and review it regularly.</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>12. Create a pleasant classroom atmosphere.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Bring in and encourage humour in the language classroom.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Encourage learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste.</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, α = Cronbach alpha coefficient, ^ items were discarded from this scale due to low (<.30) item-total correlations.*
Appendix D: Table 52: Descriptive statistics for the motivation indices in students’ questionnaire at T1 and T2: Mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness, standard error of skewness (SES), kurtosis, and standard error of kurtosis (SEK).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Index</th>
<th>T1</th>
<th>T2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>Skewness (SES)</td>
<td>Kurtosis (SEK)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Learning anxiety</td>
<td>4.50 (.146)</td>
<td>-.252 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Learning self-efficacy°</td>
<td>5.61 (.92)</td>
<td>-1.03 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning°</td>
<td>5.61 (1.05)</td>
<td>-8.65 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for Learning</td>
<td>4.83 (1.07)</td>
<td>-.336 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>English class anxiety</td>
<td>4.66 (1.45)</td>
<td>-.077 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>English motivational intensity</td>
<td>4.48 (1.19)</td>
<td>-.175 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>English self-efficacy°</td>
<td>5.28 (1.13)</td>
<td>-.742 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Intrinsic motivation for learning English</td>
<td>4.91 (1.39)</td>
<td>-.695 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Positive attributions for learning English°</td>
<td>5.18 (1.35)</td>
<td>-1.03 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Instrumental motivation for learning English°</td>
<td>5.85 (1.09)</td>
<td>-.31 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Integrative motivation for learning English°</td>
<td>5.59 (1.26)</td>
<td>-1.13 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Evaluation of English teacher°</td>
<td>5.49 (1.22)</td>
<td>-.994 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Teacher’s teaching style and competence°</td>
<td>5.53 (1.31)</td>
<td>-1.2 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Teacher’s personality</td>
<td>5.34 (1.38)</td>
<td>-.698 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Evaluation of English course</td>
<td>4.76 (1.54)</td>
<td>-.393 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Evaluation of the EFL group of learners</td>
<td>4.97 (1.26)</td>
<td>-.532 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Collectivist</td>
<td>5.10 (1.29)</td>
<td>-.637 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Individualist</td>
<td>4.72 (1.59)</td>
<td>-.510 (.142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>EFL learner’s motivational self-evaluation</td>
<td>5.11 (1.88)</td>
<td>-.481 (.142)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Numbers in parentheses are standard deviation (SD), Standard Error of Skewness (SES), and Standard Error of Kurtosis (SEK), respectively. ° indicates transformed (square root) variable.
Appendix E: Table 53: The Cronbach alpha and Pearson correlation coefficients for the teachers’ classroom observation variables at each observation conducted at T1 and T2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>T1-1 α=.86</th>
<th>T1-2 α=.89</th>
<th>T1-3 α=.89</th>
<th>T2-1 α=.92</th>
<th>T2-2 α=.94</th>
<th>T2-3 α=.93</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Moves around the classroom.</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Gestures while talking to students.</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Uses head nodding.</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Uses a variety of vocal expressions.</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Uses monotone/dull voice.</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Looks at the whole class.</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Looks at only individual students.</td>
<td>-.50</td>
<td>-.38</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.46</td>
<td>-.79</td>
<td>-.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Looks somewhere else.</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Smiles at the whole class.</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Smiles at only individual students.</td>
<td>-.62</td>
<td>-.76</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>-.52</td>
<td>-.72</td>
<td>-.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Has a relaxed body position.</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Has a very tense body position.</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Sits in a chair.</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Use appropriate touch with students.</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. α = Cronbach alpha coefficient, r = Pearson correlation coefficient.
### Appendix F: Table 54

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and Pearson correlations for the students’ classroom observation construct at each test conducted at T1 and T2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>T1-1 α = .89</th>
<th>T1-2 α = .93</th>
<th>T1-3 α = .90</th>
<th>T2-1 α = .87</th>
<th>T2-2 α = .92</th>
<th>T2-3 α = .93</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Exp. = .70</td>
<td>Cont. = .96</td>
<td>Exp. = .96</td>
<td>Exp. = .61</td>
<td>Exp. = .91</td>
<td>Exp. = .91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Display inattentive or disruptive behaviour.</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>-.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Follow the teacher movements.</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Look at relevant visual stimuli.</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Orient towards another participating student.</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Follow the text being read.</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Make appropriate non-verbal responses.</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Answer questions from the teacher.</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Answer questions from other students.</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Put questions to the teacher.</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Put questions to other students.</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Make comments and give opinions.</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Raise hands to participate.</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Work on assigned activity.</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Volunteer for participation.</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

α = Cronbach alpha coefficient, r = Pearson correlation coefficient.
Appendix G: Implementation guide

Introduction

It is doubtless that motivation plays a crucial role in determining how successful a learner would be in any educational setting. Past research in the field of foreign language motivation in particular shows that individuals with insufficient motivation usually undergo many difficulties in achieving their language learning goals. This is true even for those who possess high learning capabilities. As the lack of motivation may cause disappointing learning outcomes, the need remains to look for some specific strategies in order to integrate motivation in the language learning process. As a response to such a devastating problem, some experimental studies have been carried out aiming at identifying some strategies that might be of help in promoting the foreign language learners’ motivation. Despite the great value that such studies have provided us with in this respect, we found that none of them has assessed the teachability of motivational strategies in general nor explored some specific ways and techniques by which the implementation of such strategies can take place in the language classroom.

This guide is designed in response to the overwhelming need to look for some practical techniques by which motivational strategies can be effectively implemented in the language classroom. We started our search for specific techniques to implement the 10 strategies used in this guide by reviewing and synthesizing some of the suggestions made in leading textbooks on motivation, educational psychology, and on motivation in education. We sought as well the expert advice of those whom we regard as familiar with the topic of motivation in FL teaching, psychology, and education.
Strategy # 1.

**Design motivating learning tasks and present them in motivating ways**

**A. Task design**

1. Make sure that each learning task is relevant to the age and interest of students and it is within their learning abilities limits.

2. Try to design a variety of instructional activities while maintaining focus on the curricula content and structure.

3. Vary the main language skills the tasks activate (e.g. learning tasks can alternate between speaking, listening, reading, and writing).

4. Make learning tasks moderately challenging. (i.e. design tasks that are neither too hard nor too easy for students to achieve).

5. Break the difficult learning tasks down into small steps in order to make them achievable to students.

6. Make tasks contain elements of different learning styles. For example, visual (e.g. videos, pictures, diagrams), auditory (e.g. piece of music, recording of conversation), and tactile (e.g. touching people/objects).

7. Avoid engaging students in pointless or meaningless activities such as the following:
   - Continued practice on skills that already have been mastered thoroughly.
   - Looking up and copying definitions of terms that are never used in activities or assignments.
   - Working on tasks assigned merely to fill time rather to accomplish worthwhile learning goals.

8. Skip pointless activities in the teaching materials, and develop alternatives that will support progress toward the major goals of learning.
B. Task presentation

1. Start presenting each learning task with clearly setting out its goals and stating its potential practical outcomes.

2. Present tasks in clear and complete ways that students can easily understand and follow and don’t confuse them.

3. Use variety of instructional approaches to present tasks such as lectures, demonstrations, drills, reviews, debates, group projects, discovery learning and problem solving, role playing, gaming, computer-assisted instruction, etc.

4. Show your competence in English while teaching (e.g. speak fluently, keep all communication with your students in English, avoid making grammatical or spelling mistakes, etc.)

5. Use an appealing teaching style while presenting tasks by:
   ◇ Express interest and enthusiasm for teaching.
   ◇ Show sincerity and honesty while teaching.
   ◇ Show calm and confidence while teaching.
   ◇ Use hand and arm gestures when speaking.
   ◇ Make eye contact with all students.
   ◇ Speak loud usually, but vary your vocal expressions.
   ◇ Vary your facial expressions.
   ◇ Stand while teaching (i.e. don’t sit in a chair).
   ◇ Move near and among students when teaching.
   ◇ Smile at students while teaching.
   ◇ Have a relaxed body position while teaching.
   ◇ Use affirmative head nodding.

6. Encourage cooperative learning by assigning and involving students in topic-related problems to solve or tasks to accomplish in which they work together in pairs or groups.

7. Don’t start working with students on a new learning task unless they finish the task(s) they are already working on.

8. Focus all the time on doing the required tasks and avoid wasting time working on something else or doing tasks that seem meaningless to students.

9. Summarize the lesson outcomes at the end of each lesson.
Strategy # 2.

Arouse your students’ curiosity to learn

Always stimulate your students and attract them to learn English using the following ways:

① Add new, unexpected, and unfamiliar elements to the learning activities in order to call students’ attention to learning and to break the routine of the classroom.

② At the beginning of each lesson, have the students predict what they will learn in that lesson, then show them at the end of the lesson whether their prediction was right or wrong.

③ Usually start each lesson with a question or a statement that stimulates students to go through the lesson in order to discover its details and outcomes.

④ Always involve students in stimulating learning discussions that arouse their curiosity to learn.

⑤ Involve students in a game-like activity relating to the topic, (e.g., playing the role of new characters in a game or a movie in order to learn new English vocabulary and expressions.)

⑥ Involve students in activities that put them into the problem-solving mode and stimulate their self-explorations; (e.g. give them puzzles and mysteries to solve during lessons, ask them to identify something surprising in an assigned reading, etc.)

⑦ Stimulate students’ imaginations by forcing them into something creative and innovative. For example, give students a problem that needs to be solved (e.g. you don’t like your teacher to publicly compare your work with that of other students. You feel so embarrassed of that.) Then, offer them guidelines in order to solve this problem in a creative way (e.g. you must find a way to stop your teacher doing that but you also must find a way to make your teacher positively accept your idea).

⑧ Tell students some stories and anecdotes about real people and events relevant to the lesson topic to familiarise them with the subject content.

⑨ Do the unexpected occasionally, such as dressing up as someone related to the lesson or asking an interesting question related to the lesson.
Strategy # 3.

**Enhance your students’ autonomy and control**

1. Give your students as much choices as possible about their learning by allowing them to give ideas, based on their interests, needs, and goals, in planning and running their course program (e.g. give them many tasks to choose from or let them choose the way(s) they prefer performing specific activities).

2. Have students bring their own supplementary materials to the classroom; (e.g. something interesting they found on the internet or in a book or a magazine.)

3. Give each student in class as much opportunity as possible to take part in class discussions and to ask questions whenever he/she doesn’t understand anything.

4. Give students the choice to choose the due dates of course assignments and the dates they will have the course exams.

5. Let students have a say in deciding on some of the norms that run their classroom; (e.g. ask students to suggest ways to reward students who do well or the penalty for coming late to class or submitting a late assignment (not on its due date).
Strategy # 4.

**Help students to set goals for learning English**

1. Find out what your students’ individual goals for learning English are – ask the students to write down their reasons for learning English; then ask them to find other students in the class who have similar goals.

2. Make sure that your students’ goals for learning English are realistic and attainable.

3. Try to link your students’ individual learning goals with the curricula goals.

4. Do your best to help students achieve their learning goals; (e.g. suggest some ways to overcome the obstacles that might face each student in achieving his/her learning goals.)

5. Make students note their progress towards achieving their goals by using self-assessment and self-monitoring progress procedures; (e.g. make a checklist of each student’s progress and let him/her note that regularly).
Strategy # 5.

**Care about your students**

Develop a positive relationship with your students and achieve their respect by showing them that you accept and care about them using the following ways:

1. Show respect to your students in the way that you address them or comment on their work and behaviour – do not be derisive or sarcastic; show them that you accept them as valuable, worthwhile human beings.

2. Introduce yourself when you first meet a class and include information relevant to you as a human.

3. Help your students get to know and appreciate you as a person by sharing some of your background, life experiences, interests, and opinions with them.

4. Listen reflectively to your students (e.g., listen carefully to them and paraphrase what they say).

5. Get to know your students: learn their preferred names quickly and use these names frequently as you interact with them.

6. Show warmth to students (e.g., by greeting your students with a smile when you enter class or wherever you meet them.)

7. Show interest in students, (e.g., by speaking to them individually before class and asking about their goals and extracurricular activities.)

8. Make sometimes a class party in which you and your students can personally get closer to each other.

9. Distinguish between what a student is and what a student does (i.e. you may have to reject a particular behaviour of a student but don’t allow that to affect your respect for the student himself.)
Strategy # 6.

**Show concern about your students’ progress**

Show your students that you do care about their progress using some or all of the following ways:

1. Always let students feel that you want them to learn and improve themselves.

2. Observe closely the performance of your students at the beginning of each year/term to figure out their strengths, weaknesses, and their learning preferences.

3. Try to answer the students’ questions completely.

4. Correct tests and written work of students promptly.

5. Respond immediately when help is requested in the classroom.

6. Discuss and negotiate the progress of each student with him/her.

7. Encourage extra assignments and offer to assist students with them.

8. Show proper concern when things are not going well with regard to students’ learning.

9. Be always available for your office-hours.

10. Be accessible outside the classroom by allowing and encouraging students to communicate with you on the phone or by email whenever they require assistance relating to their learning or even need a help or a consultation with a personal matter.

11. Don’t show students that you are there just for the salary.
Strategy # 7.

Increase learners’ satisfaction through recognizing their efforts and achievements using the following ways:

A. Praise and Recognition

1. Give students some private notes and comments on their written works in which you appreciate their efforts and recognise their success.

2. Encourage students to take pride in their learning efforts and accomplishments.

3. Try to promote recognition of students throughout the classroom, the school, the community, and home.

4. When giving praise to students, always focus on appreciating their efforts and achievements rather than on their role in pleasing you.

5. Be specific in praising the accomplishments of students and avoid using ambiguous statements:

   - You can say: “I am very pleased with your reading this morning, you made the conversation between Ali and Fahd sound very real”

   - Don’t say: “You were really good today!”

6. When praising students, call attention to the progress made and the new skills mastered:

   - Say for example: “I notice you’ve learned to use different phrases in your compositions. They are more interesting to read now.”

7. Praise students privately in the following situations:

   - When you feel that public praise may embarrass students.
   - When you want to show a student that your praise is genuine and exclusive to him/her.

8. Use variety of phrases for praising students as the overuse of certain phrases might be considered an indication that you have not paid much attention to the accomplishments you are praising.

9. Provide students by any form of visual recognition like a certificate, a rubber stamp, a golden seal or star, a prize, a coupon for free stuff, etc.

10. Bring sometimes food and drink to celebrate the students’ success.

Increase your students’ satisfaction about learning English
B. Feedback

1. Your feedback should be positive or framed in a positive manner as follows:
   - Always begin with a positive comment on what a student has achieved,
   - Always end with positive comments as well.

2. Give your students positive motivational feedback on their work. You can use some of the following expressions:
   - “You have done a great job,”
   - “You have gotten much better at this,”
   - “You are making a good/great progress.”
   - “Keep up your good/excellent work.”
   - “Because you are capable, you have done it.”
   - “Because you tried hard, you have done it.”

C. Rewards:

1. Use rewards just as a short-term strategy and in limited situations such as the following:
   - To help students who need a boost, particularly if they find tasks somewhat challenging.

2. Make feedback continuous (i.e. it shouldn’t necessary come only at the end of a task).

3. A step towards students’ self-motivation.

4. Rewards must be given for attainable tasks (not impossible to achieve), and learners must value rewards.
Strategy # 8.

Familiarize your students with the pragmatic values of learning English

1. Always remind students of the fact that English is nowadays a language spoken worldwide and it is the language of knowledge and technology.

2. Promote the students’ awareness of the practical values associated with learning English such as helping them in completing their studies at their school/college, getting a job in the future, earning extra money, pursuing further studies in an English-speaking country, improving their social position, and pursuing hobbies and daily activities that require the use of English language.

3. Always remind your students of the fact that mastering English will make it easier for them to communicate with people of an English-speaking country when travelling to or living in that country.

4. Bring to the classroom some cultural products like books, magazines, video tapes, etc. that talk about the foreign language and the life, culture, and literature of the foreign language community.

5. If possible, invite some L2 speakers to class to talk about their life and their culture.

6. If possible, organise school trips to some places where native speakers of English live or work.

7. Connect L2 learning with activities that students already find interesting and enjoyable.

8. If your students have access to various internet facilities such as the discussion groups, e-mail, chat rooms, etc., ask them to look for English-speaking friends to communicate with them.

9. Relate your own success in life to the mastering of the skills of this language.

10. Do everything in class in English to show your students that you value using this language (e.g. describe the tasks of the day in English, give the lesson instructions in English, tell students jokes or entertaining stories in English, etc.).
Strategy # 9.

Connect what your students are learning in English class with their out-class real life

1. First of all, find out about the interests, goals, hobbies, and needs of your students. You can obtain that through making interviews, group discussion, one-to-one chats with them or even administering questionnaires in which you ask them about their out of school activities such as the events they like, the places they usually like to go to, the life style they prefer, things they are afraid of, etc.

2. Always explain to your students the present worth of the course content (how important it is to be used in their lives right now).

3. Teach topics in a way that has potential immediate application and possible benefit to the students in their daily life such as the following:
   - How to give directions to foreigners in English,
   - How to do shopping in English,
   - How to browse English websites on the net,
   - How to participate in chats in English,
   - How to send e-mails in English,
   - How to interpret books, newspaper, and magazine articles written in English.

4. Create situations in the classroom in which students can use what they have already learned. For example, you can ask two students to make a chat in English in the classroom as if they were chatting online by using some of the chat words they have already learned.

5. Emphasize the usefulness of the subject content in students’ future life.
Strategy # 10.

**Build, protect, and promote your students’ self-confidence**

1. Set high expectations for all students by letting them believe in their abilities to learn and to succeed. When students feel that you believe in them, they believe in themselves. When students see that you believe they can, students believe they can.

2. Make practical encouragements to students to perform tasks using the following ways:
   - Help students to appreciate that their intellectual abilities are open to improvement rather than fixed and that they possess a great many of such abilities rather than just a few.
   - Explain to them that difficulties in learning usually occur not because students lack ability or don’t make an effort but because they lack experience with the type of the task involved.
   - Explain to students that with patience, persistence and help from you, they will be able to master the required skills and to succeed in the given tasks.
   - Let students concentrate on doing the tasks rather than on the evaluation of their performance after completing the task.
   - When assessing students’ work, make marking and grading with emphasis on noting successes rather than failures.

3. Don’t give up on students with low abilities or those who are slow in leaning and don’t allow them to give up on themselves.

4. Always use encouraging statements while students are working on tasks like the following:
   - “I know / am sure you can do this job”
   - “You are doing a great job!”
   - “Keep up your good / excellent work.”
   - “You will feel great about yourself if you do this job.”
   - “You are the best person to do this job.”
   - “You are always good at it.”
   - “You always do such a great job.”
   - “Because you are capable, I am sure you will do it.”
   - “Because you are working hard, I am sure you will do it.”
   - “Others will think more highly of you if you do it.”
   - “I will be proud of you if you do it.”

5. Try to make students cope with the classroom anxiety using the following ways:
   - Always monitor activities to make sure that students do not get frustrated.
   - Avoid situations in which highly anxious students will have to answer questions or perform in front of large group of learners.
◊ Make sure that all the instructions you do in the classroom are clear as uncertainty can lead to anxiety.

◊ Avoid putting students under unnecessary time pressure by making sure that all students can complete classroom tasks and tests within the given period.

◊ Give students some practice tests before taking the real test.

◊ Minimize the use of competition between students and avoid comparing the performance of two students publicly.

◊ If you are going to involve students in competitive tasks, make sure that all students involved have a reasonable chance of succeeding.

④ Restrict the use of criticism to the following situations:

◊ When you believe that other motivational techniques may not be effective.

◊ When you think that students will positively respond to that criticism.

◊ When criticism will be motivating – (i.e. it doesn’t involve humiliation for students or expose their low abilities or poor performance but rather conveys that they are competent and can perform better with more effort or better use of strategies.) For example, the sentence: “I’m disappointed in you. I know that you can perform better,” is critical and encouraging (motivating) at the same time; while the sentence “I’m disappointed in you. You will probably never figure this out,” is critical and discouraging (demotivating).
**GIVE YOUR OPINION**

Do you suggest any other motivating ways you can use to implement this strategy to your students?

If so, Please list your suggestion(s) here and let us discuss them. They might be very helpful! Please use additional separate page(s) if needed.

1. ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

2. ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

5. ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
Appendix H: Motivational strategies use checklist

Teacher’s Information:
Name: ...................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
School / College:
Name: ...................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
Level: ...................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................
Course/Skill: ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................

HOW TO USE THIS CHECKLIST:
1. Please use this checklist **REGULARLY**.

2. Please fill in the checklist by referring to your instructional booklet/guide where you will find specific techniques outlined to implement each strategy.

3. Please do your best to reflect on your use of all ten strategies in each single lesson. Your honest cooperation will be much appreciated – It is essential for the purpose of this research.

4. Please follow the following way when filling in the checklist:
   - Put a tick “✓” **every time you use** the strategy.
   - Put an “X” in case you did not use the strategy.
   - Put “N/A” in case it was **inapplicable to use** the strategy.

Example:
- If you feel that in a lesson you **have used** one or more of the items listed under strategy 1 “Design motivating learning tasks and present them in motivating ways” in your instructional booklet, then put a tick “✓” in the row headed by **ONE** under STRATEGIES in the table.
If you feel that in the same lesson you have not used any of the items under strategy 2 “Arouse your students’ curiosity to learn” in the instructional booklet, then put an “X” in the row headed by TWO under STRATEGIES in the table.

If that same lesson’s topic itself did not allow for the use of any of the items under strategy 3 “Enhance your students’ autonomy and control” in your instructional booklet, then put N/A in the row headed by THREE under STRATEGIES in the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WEEKS</td>
<td>3 4</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LESSON No.</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
<td>1 2 3 1 2 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRATEGIES</td>
<td>ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE TEN</td>
<td>ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE TEN</td>
<td>ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE TEN</td>
<td>ONE TWO THREE FOUR FIVE SIX SEVEN EIGHT NINE TEN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix I: Students’ questionnaire (English version)

Research Title: “The Use of Motivational Strategies in the Saudi EFL Classroom”

BACKGROUND INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire consists of three parts: A, B, and C. The first two parts contain a number of statement-questions about learning in general (part A) and learning English (part B). These statement-questions are true for some learners but untrue for others. You will be asked to indicate how much each of these statement-questions is true or untrue for you using an easy pre-defined rating scale. In part C of the questionnaire you will be asked to evaluate your English teacher, your English course, the group of learners in your English class, and yourself as a learner of English based upon a seven-point rating scale that has two bipolar adjectives at each end.

Each of these three sections has instructions at the beginning and you should read them carefully before you start responding to the questionnaire items.

The statement-questions contained in this questionnaire are easy to respond to. There are no right or wrong answers to any of them, so feel free to express your opinions. Simply answer each based on the first thoughts that come to mind.

All the responses and information you provide during the research project are very confidential to the research team. This means that your teachers or any other person not included in the research team will NEVER see your answers. So, please give honest answers. The only personal details that you will be asked to provide are a few social demographics as you can see in the attached “Participants’ Background Information Sheet.” Any publications that arise from this research will include only sums of numbers of the statistical analyses and no personal information relating to participants or their
institutions as such information will be treated very confidentially and will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. In case you agree to participate, you will be asked to sign a consent form to confirm your voluntary participation.

Completing the questionnaire should take approximately 90 minutes.

Now please turn to PART A of the questionnaire and read the instructions carefully before you start responding to the items. You may ask the person who is administrating the questionnaire to you to clarify any point you don’t understand. After you finish part A, proceed to part B and then part C.

Upon the completion of each part, please check whether you have responded to ALL the statements – it is very important for our research that we get responses to ALL items.
PART A

MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING IN GENERAL

SCOPE OF THIS SECTION
This section of the questionnaire contains a number of statement-questions about learning in general.

When you read these statements, please think of your experience of learning and studying in general. Think of your experience during the last 5 years in which you have engaged in active learning inside or outside your current institution.

PLEASE NOTE: with this section, we are interested in your general disposition to learning and studying in general. We do not want you to focus on any specific subject, but your overall learning/studying experience.

REMEMEBR
1. This is not a test and there is no right or wrong answer for any question-statement. The researchers are only interested in your immediate personal reaction to each item about learning in general.

2. All the responses and information you provide during this research project are very confidential to the research team. This means that your teacher or any other person not included in the research team will NEVER see your answers. So, please give honest answers.

3. Some statement-questions might feel repetitive, do not worry about this. This is common in this type of research. Just answer each question based on your immediate reaction.

4. If something in these instructions is unclear, please ask the person who is administrating the questionnaire to clarify that for you now.
HOW TO EXPRESS YOUR OPINIONS

Please read all the statement-questions you find on this and following pages and rate to what extent each statement applies to you using the following rating scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very untrue</th>
<th>Untrue</th>
<th>Somewhat untrue</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Somewhat true</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>Very true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To express your opinion, please place an ‘X’ inside ONE and only ONE NUMBERED CIRCLE (the circle that best describes how you truly feel about the statement).

So, for example, a question-statement and rating scale might look like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning is something exciting.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 : Very true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you feel that this statement is very true for you, you will select the box number 7 or a box near the box number 7.
If you feel that this statement is very untrue for you, you will select the box number 1 or a box near the box number 1.
You can choose any box that best represents your feelings.

When you are ready, please turn the page over and start completing Part A. After you finish, please check whether you have responded to all the statements in this section and then proceed to part B.
1. Learning is one of the most important things to me.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

2. I hate to do a job in my class with less than my best effort.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

3. I will volunteer for difficult tasks in the classroom if I were asked to do so.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

4. When learning, I easily give up goals which prove hard to reach.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

5. When working on a learning task in my class I seldom do more than what I believe is necessary.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

6. I usually feel uneasy whenever my teacher asks me a question.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

7. When I have to explain things to my classmates, I easily become confused.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

8. I feel anxious to ask my teacher a question.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

9. I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me if I make a mistake in the classroom.
   Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

10. I feel calm and confident when I speak in front of my class.
    Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

11. Generally, I know I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks we do in class.
    Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

12. I am confident I can master hard learning tasks if I try.
    Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

13. I am confident I will receive better grades if I try harder.
    Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true
<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. I am sure I can do almost all the work required in class if I don’t give up.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. If I do well in my study, it will be because I try hard.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. If I do well in my study, it will be because I have high ability to do so.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. If I do well in my study, it will be because of the fascinating teaching style of our class teacher.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. If I don’t do well in my study, it will be because I don’t have much ability for learning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. If I don’t do well in my study, it will be because I didn’t study hard enough.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. If I don’t do well in my study, it will be because of the tedious teaching style of our class teacher.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I enjoy learning very much.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Learning is a challenge that I enjoy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. When classes end, I often wish they would continue.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I would study somewhere else if I were not studying at this school / college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I will continue to learn even after I leave this school/college.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. My goal of learning is far more than just passing exams.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 0 : Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Learning is a boring activity for me.</td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I wouldn’t study if I didn’t have to.</td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I study to become more educated than some other people.</td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I study to demonstrate my abilities to others (e.g. my family/friends).</td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. The main reason I study is that my parents want me to.</td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Learning is important to me because it provides me with a broader view than what other people have.</td>
<td>Very untrue: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART B

MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

SCOPE OF THIS SECTION
This section of the questionnaire contains a number of statement-questions about learning English.

When you read these statements, please think of your experience of learning and studying English during this semester’s English classes inside your current institution.

We need to find out how you truly feel about learning English at this school, this semester.

REMEMEBR
1. This is not a test and there is no right or wrong answer for any question-statement. The researchers are only interested in your immediate personal reaction to each item about learning English.

2. All the responses and information you provide during this research project are very confidential to the research team. This means that your teachers or any other person not included in the research team will NEVER see your answers. So, please give honest answers.

3. Some statement-questions might feel repetitive, do not worry about this. This is common in this type of research. Just answer each question based on your immediate reaction.

4. If something in these instructions is unclear, please ask the person who is administrating the questionnaire to clarify that for you now.

HOW TO EXPRESS YOUR OPINIONS
Please read all the statement-questions you find on this and following pages and rate the extent to which each statement applies to you using the following rating scale.
To express your opinion, you will place an ‘X’ inside ONE and only ONE NUMBERED CIRCLE (the box that best describes how truly you feel about the statement).

So, for example, a question-statement and rating scale might look like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I like English more than any other subject this semester.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very untrue: 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you feel that this statement is very true for you, you will select the box number 7 or a box near the box number 7.

If you feel that this statement is very untrue for you, you will select the box number 1 or a box near the box number 1.

You can choose any box that best represents your feelings.

When you are ready, please turn the page over and start completing Part B. After you finish, please check whether you have responded to all the statements in this part and then proceed to part C.
A. During English classes this semester, ....................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Very untrue</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Very true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33. I feel nervous and confused whenever I have to speak.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I make a mistake.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. I feel more tense and nervous in English classes this semester than</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in my other classes.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. I am afraid that the teacher is going to correct every mistake I</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Thinking of my effort to learn English this semester, ....................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Very untrue</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Very true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38. I have been working hard to learn English.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. I have been spending a lot of time at home working on my English</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assignments and preparing for the coming lessons.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. I have been paying close attention to and actively participating in</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the class discussion.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Whenever I have had a problem understanding something we are learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in English lessons, I have immediately asked the teacher for help.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. I haven’t spent sufficient time working on my English homework.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. I haven’t been participating enough in discussions that take place</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in our English class.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. In English classes this semester I feel confident that ....................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Very untrue</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Very true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44. I can master hard learning tasks in English if I try.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Very true</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
45. I can do an excellent job on the problems and tasks we do in English class.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

46. I can receive better grades in English if I try harder.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

47. I can do almost all the work required in English class if I don’t give up.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

D. Thinking of learning English this semester, I feel that..................

48. I am enjoying learning English very much.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

49. Learning English is a challenge that I enjoy.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

50. When English classes end, I often wish they would continue.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

51. I would study English even if it were not required by this school/university.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

52. I would like to continue to learn English even after I leave this school/college.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

53. My goal of learning English is far more than just passing exams.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

54. Learning English is a boring activity for me.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

55. I wouldn’t study English if I didn’t have to.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

56. I am studying English to become more educated than some other people.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

57. I am studying English to demonstrate my abilities to others (e.g. my family/friends).
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true

58. The main reason I am studying English is that my parents want me to.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7: Very true
59. Learning English is important to me because it provides me with a broader view than what other people have.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

E. If I do well in English this semester, it is because:

60. I try hard.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

61. I have high ability to do so.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

62. The fascinating teaching style of our English class teacher.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

F. If I don’t do well in English this semester, it is because:

63. I don’t have much ability for learning English.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

64. I don’t study hard enough.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

65. The tedious teaching style of our English class teacher.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

G. Studying English is important to me because:

66. It will be useful in getting a job in the future.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

67. It will help me to pursue future studies in an English-speaking country like America or Britain.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

68. It will help me while browsing online websites or chatting with people on the internet.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

69. I would like to travel to countries where English is used.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

70. I need it to pass English exams and graduate from this school/college.
Very untrue: 1  2  3  4  5  6  7  : Very true

71. I want to know the way of life of the English-speaking nations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Very true</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>Very untrue:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It will allow me to interact with the people who speak it.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>Very untrue:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It will allow me to gain English-speaking friends.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>Very untrue:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It will enable me to better understand and appreciate English art and literature.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>Very untrue:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want to be similar to the British/Americans.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td>Very untrue:</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want to call the Non-Muslim English speakers to Islam.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART C

TEACHER, COURSE, GROUP, and SELF EVALUATION

SCOPE OF THIS SECTION
This final section of the questionnaire looks at your evaluation of your English teacher, English course, the group of learners in your English class, and yourself as a learner of English at this school/college this semester.

REMEMEKR
1. This is not a test. We are only interested in your personal feelings towards the things that you are going to evaluate.

2. All the responses and information you provide during this research project are very confidential to the research team. This means that your teachers or any other person not included in the research team will NEVER see your answers. So, please give honest answers.

3. Some adjectives might feel repetitive, do not worry about this. This is common in this type of research. Just indicate your personal feelings towards the things that you are going to evaluate.

4. If something in these instructions is unclear, please ask the person who is administrating the questionnaire to clarify that for you now.

INSTRUCTIONS
In this section of the questionnaire, you will use a new rating scale which is slightly different from the one you used before in the previous two sections.

In this scale you will find two opposite adjectives at the right and the left side of the scale like the two adjectives you see in the example below:

Happy ← ───────────────────────────────────────────────────→ Unhappy
HOW TO EXPRESS YOUR OPINIONS

Please place an “X” inside ONE and only ONE NUMBERED BOX of the seven positions between the two bipolar adjectives.

Example:

Thinking of your English teacher this semester, you regard him/her as being........

| Happy: 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7: Unhappy |

If you feel that your English teacher is an unhappy person, you will select the box number 7 or a box near the box number 7.

If you feel that your English teacher is a happy person, you will select the box number 1 or a box near the box number 1.

You can choose any box that best represents your feelings.

When you are ready, please turn the page over and start completing Part C. After you finish, please check whether you have responded to all the statements in this part.
1. Thinking of your English teacher this semester, you regard him/her as being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>trait</th>
<th>scale</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>70</th>
<th>trait</th>
<th>scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>competent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>incompetent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>incapable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insincere</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sincere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intelligent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unintelligent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friendly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>hostile</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suspicious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>trusting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helpful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unhelpful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strict</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lenient</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unfair</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheerful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>cheerless</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patient</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>impatient</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polite</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>impolite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>considerate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>inconsiderate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approachable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unapproachable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reliable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unreliable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nervous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>calm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>hesitant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enthusiastic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unenthusiastic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>confusing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consistent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>inconsistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>uncreative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Organised 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Disorganised
Democratic 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Controlling

2. Thinking of your English course this semester, you regard it as being.................

Enjoyable 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Unenjoyable
Clear 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Confusing
Difficult 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Easy
Attractive 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Unattractive
Useless 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Useful
Valuable 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Worthless
Satisfying 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Unsatisfying

3. Thinking of the group of learners you are learning English with this semester, you regard them as being.....................

Friendly 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Unfriendly
Cooperative 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Uncooperative
Unreliable 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Reliable
Ambitious 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Unambitious
Stimulated 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Not stimulate
Competitive 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Uncompetitive
Lazy 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Hardworking
Respectful 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Disrespectful
Obedient 1 O 2 O 3 O 4 O 5 O 6 O 7 O  Disobedient

293
4. Thinking of **yourself** as a learner of English this semester, you regard yourself as being..................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Considerate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconsiderate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incoherent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interested</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninterested</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninspired</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspired</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unchallenged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unenthused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nervous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calm</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confident</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hesitant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focussed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfocused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organised</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disorganised</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncreative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardworking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlightened</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unambitious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncooperative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The End**

😊 Thank you for your participation. It is much appreciated. 😊
Appendix J: Students’ questionnaire (Arabic version)

اختبار أن

(استخدام استراتيجيات التحفيز داخل فصول اللغة الإنجليزية في المملكة العربية السعودية)

تعليمات عامة

عزيزي الطالب / عزيزتي الطالبة:

يحتوي هذا الاستبيان على 3 أجزاء: (أ ، ب ، ج).

يحتوي الجزء الأول على عدد من العبارات الخاصة بالتعلم بصورة عامة (الجزء أ) ويتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية على وجه الخصوص (الجزء ب). تعتبر هذه العبارات صحيحة بالنسبة للبعض الأشخاص بينما تعتبر غير صحيحة للبعض الآخر والمطلوب منك هو تحديد مدى صحة كل من هذه العبارات بالنسبة لك وفقًا لمقياس معين ستجرده على ورقة الاستبيان.

سيطلب منك في الجزء (ج) تقييم معلم اللغة الإنجليزية، مقرر اللغة الإنجليزية، مجموعة المتعلمين معك (زملائك) في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية وكذلك ذاتك / نفسك كتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في هذه المدرسة أو الكلية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي.

يوجد في بداية كل من هذه الثلاثة أجزاء تعليمات ينبغي عليك قراءتها بعناية قبل البدء في الإجابة على عناصر الاستبيان.

تعتبر الإجابة على العبارات الموجودة في الاستبيان سهلة فلا يوجد هناك إجابة صحيحة أو خاطئة لأي منها وكل المطلوب منك هو إبداء رأيك الشخصي بكل صراحة وشفافية بإختيار أول إجابة ترد إلى ذلك.

إن جميع المعلومات التي ستکمل بها في هذا الاستبيان تعتبر في غاية السرية لفريق البحث وهذا يعني أنه لن يكون محدود معلماً أو أي شخص آخر الإطلاع على هذه المعلومات بأي حال من الأحوال وذلک نرجوا منك الإدلاء بمعلومات صادقة وشفافة.

ستقصیر البيانات التي سيطلب منك الإدلاء بها على بعض المعلومات الإحصائية كما هو موضح في ورقة "بطاقة معلومات المشارک" المرفقة. إن أي نشر لهذا البحث سيحتوي فقط على بعض الأرقام الإحصائية الناتجة من عملية تحليل بيانات الدراسة ولن يتضمن أي معطيات شخصية تخص المشاركين ذكر اسمائهم أو أماكن دراستهم حيث أن هذه المعلومات تعتبر في غاية السرية بالنسبة لفريق البحث ولن يتم الإفصاح عنها تحت أي ظرف من الظروف.

تعتبر مشاركتك في هذه الدراسة اختيارية حيث يحق لك ألا تشارك مطلقاً أو أن تسحب من المشاركة في أي وقت تشاء مع الاحتفاظ بحقك في عدم إبداء أي سبيل لهذا الإنسحاب. في حالة موافقتكم على المشاركة فسيطلب منكم توقيع إقرار بذلك.

295
إن الوقت المتوقع لإنجاز هذه الاستبيان هو 90 دقيقة.

في حالة موافتك على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة الرجاء القيام بالتوفيق على إقرار المشاركة في مشروع البحث هذا، ثم قم بتعبئة البيانات المطلوبة في ورقة "بطاقة معلومات المشارك".

توجه بعد ذلك مباشرة إلى الجزء (أ) وقم بقراءة الإرشادات الموجودة وفقًا للبدء في الإجابة على عناصر الاستبيان. في حالة وجود أي استفسار أو تفسير عليك فيه ما فارجاء أن تقوم مباشرةً بسؤال الشخص المشرف على عملية توزيع الاستبيان لإيضاح ذلك لك. بعد إنهائك للجزء (أ) قم بالانتقال للجزء (ب) ثم للجزء (ج).

بعد إنهائك لكل جزء من أجزاء الاستبيان قم بالتأكد من أنك قد قمت بالإجابة على جميع العبارات في ذلك الجزء لأن هذا في غاية الأهمية بالنسبة لهذا البحث لذا يرجى منك التأكد من ذلك.
الجزء (أ)

(الدافعية نحو التعلم بصورة عامة)

هدف هذا الجزء من الاستبيان

يشتري هذا الجزء من الاستبيان على عدد من البارارات الخاصة بالتعلم بصورة عامة

عندما نقرأ هذه البارارات فضلاً ضع في اعتبارك تجربتك في التعلم خلال أربعة سنوات الماضية التي تعلمت فيها في هذه المدرسة / الكلية أو خارجها.

لاحظ من فضلتك: في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان يجب عليك أن تبدي رأيك فقط في تجربتك في التعلم بصورة عامة ولا تركز على تجربتك في

دراسة مادة دراسية بينها.

تذكر:

أولاً: هذا الاستبيان ليس اختباراً ولذا لا يوجد إجابة صحيحة أو خاطئة لأي من هذه البارارات وكل المطلوب منك هو إبداء رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية باختيار أول إجابة تزدهر في ذهنك فيما يخص تجربتك في التعلم بصورة عامة.

ثانياً: تمكن المعلومات التي ستكلي بها في هذا الاستبيان في غاية السرية للباحث ولن يقوم معلرك أو أي شخص آخر بالإطلاع عليها ولذا يرجى منك إبداء رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية تجاه البارارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبان.

ثالثاً: بعض البارارات قد تبدو متكررة ولكنها ليست كذلك وعليك ألا تنظر إليها لهذا الأمر فإنه طبيعة هذا النوع من البحوث العلمية.

رابعاً: في حالة وجود غموض حول أي من هذه البارارات فعليك سؤال الشخص المسؤول عن توزيع الاستبيان مباشرة قبل البدء في الإجابة على عناصر الاستبان.

كيف تقوم بالإجابة على عناصر الاستبان

أولاً: قم بقراءة البارارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان ثم حدد مدى صحة كل منها بالنسبة لك مستخدمين المقياس التالي:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>عدد السؤال</th>
<th>لا تطبق على أبداً</th>
<th>لا تطبق على أي ن</th>
<th>لا تطبق على من 0 إلى 5</th>
<th>لا تطبق على من 6 إلى 10</th>
<th>تطبيق على من 10 إلى 15</th>
<th>تطبيق على من 16 إلى 20</th>
<th>تطبيق على تماماً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ثانياً: قم باختيار الرقم الذي يناسب مدى صحة البارارة بالنسبة لك بوضع علامة "√" داخل دائرة واحدة فقط من الدوائر الموجودة أسفل كل علامة من البارارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبان.

مثال:

لا يمكنني أن أستبعد هذا الأمر بشكل جدٍ بالنسبة لي.
لا يمكنني قراءة النص العربي من الصورة. قد تحتاج إلى تقديم النصوص العربية بشكل متقدم أو في صيغة أخرى يمكنني قراءتها بشكل طبيعي.
11. أُعدّ أنّه باكمليني القيام بتدريس المهان المطلوبة مني داخل الفصل المدرسي بشكل منهج.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. إنّنا متأكّدين أنّ باكمليني القيام بتدريس المهان المطلوبة داخل الفصل المدرسي قد حاولت ذلك.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. إنّنا متأكّدين أنّ باكمليني الحصول على درجات أفضل أو أبعد هذه الأفضل.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. إنّنا متأكّدين أنّ باكمليني القيام بكل الفصول المطلوبة مني داخل الفصل المدرسي إذا استمرّت في محاولة ذلك ولم أبعض.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. لو نجحت في دراستي فإنّ ذلك يؤدي إلى أنني قد درست بجد وأعتدّ.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. لو نجحت في دراستي فإنّ ذلك يؤدي إلى أنني أمتلك قدرات عالية لتكملني من النجاح.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. لو نجحت في دراستي فإنّ ذلك يؤدي إلى الأسلوب الممتع الذي تتبعه معي في التدريس.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. إنّ المجهد في دراستي فإنّ ذلك يؤدي إلى أنني لم أمتلك قدرات الكفاءة التي لم تكنني من النجاح.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. إنّ المجهد في دراستي فإنّ ذلك يؤدي إلى أنني لم أمتلك الجهود الكافية التي يمكنني من النجاح.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20. إنّنا ستمتع بالنَّشاط بشكل كبير.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. إنّ التعلم بالنَّشاط هو عبارة عن تحقيق أستمتع به.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. إنّ النَّشاط بالنَّشاط هو عبارة عن تحقيق أستمتع به.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. إنّنا نتهي مع هذه الحصة الدراسية فإنّا أني كلما محتاجي.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24. سأكون في مكان آخر إنّ لم أتحق بهذه المدرسة/الكلية.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حداً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25. سأستمر في التعلم حتى بعد أن أجهذ دراستي في هذه المدرسة/الكلية.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تنطبق على تاماً</th>
<th>تنطبق على حдаً ما</th>
<th>لا تنطبق على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

299


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>تنفيذ على تماماً</th>
<th>تنفيذ على 60%</th>
<th>تنفيذ على 50%</th>
<th>تنفيذ على حسب ما هو ممكن</th>
<th>لا تنفيذ على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


الجواب: 300
الجزء (ب) 
(الدافعية نحو تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية)

هَنَفُهُ هذا الجزء من الاستبيان

يحتوي هذا الجزء من الاستبيان على عدد من العبارات الخاصة بتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. عندما تقرأ هذه العبارات فضلاً ضع في اعتبارك خبرتك في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة / الكلية.

لاهمَهُ من فضلك: في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان يجب عليك فقط أن تدلي رأيك في تجرينتك في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية وألا تركز على تجرينتك في التعلم بصورة عامة.

تذكر:
أولاً: هذا الاستبيان ليس اختباراً ولذا لا يوجد إجابة صحيحة أو خاطئة لأيٍّ من هذه العبارات وكل المطلوب منك هو إدراك رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية بياتختار
أول إجابة ترد إلى ذلك فيمبا خصص تجرينتك في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة / الكلية.

ثانياً: أفيّة، تشير المعلومات التي سنأتي بها في هذا الاستبيان في غاية السرية للباحث ولن يقوم معلمك أو أي شخص آخر بالإطلاع عليها ولذا يرجى مكينإداء رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية تجاه العبارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان.

ثالثاً: بعض العبارات قد تبدو متكررة، ولكنها ليست كذلك وعليك ألا تقلقِيِّ بالله لهذا الأمر فهي طبيعة هذا النوع من البحوث العلمية.

رابعاً: في حالة وجود غموض حول أيٍّ من هذه التعليمات فعليك القول السؤال الشخصي من قِبل الشخص المُسؤول عن توزيع الاستبيان مباشرة قبل البدء في الإجابة على عنصر الاستبيان.

كيف تقوم بالإجابة على عنصر الاستبيان:

أولاً: قم بقراءة العبارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان ثم حدد مدى صحة كل منها بالنسبة لك مستخدمًا المقياس التالي:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تطبيقً على تمامًا</th>
<th>تطبيقً على جزء من عاماً</th>
<th>لا تطبقًا على جزء من عاماً</th>
<th>لا تطبقًا على الإجابة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ثانياً: قم باختيار الرقم الذي ينسجم مدى صحة العبارة بالنسبة لك يتوافق علامة 7 خلاً داخل دائرة واحدة فقط من العبارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان.

مثال:
إذنَ أُفضل دراسة مادة اللغة الإنجليزية أكثر من أيَّة أخرى خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تطبيقً على تمامًا</th>
<th>تطبيقً على جزء من عاماً</th>
<th>لا تطبقًا على جزء من عاماً</th>
<th>لا تطبقًا على الإجابة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ملاحظة: في المثال أعلاه، قام المشاركون باختيار الرقم 7 (تطبيقً على جميع) لأنه يرى أن هذه العبارة صحيحة بالنسبة له.

301
1. أثناء حضور الأكاديميات، يمكن أن تكون الأسئلة عن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية هائلة. في هذا الفصل الدراسي:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مستوى</th>
<th>تطبيق على غير أدا</th>
<th>تطبيق على غير أدا</th>
<th>تطبيق على غير أدا</th>
<th>تطبيق على غير أدا</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أقل من 50%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أكثر من 80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. فيما يتعلق بالجذب الذي يحثهента تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مستوى</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أقل من 50%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أكثر من 80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. لا تظلم الوقت الكنفاني لدورة وأجته إنجلزية والدورة الكافية في اللغة الإنجليزية.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مستوى</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أقل من 50%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أكثر من 80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. لا أقوم بالمشاركة بشكل كاف في النقاشات التي تدور أثناء دروس اللغة الإنجليزية.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مستوى</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
<th>سطوع ضوء</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أقل من 50%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71-80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أكثر من 80%</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
<td>لا تطبق على أدا</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

302
55. إنّي لم أتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية إذا لم يطلب مني ذلك.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56. إنّي اتّفقّ على اللغة الإنجليزية في أصبَح أكثر ثقة من الآخرين.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57. إنّي اتّفقّ على اللغة الإنجليزية لكي استغرض قُرآني أمام الآخرين مثل عائلتي وأصدقائي.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

58. إنّي اتّفقّ على اللغة الإنجليزية فقط لمجرّد إرضاء وادي.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

59. إنّي أتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهمّة بالنسبة لي تكونه يوسع مداركي ومعرفي أكثر من الأشخاص الآخرين.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60. لو نجحت في دراسة مادة اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي فإنّ ذلك يعود إلى:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

61. إنّي قد درست بعد وأجتهد.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

62. الأساليب الممتعة الذي تتبّعها معلمي في التدريس.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

63. إنّي لم أتّرك قِرآني الذي يُمكنني من النجاح.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

64. الأساليب الممتعة الذي يُمكنني من النجاح.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65. الأساليب الممتعة الذي يتبعه معلمي في التدريس.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>تمّلقي على تماماً</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 60%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 40%</th>
<th>تمّلقي على 20%</th>
<th>لا تمّلقي على أبداً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7- إن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهم بالنسبة لي لأنه:

| 16 | سياساعني في الحصول على وظيفة في المستقبل.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 17 | سياساعني في مواصلة دراسات مستقبلًا في بلد يحدث الإنجليزية مثل أمريكا أو بريطانيا.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 18 | سياساعني في ت.Helperية الإنترنت عن طريق الإنترنت.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 19 | سياساعني في السفر إلى بلدان يحدث الإنجليزية كأمريكا أو بريطانيا أو كندا.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 20 | سياساعني في التحصيل في الامتحانات والخرج من هذه المدرسة / الكلية.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 21 | سياساعني في التعرف على صحة الأم التي تحدث الإنجليزية.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 22 | سياساعني في التخاطب مع الأشخاص الذين يتحدثون الإنجليزية.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 23 | سياساعني في الحصول على اسقاء يتحدثون الإنجليزية.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 24 | سياساعني في تطبيق الإندب الإنجليزية.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 25 | سياساعني في تقديم الأدب والفن الإنجليزي.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 26 | سياساعني في التعرف بالدين الإسلامي والدعو إلى.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على تمامًا</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>تطبيق على</strong></td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>لا تطبق على</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
الجزء (ج)
تقييم عناصر عملية تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية داخل الفصل الدراسي
( معلم اللغة الإنجليزية، مقرر اللغة الإنجليزية، مجموعة المعلمين، المتعلم نفسه )

هدف هذا الجزء من الإستبيان

يهدف هذا الجزء من الاستبيان إلى معرفة تقييمك لمعلم اللغة الإنجليزية، مجموعة الدارسين معلك (زملائك) في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية وكذلك لذاتك/ لنفسك كتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية في هذه المدرسة / الكلية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي.

تذكر:
أولاً: هذا الاستبيان ليس اختباراً ولذا لا يوجد إجابة صحيحة أو خاطئة لأي من هذه العبارات وكل المطلوب منك هو إبداء رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية باختيار أول إجابة ترتدي إلى ذلك فيما يخص تقييمك لمعلم اللغة الإنجليزية، مقرر اللغة الإنجليزية، مجموعة الدارسين معلك
في فصل اللغة الإنجليزية وكذلك لذاتك/ لنفسك كتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة / الكلية.

ثانياً: تُعتبر المعلومات التي ستركلي بها في هذا الاستبيان في غاية السرية للباحث ولن يقوم معلمك أو أي شخص آخر بالإطلاع عليها ولذا يُرجى منك إبداء رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية تجاه العبارات الموجودة في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان.

ثالثاً: بعض الصفات البارزة في هذا الجزء تبدو مكررة ولكنها ليست كذلك وعليك الاتباع بالأمر لهذه الامور فهذه طبيعة هذا النوع من البحوث العلمية.

رابعاً: في حالة وجود غموض حول أي من هذه التقييمات فعليك سؤال الشخص المسؤول عن توزيع الاستبيان مباشرة قبل البدء في الإجابة على عناصر الاستبيان.

تعليقات

في هذا الجزء من الاستبيان ستقوم باستخدام مقياس جديد و مختلف عن المقياس المستخدم في الجزء السابق.

في هذا المقياس ستستفيد صفتين متضادتين على الطرفين الأيمن والأيسر من المقياس كما هو مبين في المثال الآتي.

حزمة ٢------------------------------ سعيدة
كيف تقوم بالإجابة على عناصر الاستبيان

فضلاً قم بإخبار الرقم الذي يناسب مدى تقيمك لعناصر الامتحان التقييمية بوضع علامة * * * * داخل دائرة واحدة فقط، من الدرجات الموجودة بين كل صفتين من الصفات الموجودة على طرف المقياس.

مثال:
إن تقييمك لمعلمي المادة اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة / الكلية أنّ:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>عدد</th>
<th>70</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>جمّن</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

إذا كنت ترى أن معلمك شريك جزء في ذلك فستختار الرقم 7 أو رقم نمليا من الرقم 7
إذا كنت ترى أن معلمك شريك سعيد فإنه ستختار الرقم 1 أو رقم نمليا من الرقم 1

ملحوظة: في المثال أعلاه قام المشاركون بإخبار الرقم 5 لأنه يرى أن معلمه شريك جزء إلى حد ما.

يُمكنك الآن إذا كنت جاهزاً أن تبدأ في تعبئة هذا الجزء من الاستبيان ولاتنسى أن تُعبر عن رأيك بكل صراحة وشفافية وأن تقوم بالإجابة على جميع العناصر.

1. إن تقييمك لمعلمي المادة اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة / الكلية أنّ:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>غير متقدم لغويًا</th>
<th>70</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>تقدم</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مُلخص</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ذكي</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>حنون / ودود</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>لا يُتق بطلبه</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>متعاون</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>متسامح</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>عادل</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

307
2. إن تقييمي لمقرر اللغة الإنجليزية الذي أدرسه خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة/ الكلية آتياً:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مَّغَدِّر</th>
<th>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غَـبَيْرَانِيَّ</td>
<td>70 50 30 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مَّغَدِّر</td>
<td>70 30 0 50 0 60 0 40 0 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

لا قيمة له 10 60 50 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
3. إن تقييمي لمجموعة الدارسين معى لمادة اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة: الكلية أنهم:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>المعلمين</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>مجاورون/عطوفون</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>متعاونون</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>لا يعتمدون عليهم</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مجهدون</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>متعاونون</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>لا يعتمدون عليهم</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مجهدون</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. إن تقييمي لنفسي كمتعلم لمادة اللغة الإنجليزية خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي في هذه المدرسة / الكلية أتي:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>المتعلم</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>30</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>50</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>70</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>مُثمّم</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مُتَّبَع</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>لا أُشَغْر بالتحدي</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مُتَحَمَّس</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>قلّ</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>واثق</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مُتَّجَّر</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>استقلالي</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>غير راض عن نفسي</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مُشتهت الذهن</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مُتقدَّم في الطموح</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>متعاون</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

نهاية الاستبيان. شكرا جزيلا لمشاركتكم.
## Appendix K: Classroom Observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observer:</th>
<th>Date: /2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit#</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### School Information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>School level:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Students' Information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total:</th>
<th>Observed Gender:</th>
<th># Boys:</th>
<th># Girls:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Teacher's Information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Qualification:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course/Skill observed:</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total # of minutes observed for the teacher</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total # of minutes observed for the learners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total # of minutes observed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Type of group:

- [ ] Experimental
- [ ] Control
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Teacher's Motivational Practices</th>
<th>VARIABLES (Teacher)</th>
<th>SCALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body movement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye contact</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facial expressions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical proximity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Learners' Motivated Behaviours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES (Learners)</th>
<th>Most &gt;75%</th>
<th>Many 50-75%</th>
<th>Some 25-50%</th>
<th>Few &lt;25%</th>
<th>None 0%</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer for participation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work on assigned activity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raise hands to participate.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make comments and give opinions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put questions to other students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put questions to the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answer questions from other students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answer questions from the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make appropriate non-verbal responses.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow the text being read.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orient towards another participating student.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look at relevant visual stimuli.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow the teacher movements.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display inattentive or disruptive behaviour.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES (Teacher)</th>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
|       |            |       |               |        |       |     |
Appendix L: Teachers’ post-lesson evaluation

Surveyor: ................................................................. Date: ........../............./ 2009

Visit # ..........................................

School information:
Name: ........................................................................................................................................
School level: ................................................................................................................................

Teacher information:
Name: ........................................................................................................................................
Qualification: ................................................................................................................................
Experience: ................................... yrs. ........................................................ months.

Course/Skill observed: ..................................................................................................................

Type of group: □ Experimental □ Control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>Extremely 6</th>
<th>Quite 5</th>
<th>Slightly 4</th>
<th>Neither 0</th>
<th>Slightly 3</th>
<th>Quite 2</th>
<th>Extremely 1</th>
<th>SCORE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Linguistically competent</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Linguistically incompetent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Focused/Task-oriented</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Unfocused/Wastes time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Increases students’ expectancy of success</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Increases students’ expectancy of failure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Clear instructions and explanations</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Confusing instructions and explanations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Kind, caring</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Unkind, uncaring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Sincere</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Insincere</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Enthusiastic</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Unenthusiastic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trait</td>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Humorous/light-hearted style</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Dry style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Encouraging</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Not encouraging</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Creative/Takes risks</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Uncreative/Does not take risks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Helpful</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Unhelpful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Promoting L2 values</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Not promoting L2 values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Establishing relevance</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Not establishing relevance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Autonomy-supporting</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Controlling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Arousing curiosity</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Not arousing curiosity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Promoting cooperation</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Promoting individual performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Giving challenging tasks</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Giving easy tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Giving tangible tasks</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Giving intangible tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Motivating feedback</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Demotivating feedback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Effective praise</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Ineffective praise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Calm</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Nervous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Confident</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Hesitant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Interested</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Uninterested</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Exciting style</td>
<td>6 ↔ 1</td>
<td>Dull style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall teacher’s evaluation score =**