



**AN INVESTIGATION INTO EFL INSTRUCTORS' BELIEFS AND
PRACTICES REGARDING THE USE OF MOTIVATIONAL
STRATEGIES**

İrem Bölükbaşı

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Adı : İrem
Soyadı : BÖLÜKBAŞI
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Yazar Adı Soyadı: İrem BÖLÜKBAŞI

İmza:

JÜRİ ONAY SAYFASI

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Danışman: Prof. Dr. Cem BALÇIKANLI

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi

Başkan: Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Gazi Üniversitesi

Üye: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Neslihan ÖZKAN

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Ufuk Üniversitesi

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To my beloved family

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ÖZ

Motivasyon stratejileri, motivasyon üzerine olan araştırmaların her zaman çok önemli bir parçası olmuştur. Motivasyon stratejileri üzerine deneysel çalışmalar olmasına rağmen, çok az çalışma yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreten öğretim görevlilerinin motivasyon stratejileri hakkındaki inançları ve sınıftaki gerçek motivasyon uygulamaları arasındaki ilişkiye odaklanmıştır. Bu sebeple, bu çalışma yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreten öğretim görevlilerinin kullandıklarını iddia ettikleri motivasyon stratejilerini sınıflarında da gerçekten uygulayıp uygulamadıklarını bulmayı hedeflemektedir. Çalışmaya, Türkiye'deki bir devlet üniversitesinin İngilizce hazırlık okulunda çalışan yedi öğretim görevlisi katılmıştır. Çalışma için gerekli veri, Cheng ve Dörnyei'nin (2007) Motivasyon Stratejileri Anketi, kaydedilmiş yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme ve gözlemler yoluyla sağlanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları, öğretim görevlilerinin motivasyon stratejilerinin önemini kabul ettiklerini ve genellikle sınıflarında kullandıklarına inandıklarını göstermiştir. Benzer şekilde, öğretim görevlilerinin motivasyon stratejilerinin çoğunu öğretim uygulamalarında kullandıkları tespit edilmiştir. Sonuç olarak, öğretmenlerin motivasyon stratejileri ile ilgili inanç ve uygulamalarının çoğunlukla birbiriyle uyumlu olduğu bulunmuştur. Ancak, bazı

motivasyon stratejileri ile ilgili inanç ve uygulamalar arasında uyumsuzlıklara rastlanmıştır. Bu temelde, çalışmanın öğretmen eğitimi için etkileri sunulmuş ve gelecek çalışmalar için önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Motivasyon, motivasyon stratejileri, öğretmen bilişi
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İrem Bölükbaşı

GAZI UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Motivational strategies have always been seen as a crucial aspect of research related to motivation. Even though there are empirical studies on motivational strategies, few of the studies focus on the relationship between English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs about motivational strategies and their actual use of motivational practices in the classroom. To this end, the study mainly aimed to find out whether EFL instructors actually made use of the motivational strategies that they believed they usually employed in their instruction. The study was designed as a case study with seven EFL instructors in an English preparatory school of a state university in Turkey. Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) Motivational Strategies Questionnaire, recorded semi-structured interviews and observations were utilized in order to fully explore the instructors' beliefs and practices regarding the use of motivational strategies. The findings of the study indicated that instructors acknowledged the significance of motivational strategies and they believed they generally adopted them in their classrooms. In similar fashion, it was found that instructors utilized most of the motivational strategies in their teaching practices. Consequently, instructors' beliefs and practices relative to motivational strategies were found to be mostly

in line with each other. However, there were still some tensions between the beliefs and practices with respect to certain motivational strategies. On this basis, implications of the study for teacher education and suggestions for further study were presented.

Key Words : L2 motivation, motivational strategies, teacher cognition
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
ÖZ	vi
ABSTRACT	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xv
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	4
Purpose of the Study	6
Importance of the Study	6
Definitions of Some Key Concepts.....	7
CHAPTER II	9
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	9
What is Motivation?.....	9
Motivational Theories in General Education	10
Motivational Theories in Second/Foreign Language Education	14
The Social Psychological Period.....	14
The Cognitive-situated Period.....	16
The Process-oriented Period	18

From Process-oriented to Socio-dynamic Perspectives	19
Motivational Strategies in ELT	21
Strategies Focusing on Learners' Vision of Their Future Selves.....	24
Strategies with a Focus on Individual Learning Experience.....	25
Strategies with a Focus on Learner Group Experience	27
Studies on Motivational Strategies	30
Language Teacher Cognition	34
Studies on the Cognitions of Pre-service Language Teachers.....	38
Studies on the Cognitions of In-service Language Teachers.....	40
Studies on Teacher Cognition and Classroom Application of Motivational Strategies.....	45
CHAPTER III.....	49
METHODOLOGY	49
Introduction	49
Research Design	49
Research Questions	50
Research Setting and Participants.....	51
Data Collection Instruments	52
Motivational Strategies Questionnaire.....	53
Interview	53
Observation.....	55
Data Collection Procedure	56
Data Analysis	57
CHAPTER IV	59
RESULTS.....	59
Findings of the First Research Question.....	59
Quantitative Findings	59
Qualitative Findings.....	61
<i>Proper Teacher Behavior</i>	61
<i>Recognizing Students' Effort</i>	63
<i>Promoting Learners' Self-confidence</i>	64
<i>Creating a Pleasant Classroom Climate</i>	66
<i>Presenting Tasks Properly</i>	68

<i>Increasing Learners' Goal-orientedness</i>	69
<i>Making the Learning Tasks Stimulating</i>	71
<i>Familiarizing Learners with FL-related Values</i>	72
<i>Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Group Norms</i>	73
<i>Promoting Learner Autonomy</i>	75
Findings of the Second Research Question	77
Proper Teacher Behavior	77
Recognizing Students' Effort	78
Promoting Learners' Self-confidence	79
Creating a Pleasant Classroom Climate	80
Presenting Tasks Properly	81
Increasing Learners' Goal-orientedness	82
Making the Learning Tasks Stimulating	82
Familiarizing Learners with FL-Related Values	83
Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Group Norms	84
Promoting Learner Autonomy	84
Findings of the Third Research Question	86
CHAPTER V	92
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	92
Interpretation of the Findings of the First Research Question	92
Interpretation of the Findings of the Second Research Question	98
Interpretation of the Findings of the Third Research Question	101
Pedagogical Implications	103
Limitations to the Study and Suggestions for the Future Research	104
REFERENCES	106
APPENDICES	127
Appendix 1. Motivational Strategies Questionnaire(Frequency)	128
Appendix 2. Motivational Strategies Questionnaire(Importance)	131
Appendix 3. Strategy Observation Scheme	134
Appendix 4. Interview Questions	136
Appendix 5. Informed Consent Form (Turkish)	137
Appendix 6. Informed Consent Form (English)	138

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. <i>Demographic Profile of the Participants</i>	52
Table 2. <i>Data Collection Process</i>	56
Table 3. <i>Mean Frequency of Each Item (M); Difference Between Each Item's Mean Frequency and the Mean Frequency of All Items (M-diff); The Frequency of an Item Relative to the Importance Attached to It (Z-Diff)</i>	60
Table 4. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Proper Teacher Behavior</i>	61
Table 5. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Recognizing Students' Effort</i>	63
Table 6. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Promoting Learners' Self-confidence</i>	65
Table 7. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Creating a Pleasant Classroom Environment</i>	66
Table 8. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Presenting Tasks Properly</i>	68
Table 9. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Increasing Learners' Goal-orientedness</i>	70
Table 10. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Making the Learning Tasks Stimulating</i>	71
Table 11. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Familiarizing Learners with FL-related Values</i>	72
Table 12. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Group Norms</i> ..	73
Table 13. <i>Instructors' Beliefs about Promoting Learner Autonomy</i>	75
Table 14. <i>Instructors' Stated Beliefs (S) and Observed Practices (O)</i>	91
Table 15. <i>Comparison of the Mean Score and Rank Order of the Macrostrategies in Importance and Frequency Questionnaires</i>	95

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1.</i> The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom.....	22
<i>Figure 2.</i> Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education and classroom practice ...	36

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELL	English Language and Literature
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Over the last few decades, there has been a growing interest in the study of motivation in psychology. Many definitions have been put forward to refer to the term “motivation”, all of which are basically centered on the Latin root of the word: “movere” meaning “to move”. All in all, motivation is widely considered “as an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action” (Brown, 2000, p. 152).

The notion of motivation has been at the heart of foreign and second language education research over the last six decades. A key factor that drives the increase in research into this field has been the recognition of the fact that there may be a link between learners’ motivation level and their success or failure in the lessons. To this end, many theories have been put forward to investigate motivation in second and foreign language learning.

Research into second/foreign language learning motivation was pioneered by Robert Gardner and his associates in the second half of the 20th century in Canada. By looking from a social psychological perspective, Gardner and Lambert (1972) asserted that

Success in mastering a foreign language would depend not only on intellectual capacity and aptitude, but also on the learners’ perceptions of the other linguistic group involved, his attitudes towards representatives of that group, and his willingness to identify enough to adopt distinctive aspects of behaviour, linguistic and nonlinguistic, that characterize that other group (p.132).

Gardner and Lambert (1972) argued that motivation was associated with variability in second language acquisition and its impact on learners was different from those of aptitude and ability. They introduced the terms “integrative and instrumental orientation” in

language learning. While the former was described as “reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group”, the latter was defined as “reflecting the practical value and advantage of learning a foreign language” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p.132). Both of them could affect achievement, but integrative one was more persevering (Gardner, 2010). According to Gardner’s socio-educational model (2010), learning a new language in school was dissimilar to learning the other subjects since learners were required to understand the characteristics of another cultural community. Therefore, learners’ willingness or ability to take on features of a different community was critically important (Gardner, 2010).

The social psychological approach to motivation was highly dominant in language education between the 1970s and 1980s and later models were developed by Gardner and his associates. However, it was criticized by many scholars like Crookes and Schmidt (1991) mainly because more recent studies were needed to concentrate more on students’ learning behaviors for the sake of broadening the extent of language learning motivation and increasing the instructional potential of the motivation theory (Dörnyei, 1994). As a result of these discussions, a new phase of motivation started: the cognitive-situated period. Two of the most prominent scholars of this period were Crookes and Schmidt (1991) who suggested discovering the concepts of motivation that teachers viewed as crucial for successful language learning, and also examining what motivated students. Similarly, Oxford and Shearin (1994) asserted that teachers tended to make assumptions about the students’ motives when they did not know the factors that motivated their students, and suggested some ways to strengthen foreign language students’ motivation. The overall focus of the research in this period was to “bring L2 motivation research in line with cognitive theories in mainstream motivational psychology” and “move from the broad macro perspective of ethnolinguistic communities and learners’ general dispositions to L2 learning to a more situated analysis of motivation in specific learning settings” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012, p.397). As the central focus of the motivation studies was on L2 teaching contexts, such cognitive motivation theories as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and attributions were integrated, and broader theoretical frameworks were suggested (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994, Williams & Burden, 1997).

Due to the temporal structure of motivation, much of the research aimed to measure motivation at a definite moment in time and investigated the relationship between L2 motivation and achievement or performance accordingly (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012).

However, later models addressed the temporal structure of L2 motivation from a more process-oriented perspective and tried to shed light on the conceptual difference between motivation to become involved in learning and motivation during involvement (e.g. Dörnyei, 2000; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Ushioda, 2001; William & Burden, 1997). One of the highly recognized process models was Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) model which separated motivation into three stages: pre-actional, actional, and post-actional. According to their model, each phase was formed by internal and contextual motivational impacts, and regulatory mechanisms which might be either enhancing or inhibiting depending on their outcomes.

Though a lot of research was carried out on student motivation both in psychology and L2 studies, the target population of that research was researchers who facilitated further studies, rather than practitioners who wished to improve their teaching (Dörnyei, 2001). There was a gap between motivation theory and applications of the theory until several motivation researchers and educational psychologists turned their focus on classroom practice (Dörnyei, 2001). As a result of this relatively recent trend, some sets of motivational strategies - "techniques that promote the individual's goal-oriented behavior" - were suggested by different scholars (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28). Some researchers proposed motivational strategies frameworks for L2 classroom applications. For example, Dörnyei's (1994) three-level framework was based on motivation theories in educational psychology, initial research into L2 motivation and his practical knowledge. In that model, 30 motivational strategies were categorized under three levels: language level, learner level, and learning-situation level. Williams and Burden (1997) introduced a different framework of motivational strategies as they believed that learners were motivated in different ways and their motivation was influenced by social and contextual influences such as instructors, learning atmosphere, and system of education. They also grouped those influences considering their internal and external quality. By making an empirical study, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) added some more suggestions to motivate language learners and formed "Ten commandments for motivating language learners" which focused on lesson preparation and presentation, classroom atmosphere, relationship with students, goal-setting, cultural awareness, and creative idea production (p.215). A more inclusive model of L2 motivational strategies was put forward by Dörnyei (2001). He offered a process-oriented model for educational applications because he believed that the model had an advantage over the others in terms of comprehensiveness. The four main motivational

aspects of his model included “creating the basic motivational conditions”, “generating initial motivation”, “maintaining and protecting motivation”, and “encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation” (Dörnyei, 2001, p.29). Based mainly on these four aspects, many scholars tried to identify the motivational strategies teachers employed in their instructional settings (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Wong, 2013). It was widely acknowledged that the conscious use of those motivational strategies could generate and/or enhance motivation.

Meanwhile, as a result of the growing interest in the field of language teacher cognition and of its connection with teachers’ instructional applications, language teachers’ cognitions or beliefs about motivational strategies started to be another research interest. As Borg (2006) suggested, understanding teacher cognition was crucial for understanding teaching. Therefore, researchers tried to discover what language teachers thought, knew, and believed about motivation in the classroom and how they or their students approached the use of motivational strategies. Much of work done to discover teachers’ beliefs, perceptions, or cognitions about motivational strategies relied exclusively on self-reported data from teachers and/or students (e.g. Manning, Henneberry, & Kobayashi, 2012; Ruesch, Bown, & Dewey, 2012). While the studies provided rich insights into the cognitions of teachers about motivating students, they appeared to have failed to address the relationship between teachers’ actual use of motivational strategies and their beliefs about them. Although many studies were conducted to better understand the link between language teachers’ instructional practices and cognitions (e.g. Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Kubanyiova, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Öztürk & Yıldırım, 2019; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Verloop, Driel & Meijer, 2001; Zheng, 2009), studies with a special focus on the link between language teachers’ cognition about motivational strategies and teachers’ actual motivational practices were limited (e.g. Sil, 2017; Yang, 2015). That’s why the present study aimed to gain more insight into the actual classroom behavior of the teachers regarding the use of motivational strategies and discovering the link between teachers’ cognitions about their use of motivational strategies and their actual use of motivational strategies in the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

Motivation has been regarded as of great importance in the field of second and foreign language learning over a half-century (Chen, Warden, & Chang 2005; Crookes & Schmidt,

1991; Dörnyei 1994; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). It is widely agreed that understanding the concept of motivation and how it affects learning process is vital in 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 achieve his or her goals. That is, the motivated individual exhibits many behaviors, feelings, cognitions, etc., that the individual who is unmotivated does not (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p. 128).

As Masgoret and Gardner (2003) indicate, learners with high motivation tend to show more effort and interest in learning activities, which could lead to a more satisfactory performance in the classroom and high achievement scores. To this end, considerable amount of research has been conducted to examine L2 motivation from various research perspectives which mainly center on models of L2 motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Gardner, 1985;), motivational strategies frameworks (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; William & Burden, 1997), the relationship between the use of motivational strategies and students' L2 motivation (e.g. Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), and student and/or teacher perceptions on the effectiveness of motivational strategies (e.g. Alqahtani, 2016; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). It is widely acknowledged that teachers have a major role in generating, enhancing and sustaining students' motivation; and thus teachers should be encouraged to adopt a motivating behavior in the classroom. However, few researchers have addressed the question of how teachers conceive motivational strategies and how they actually employ them in their classrooms. The relationship between teacher cognition which is defined as "unobservable cognitive dimensions of teaching as what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003) and teachers' motivational practice in the classroom has been a neglected area. Though some studies have tried to understand teachers' cognition about motivation and motivational strategies, they are limited in shedding light into the real instructional practices of the teachers since they heavily rely on self-reported data. A significant feature of the present study is the research paradigm that contains classroom observation component in addition to self-report instruments. Classroom observations could help the narrow down the research gap as they provide rich insights into the cognitions of teachers and their motivational practices.

Although most teachers believe that they are good motivators in the classroom, their teaching practices may not be as motivating as they claim. Teachers' cognitions may be different from their instructional practices as suggested by many studies (e.g. Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). When a discrepancy between teacher cognition and practice exists, teachers may not show their full performance in the classroom and may not attend the reluctant learners to the lesson. Thus understanding teacher cognition is a key issue in understanding teachers' instructional practices (Borg, 2006). Although the study of teacher cognition has aroused interest in not only mainstream education but also in L2 and FL contexts, "there are several major issues in language teaching which have yet to be explored from the perspective of teacher cognition" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). An investigation into motivational strategies from the standpoint of language teacher cognition is one of those issues waiting to be discovered. In response to that problem, the present study seeks to address the gap in literature about the link between teachers' cognitions about motivational strategies and their actual motivational practices.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to find out whether the instructors actually make use of the motivational strategies that they believe they usually employ in their instruction. The following research questions are proposed to accomplish the purpose of the study:

1. What beliefs do EFL instructors hold about their use of motivational strategies?
2. What kind of motivational strategies do instructors use in their teaching context?
3. Are the instructors' cognitions about the use of motivational strategies compatible with their actual practice?

Importance of the Study

It is widely agreed that motivation has a tremendous effect on students' achievement. Numerous studies have been conducted to discover the correlation between the motivation of the students and their language learning achievement (e.g. Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). The focus of most of the other studies is what motivates students and how students react to motivational strategies (e.g. Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Wong, 2013). Furthermore, much of the

research carried out on motivational strategies investigates the perceptions and beliefs of the teachers and students (e.g. Manning et al., 2012; Ruesch et al., 2012). Nevertheless, there is little focus on teaching practices in the real classroom environment. In order to fill the gap between theory and practice, research devoted to classrooms is required (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Moreover, teachers' cognition on what they do in their classroom is another crucial issue in language teaching. Although language teacher cognition has been commonly investigated, how to relate it to teachers' motivational practices has not been sufficiently researched. Thus, this study may put a light into the link between the actual motivational practices of teachers and their cognition and contribute to narrow down the gap between theory and practice. The findings of this study can provide new insights into the area of pre-service and in-service teacher training programs in terms of the use of motivational strategies since these programs tend to overlook the importance of motivational issues in the classroom. As Dörnyei (2018) states:

Unfortunately, motivational issues do not tend to receive sufficient emphasis in L2 teacher education and, as a consequence, instructors often find themselves in situations where they are expected to meet the challenging demands of classroom management without sufficient awareness and training (p. 5).

Moreover, the findings of the study can help teachers raise their "motivational awareness" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) by showing them whether they actually perform what they claim to do in the classroom. The study might also provide some insights about whether it is sufficient for teachers to know motivational strategies to employ them in the classroom. The match or mismatch between teachers' cognitions about what they do in the classroom and their instructional practices could provide beneficial contribution to teacher cognition research. Depending on the results, some suggestions may be made to develop teachers' cognition and their teaching practices in relation to motivational strategies. Improved motivational teaching practices could lead to increased student participation and achievement, and also increased motivation of the teacher. For all these reasons, the relationship between teachers' cognitions about motivational strategies and their use of these strategies is worth being investigated.

Definitions of Some Key Concepts

Motivation: "Motivation can be construed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained

intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p.120).

Motivational strategies: "Motivational strategies are techniques that promote the individual's goal-related behaviour" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28).

Motivational teaching practice: Teachers` engagement in the implementation of a number of conscious motivational strategies in order to create a motivating classroom environment.

Second language teacher education: "The sum of various interventions that are used to develop professional knowledge among language teaching practitioners" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 398).

Teachers` beliefs: "a term usually used to refer to teachers' pedagogic beliefs, or those beliefs of relevance to an individual's teaching" (Borg, 2001, p.187).

Language teacher cognition: "-what teachers think, know, and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom" (Borg, 2003, p.81).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

What is Motivation?

In the field of psychology, there seems to be no clear definition of the term “motivation”. Considering the potential range of motives in human behaviors and the challenge to capture the whole picture, researchers tend to be selective in their focus to understand “motivation” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). However, most researchers tend to agree that “motivation determines three aspects of human behavior: the choice of a particular action, persistence with it, and effort expended on it” (Dörnyei, 2000, p.519-520). In other words, motivation may account for why people choose to act in a specific way, how long they will maintain acting in that way, and how hard they strive for that action. These questions are fundamental in understanding human motivation and behavior in all the main fields of psychology such as behaviorist psychology, cognitive psychology, humanistic psychology and social psychology; therefore, it is understandable to find many motivation constructs in educational psychology (Dörnyei, 1999).

In educational psychology, motivation is mainly considered as an impetus to “maintain assigned goals for a considerable period, elaborate on subgoals, and exercise control over other thoughts and behavior that are often more desirable than concentrating on academic work” (Dörnyei 1999, p. 526). That is to say, the impact of motivation on the initial decision to work towards the goal is given less significance than motivational factors that affect action during goal execution process. Most of the goals and decisions are; in fact, imposed on the learners by the system in educational settings, and that restricts the “choice” aspect of motivation (Dörnyei, 1999; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

In second and foreign language learning settings, L2 motivation is among the most commonly discussed issues. Several researchers (e.g. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) have attempted to define L2 motivation, but there is still no accepted definition. In broad terms, L2 motivation is “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). Dörnyei (2009) asserts that L2 motivation has many sides that involve featured personality and social dimensions along with environmental and cognitive influences. In his overview *Motivation in Second and Foreign Language Learning*, Dörnyei (2009) concludes that “motivation is indeed a multifaceted rather than a uniform factor and no available theory has yet managed to represent it in its total complexity” (p.131).

Motivational Theories in General Education

Initial studies of motivation are considered to derive from the study of instincts which are perceived as a source of motivation that propels actions (e.g. Freud, 1925; McDougall, 1923). Later studies replace the concept “instinct” with “needs” or, in other words, “drive” by also typically emphasizing the physiological factors that prompt behavior (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 2000; Maslow, 1943). At the beginning of the 20th century, psychologists shift their focus to experimental settings in which they could investigate the instincts and needs in depth with representations in subhuman. These experimentation studies (e.g. Warner, 1928) form the basis of drive theory (e.g. Hull, 1943; Spence, 1958). These studies often examine the connection between the notion of “need or drive” that is the source of energy for an action; “reward or incentive” which is an object that decreases or increases the level of drive and establishes the goal of the action; “homeostasis, equilibrium, or balance” which is the state after the need is satisfied; “hedonism” which is the feeling of fulfillment after attaining a goal or moderating the need; and “functionalism” which is the survival effects of behavior (Graham & Weiner, 2012, p. 368). According to the laws of drive theory, there is a positive correlation between the level of drive and the level of motivation. If the former surges, the latter increases; in a similar fashion, if the former is 0, the latter is 0, as well. The laws rooted in the subhuman experimentation along with the earlier studies on the needs and instincts are basically under the influence of behaviorism and they lead to the development of studies in the field of motivation.

In the second half of the 20th century, there is an increasing focus on understanding human motivation and achievement striving given the cognitive revolution in psychology that arises as a reaction to behaviorism. Motivational cognitive theories are centered on understanding the effect of beliefs, cognitive structures and information-processing mechanisms on human action and behavior without disregarding the potential effects of social and environmental factors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). One of the key motivational cognitive frameworks is basically expressed as a formula: Expectancy x Value = Motivation (Atkinson, 1957). Expectancy-value theories are mainly built upon two central components. One of them is the individuals' expectancy of success in performing a task which also includes the rewards gained as a result of the success in that specific task. The other component is the value that the individuals place on the given task achievement such as the value attached to the rewards or to the involvement in carrying out the task. As the individuals' expectancy of goal-attainment and the value attached to that goal increases, their motivation for achievement increases, as well. In his early model, Atkinson (1957) describes achievement motivation as "a joint multiplicative function of motive, expectancy (subjective probability), and incentive" (p. 371) and broadens the extent of expectancy-value theories of achievement motivation. However, the focus of these theories is mostly the expectancy component rather than the value component in expectancy-value models (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

In the field of education, the expectancy of success is mainly investigated through three key cognitive theories named as attribution theory, self-efficacy theory, and self-worth theory. Emanated from Weiner's (1992) work, attribution theory hypothesizes that individuals try to explain their previous successes and failures by processing their past experiences, and this influences their behavior in various ways. For instance, attributing failure in an exam to an uncontrollable external factor like a lousy teacher or difficulty of the exam might lead an individual to perceive only external factors directly responsible for that failure. On the other hand, when the individual gets a high score in the same exam, he or she might attribute this success to an internal factor such as aptitude or intelligence and thus he or she could be content with the teacher and the difficulty level of the exam. First introduced by Albert Bandura (1986) as a social cognitive theory, self-efficacy theory suggests that individuals' perceptions of their abilities and competence to perform specific tasks, which is referred as self-efficacy, regulate their amount of aspiration, activity preferences, level of effort they put in, and determination they reveal. According to self-

efficacy theory, individuals with a low amount of self-efficacy tend to be anxious about their personal weaknesses and the obstacles they come across when they encounter with tasks that they perceive as challenging and hardly focus on how to achieve the tasks. When it comes to Covington's (1992) self-worth theory, it suggests that individuals become well motivated when they retain a strong sense of self-esteem; in other words, personal value. Thus a deep sense of self-worth plays a pivotal role in building motivation in educational contexts especially in contexts where poor performance could threaten learners' self-esteem (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The component of value in expectancy-value theories is less comprehensively investigated compared to the expectancy component as mentioned earlier. One of the most extensive models of the value component explains that achievement value of a task consists of attainment value (i.e. importance attached to doing well on a task), intrinsic value (i.e. satisfaction gained as a result of engaging in the task), extrinsic utility value (i.e. appropriateness of the task to future plans), and cost (i.e. the price of engaging in the task) (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). The value compromised of the four components is the indicator of the intensity of the behavior.

In addition to expectancy-value theories, goal theories receive research attention especially in three aspects: goal setting, goal orientation, and goal content and multiplicity (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Goal-setting theory is similar to expectancy-value theories since it proposes that there is a positive correlation between individuals' dedication to the goal and their belief in the possibility of achieving the goal along with the significance they attach to the goal. Despite being developed in the context of the workplace, Locke and Latham's (1990) goal-setting theory is adapted in school contexts (e.g. Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Different from goal-setting theory, goal-orientation theory is originally proposed to explain young learners' performance in educational contexts. The theory basically argues that learners either want to show their ability to others – defined as mastery orientation, or improve their competence or knowledge for the sake of learning – defined as performance orientation (Ames, 1992). Unlike goal-setting and goal-orientation theories which are fundamentally based on the achievement of individuals, the goal content and multiplicity theory suggests that not only academic achievement goals but also social or non-academic goals affect learners' motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). For instance, Wentzel (2000) concludes that learners might have different goals like making friends, avoiding punishment or just trying to learn.

Among motivation theories, one of the most widely known dichotomies is intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation. While the former is explained as individuals' acting for the sake of enjoyment and satisfaction the actions will bring with them, the latter deals with their displayed behavior in order to gain a reward or avoid punishment (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy is replaced by a more comprehensive theory called self-determination theory by Deci and Ryan (1985). According to their theory, intrinsic motivation tends to improve in contexts which meet the individuals' needs of autonomy – the state of being self-governing, competence - feeling successful and qualified, and relatedness - feeling connected to others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Self-determination theory also holds that extrinsic motivation can be shown in a scale consisting of different degrees of external influence or self-determination with respect to the internalization of the extrinsic goals (Ryan & Deci, 2009). In other words, in case they are completely internalized, extrinsic motives could go hand in hand with intrinsic motives. All in all, self-determination theory is influenced by social cognitive theory and emphasizes the impact of social processes on motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The past decade has seen a renewed importance in the role of socio-contextual factors in shaping motivation and broadened the scope of cognitive motivational studies. As a result, the explanation of motivation and other connected psychological concepts have started to include contextual factors and avoided making generalization of the environmental factors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The two prominent contextual factors probably highlighted most are the instructional and social-cultural influences. Instructional context includes the design of the pedagogical material, evaluation, and classroom grouping structures (i.e. competitive, individualistic, or cooperative) whereas social and cultural influences include culture, society, family, school, peers, and teachers (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Social-cultural factors in shaping motivation tend to be involved through the continuing course of students' learning experience; on the other hand, instructional factors could affect students' motivation over a short period of time (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

With an emphasis on research into the effect of culture and society on individual learners' motivation, alternative theoretical structures to traditional cognitive theories are required in that context cannot be separated from the individual; on the contrary, the individual could be seen as an active contributor to the developing context (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Therefore, the connection between individual learners and context is treated as a complex and dynamic system. Taking the complexity of the dynamic situation into account, Volet

(2001) asserts that current motivation research is not dominantly conducted from the perspective of a single theoretical approach. Likewise, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) come to the conclusion that current motivation research is under the influence of “insights from sociocultural theory”, “self-regulatory perspectives”, and “complex dynamic systems approaches” (p. 32).

Motivational Theories in Second/Foreign Language Education

L2 motivation research has advanced somewhat independent from mainstream psychology motivation research since it arises as an attempt to understand the distinctive psychological, behavioral, social and cultural complexities grasping a new system of communication necessities (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Fundamentally, the background to L2 motivation theory derives from both mainstream theoretical perspectives and an intense concentration on aspects of motivation associated with language learning. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 39-40) classify L2 motivation research into four phases:

1. The social psychological period (1959–1990)
2. The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s)
3. The process-oriented period (the turn of the century)
4. The socio-dynamic period (current)

In the following sections, the main developments in each period will be presented.

The Social Psychological Period

The first studies on L2 motivation emerged in a bilingual context of Canada. Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert, two social psychologists, draw their attention to second languages and consider them mediating factors between ethnolinguistic communities. They claim that motivation to learn the second language could facilitate or prevent communication between different cultural groups. A leading principle of their approach is that individuals' L2 learning behavior is directly affected by their opinions on the L2 group and L2, together with their ethnocentric adaptation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Thus language learning motivation differs from learning motivation in that learners are not only expected to grasp the language, but also “to identify with members of another

ethnolinguistic group and to take on very subtle aspects of their behavior, including their distinctive style of speech and their language” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 135). From this perspective, Gardner and Lambert emphasize both non-cognitive and cognitive factors as a notable source of variability in L2 achievement.

Gardner (1985) underlines that L2 motivation consists of three elements: “motivational intensity, desire to learn the language, and attitudes towards learning the language (p. 10)”, and all of them have to be present to think of an individual as motivated. To measure these elements, Gardner and Smythe (1981) develop the Aptitude/Motivation Test Battery and it is commonly administered to determine the key affective factors in learning a second language (Gardner, 2001). The focus of Gardner’s (1985) motivation theory is on the link between motivation and orientation whose function is to help generate motivation and direct that motivation towards the goals. He introduces two types of orientations as integrative and instrumental. Instrumental orientation is associated with the possible pragmatic benefits of proficiency in L2. As for integrative orientation, it refers to the learners’ positive point of view towards the L2 community and their willingness to both communicate with the members of that community and adopting characteristics of the community (Gardner, 2005; Gardner & Lambert, 1959). The integrative motive comprises of “integrativeness” which is a part of integrative orientation, “attitude towards the learning situation”, and “motivation” (Gardner & Macintyre, 1993, p. 159). Nevertheless, the concept of “integrative orientation” is widely criticized because of its definition as a concept and lately its implementation in settings where English is learnt as a global language (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Clement introduces the “concept of linguistic self-confidence” which is a key factor that determines learners’ desire to learn and use the language of a different language community (Clement, 1980; Clement, Gardner & Smythe, 1977). Together with his associates, Clement suggests that a notable motivational element in learning the other community’s language is the quality and quantity of the communication between the individuals in settings in which different speech communities live with each other. They believe that communication could affect the individuals’ future willingness to contact the other group and the level of interrelation with the L2 community (Clement, et al., 1977). Moreover, Clement et al. (1994) broaden the scope of the notion “self-confidence” and assert that it may be an effective factor of motivation in foreign language learning contexts. Schumann (1986) designs the “acculturation model” in order to investigate second

language acquisition under immigration conditions. In his model, he refers to acculturation as the “social and psychological integration of the learner with the target language group” (Schumann, 1986, p. 379). According to acculturation model, acquiring a new language is closely related to the extent of learners’ social and psychological distance to the speakers of that language. Studies on acculturation, language behaviors and ethnolinguistic identity in multicultural contexts are further carried out in Canada, and their overall focus is on situational factors such as the learners’ perception of minority/majority status or ethnic threat that influence motivation, language learning and language use (e.g. Clement & Noels, 1992; Clement, Noels, & Deneault, 2001). This tendency leads to more situated views on L2 motivation in the 1990s and can be considered as the beginning of the cognitive-situated period (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The Cognitive-situated Period

By the end of the 1980s and the start of the 1990s, it was considered that adopting a social psychological perspective to understand L2 motivation ran its course and L2 motivation research demanded new perspectives to boost again (Brown, 1990; Crooks & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As a consequence, the cognitive-situated period of L2 motivation research comes forth. The fundamental features of this period are:

1. the need to bring language motivation research in line with the cognitive revolution in mainstream motivational psychology;
2. the desire to move from the broad perspective of ethnolinguistic communities and learners’ general disposition and attitudes to language learning, and sharpen the focus on a more situated analysis of motivation in specific learning contexts (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 46).

The scope of the new period is not the rejection of all the social psychological perspectives; on the contrary, it is an extension of the present perspectives with the incorporation of cognitive motivation theories (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). A good example of this new trend is Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) study in which they integrate three concepts from cognitive psychology theories of expectancy-value and goal into their model of L2 motivation. They hypothesize that the three concepts - goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy – have a direct effect on the level of the motivational behavior and they are influenced directly by language attitudes. Likewise, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) highlight the need to widen the theoretical framework of L2 motivation and suggest some paths for the future course of the L2 motivation research. They design a motivation

framework with the concepts of interest, relevance, expectancy and satisfaction/outcomes. In a similar fashion, Oxford and Shearin (1994) call into question some past theories about L2 motivation and investigate a wide range of motivation concepts in different disciplines such as need theories, equity theories, social cognition theories, expectancy-value theories, Piaget's cognitive developmental theory, reinforcement theory, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and achievement goal theory. Dörnyei (1994) adapts their perspective and constructs a framework consisting of three levels: language level, learner level, and learning situation level. Language level refers to the elements of L2 such as the community, culture, and the intellectual and pragmatic values and advantages related to L2. As its name suggests, the learner level is associated with the learners' characteristics brought to the learning processes. The last level is connected to situation-specific motives and is categorized under three titles as course-specific motivational constituents like the relevance of the course to learner's needs, teacher-specific motivational constituents like teacher's presentation of tasks, and group-specific motivational constituents such as norm and reward system.

Williams and Burden (1997) put forward the idea that each individual is motivated in a different way and their motivation is exposed to contextual and social factors such as the culture, the social situation, the context, and their contact with the other significant people like their parents, teachers, or peers. Williams and Burden's (1997) and Dörnyei's (1994) frameworks of L2 motivation include the factors of "intrinsic interest" and "interest" respectively which are introduced in Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of self-determination and intrinsic/extrinsic motivation. It is no surprise that self-determination theory widely recognized by educational psychology also influences views on language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). For instance, looking from a self-determination perspective, Kimberly A. Noels and her associates design a questionnaire to measure L2 learners' varied intrinsic and extrinsic orientations, which provides a theoretical framework that can be used to categorize and organize language learning orientations from a new perspective (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000).

Language learning strategies and learner autonomy in language education became another commonly researched topic in the 1990s, and many of the researches are centered on the connection between language learning strategies and motivation (e.g. Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991), and hypothetical interface between autonomy and motivation (e.g. Allwright, 1990; Little, 1991). Drawing on the literature, Dickinson (1995) proposes that

increased motivation and learning success are influenced by learners' taking responsibility for their own learning, controlling their own learning and attributing their achievements and failures to their own efforts and strategies; and all of these requirements are included in learner autonomy. Dickinson (1995) also suggests that both motivation and autonomy are connected to the learners' active participation and engagement with the learning process, and therefore they are interrelated. In addition to the autonomy perspective, language learning motivation has started to be investigated in terms of task motivation as a process over time (e.g. Dörnyei, 2002; Julkunen, 2001). Consequently, the cognitive-situated perspectives pave the way for the studies on the temporal feature of motivation and its dynamic nature, and lead to the process-oriented theoretical perspectives (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The Process-oriented Period

Most of the experienced teachers are well aware of the fact that the motivation level of the students is not the same throughout the learning process; however, the forces or processes that produce a change in L2 motivation is not investigated well enough until the last decade (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Thanks to the works of Williams and Burden (1997), Ushioda (1994, 1998), Dörnyei and Ottó (1998), the potential outcomes of adopting process-oriented approaches have been understood more.

Williams and Burden (1997) assert that motivation is not only about arousing an initial interest but also about maintaining interest and devoting energy and time necessary to attain certain objectives. Moreover, they offer a comprehensive framework of L2 motivation whose main categories are internal and external motivational factors including subsections based on present themes in educational psychology. In a similar fashion, Ushioda (1996) states that "Within the context of institutionalized learning especially, the common experience would seem to be motivational flux rather than stability" (p. 240). She emphasizes the need to follow a more introspective kind of research procedure and investigates qualitative developments in motivational experience over time along with the contextual elements which are assumed to be in dynamic interaction with motivation.

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) also develop a comprehensive process-oriented model for L2 motivation. The process model of L2 motivation consists of two main aspects: "action sequence" and "motivational influences". Briefly, the former depicts the behavioral

processes in which “initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals, then into intentions, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals, after which the process is submitted to final evaluation” (p.47). The latter contains every source of energy and motivational force which cause and stimulate the behavioral actions. In their model, the process is segregated into three stages in relation to action sequence. During the first phase called preactional phase, goals are set, intentions are formed and initially operationalised by following an action plan. The second phase is called actional phase in which the goals, intentions and decisions held in the preactional phase are put into practice. The last phase, post-actional phase, is the evaluation of the results gained at the end of task completion and the future planning. Although Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) provide us with a significant number of empirical gains with their model, they also conclude that classroom motivational life is too complex to be explained by focusing on a few factors. Dörnyei (2005) supports this idea claiming that Dörnyei and Ottó’s process-model remains limited in expounding on the dynamic and situated complexity of the L2 motivation. In consequence of the growing interest in individual learner and social learning settings, and learning tasks with their complexities, L2 motivation research has moved beyond social-psychological and process-oriented approaches and started to be analyzed from a socio-dynamic perspective.

From Process-oriented to Socio-dynamic Perspectives

Process-oriented models of L2 motivation can be considered as the first steps toward more dynamic L2 motivation perspectives. The transition from process-oriented phase to the socio-dynamic phase of L2 motivation research is particularly marked by a concern to understand extensive complexities of language learning and use in the contemporary world since the previous linear process-oriented models of motivation are centered on an inadequate number of fundamental variables (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The main principles of the new phase could be described with the three prime characteristic of system dynamics: context, stability, and change (Waninge, Dörnyei, & Bot, 2014).

Contextual factors such as behavior of peers, leadership behavior of the teacher, and features of the classroom might play a key role in the performance and behavior of the learners (Waninge et. al, 2014). As Ushioda (2009) highlights, it is crucial to approach L2 learners within a cultural and historical context as their motivation and identities not only

form these contexts but also they are formed by them. Campbell and Storch's (2011) study in which constituents of the learning environment is found to be the most influential factor in motivating or demotivating learners affirms the effect of learning context on learner motivation. In person-in-context approach to motivation, individual learners are not evaluated from a cause-and-effect relationship framework; instead they are considered as dynamic unique individuals; in other words, "real persons". The focus is given both to the learning process and the learners' personal and social conditions (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Another approach emerged in this period is called complex dynamic system approach. According to this approach, motivation is viewed as "not only interrelated to a dynamically changing social environment external to the learner but also to learner-internal cognitive and affective attributes" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p.37). Therefore, it is found really difficult to foresee the consequences of individuals' actions. In addition, Dörnyei (as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) asserts that motivation, cognition and affect can be seen as subsets of learner characteristics which are based on a complex dynamic systems approach. He suggests that these learner characteristics should be tackled together since they continuously interact with each other and thus cannot exist in isolation from one another.

Dörnyei (2011) highlights the stability aspect of dynamic systems stating that "even very complex systems tend to arrive at certain salient outcomes, and although we cannot predict in advance what these outcomes might be, when we see them we recognize them" (p.85). In line with Dörnyei's remark, some studies indicate that learner motivation might remain stable in some periods or follow an anticipated pattern (e.g. Koizumi & Matsuo, 1993; Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005). Another feature of dynamic systems is change. Numerous studies indicate a fluctuation in short-term and long-term motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, Csizér, & Nemeth, 2006; Poupore, 2013).

Influenced by the worldwide spread of English, socio-dynamic perspective of L2 motivation research also inquires whether it is relevant to mention integrative motivation when we consider English as the target language, an international lingua franca, a global language, or an educational skill in curriculum (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). As a response to that inquiry, shifting the target group of learners from a geographical community to a global one is offered, and this has turned the concept of integrative motivation into an international outlook (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Nevertheless, Ushioda (2006) asks whether it is plausible to conceive it as an external reference group or as a component of a

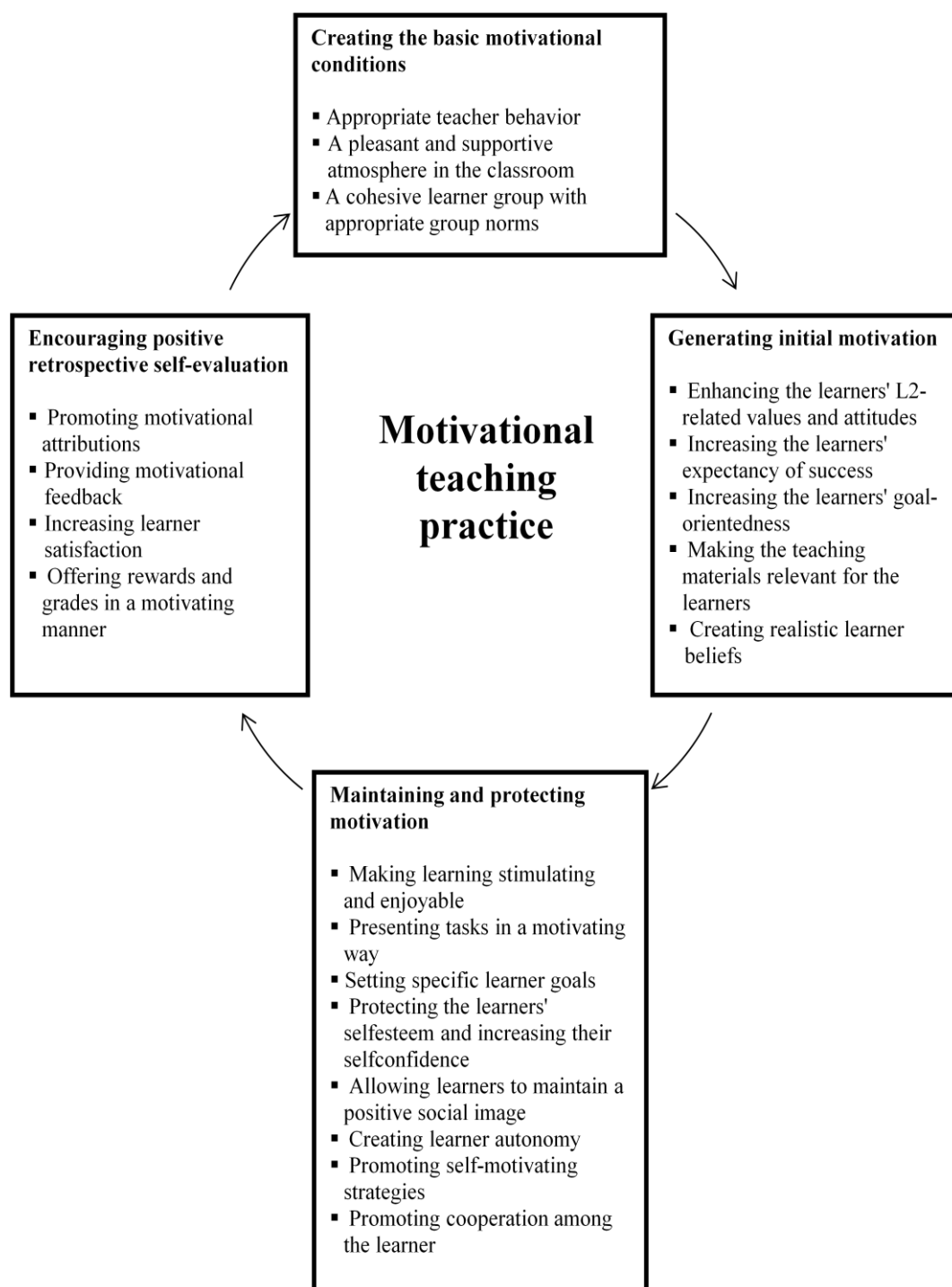
person's internal representation of herself/himself as a real member of the universal community. Current L2 motivation theory is greatly influenced by the change in focus from an external reference group to the internal territory of self and identity (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Deducing from the psychological theory of "possible selves" (Markus & Nurius, 1986), Dörnyei (2005) puts forward a new term "L2 Motivational Self System" which mainly focuses on one's mental picture of herself/himself in the future. It is made up of three main sources of motivation: "Ideal L2 Self", "Ought-to L2 Self", "L2 Learning Experience". The first source, "Ideal L2 Self", refers to the qualities that people wish to have such as their hopes or desires. As its name suggests, the "Ought-to L2 Self" points to the characteristics one believes he or she should have. When it comes to L2 Learning Experience, it deals with experience and the immediate learning environment like the influence of the curriculum, the instructor, the peers, or experience of achievement. All in all, L2 Motivational Self System theory introduces new strategic approaches that aim to guide learners to develop and sustain visions of their ideal language selves.

To conclude, the socio-dynamic approach to language motivation arouses increasing interest with its complexity and implementation of system dynamics into motivational studies. What makes this approach different from those in other periods is the fact that it is not linear or predictable. Learners are treated as unique individuals with a variety of characteristics that could constantly change. From a socio-dynamic perspective, motivation is seen as a dynamic factor which shows never-ending variation since it is adapted to the continuously-changing variables of the context (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

Motivational Strategies in ELT

In response to the proliferation of research into motivation theories, the subject of motivating individuals has aroused interest in many fields of psychology and some strategies to motivate individuals have been suggested. Motivational strategies have come to be used to refer to the "techniques that promote the individual's goal-related behavior" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 28). As the nature of the individual's behavior is quite complicated, it comes as no surprise that the individuals' motivation might be influenced in several different ways. When it comes to second and foreign language teaching contexts, it is generally accepted that motivation might be knowingly initiated and boosted in language classrooms with the help of proper motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2018). In addition to promoting classroom L2 learning, motivational strategies are also utilized to attain

numerous lasting and structured favorable effects (Dörnyei, 2001). To this respect, several motivational strategies have been suggested by many scholars (e.g. Brown, 1994; Dörnyei, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997).



*Figure 1. The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom
“Motivational Strategies in Language Classrooms”, Dörnyei, 2001, p.29*

As its name suggests, Dörnyei's (2001) book, *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*, can be recognized as the most inclusive overview of motivational strategies. In the book, the author introduces a process-oriented framework including the four motivational aspects consecutively: "creating the basic motivational conditions", "generating student motivation", "maintaining and protecting motivation", and "encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation" (p.30). The framework with details of the sub-sections is shown in schematic form in Figure 1.

As can be seen in Figure 1, creating the basic motivational conditions is crucial since it is only possible to use motivational strategies effectively in a learning environment when certain pre-conditions like positive classroom atmosphere or proper teacher behavior are readily present before employing any further strategies. The second stage is about stimulating initial motivation as learners' cannot be always expected to have motivation instinctively. Thus teachers have to find ways to help learners develop positive attitudes towards L2 learning experience.

When it comes to maintaining and protecting motivation, no matter how successfully teachers initiate motivation, learners might lose it through the course of the learning experience. Therefore, it is essential for them to employ techniques to maintain and preserve motivation actively. At the last stage, encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation is recommended. As suggested in attribution theory, it is understood that learners' perceptions of their past accomplishments are detrimental in forming their perception of further learning experiences. Surprisingly, learners do not only give credit to their previous performances which show their success objectively but also they personally interpret them. Accordingly, it is the teachers' role to assist learners to make a more constructive evaluation of their past achievements and failures (Dörnyei, 2001).

As mentioned in the socio-dynamic phase of motivation research in the previous section, Dörnyei's (2005) theory of L2 Motivational Self System has expanded the scope of motivational strategies by emphasizing the importance of language learning vision of the learners. Aiming to boost their learners' motivation, teachers have the chance to select among various motivational strategies which they find most appropriate for their learners' profiles. Dörnyei (2014) separates these strategies into three categories: strategies with a focus on the learners' vision of their ideal and ought-to selves, strategies with a focus on individual learning experience, and strategies with a focus on learner group experience. As

this categorization is a more recent and inclusive framework, the recent scope of motivational strategies will be presented under these three categories.

Strategies Focusing on Learners' Vision of Their Future Selves

Dörnyei (2009) presents a framework for teachers to help their learners develop an effective vision of their future selves and the framework is composed of six sections: creating, strengthening, substantiating and operationalizing the vision, keeping it alive and counterbalancing it. Each component will be explained briefly in this section.

According to the L2 Motivational Self System, motivational intervention first requires the construction of learners' ideal L2 self, in other words, the characteristics that the L2 learners would ideally like to have. To do so, Dörnyei (2014) suggests teachers to try to build learners' awareness about their own dreams and aspirations which they have already enjoyed in their past experience and also provide learners with role models to help them visualize their potential future selves. Secondly, regardless of the fact that learners have developed the desired self-vision, it is of importance to employ techniques for imagery enhancement as their self-image may be lack of details and vividness, which makes it a rather futile motivator. Thus teachers are offered to use the visualization and guided imagery techniques in order to strengthen learners' ideal L2 self-images. In addition, Dörnyei (2009) adds that learners are obliged to form their future self-guides realistically since an effective vision is a combination of both imagination and reality. In order to substantiate the learners' vision, teachers are advised to make frank and down-to-earth reality controls and also give thought to potential barriers and challenges that could prevent learners from becoming aware of their vision. Fourthly, it is asserted that operationalizing the vision requires future self-guides including both an imagery element and a collection of suitable plans of action, and specified learning strategies. Keeping the vision alive is the fifth component Dörnyei (2014) highlights. According to this component, learners should be reminded of their vision so that they will preserve their motivation. Thus it is teachers' responsibility to make students think of their vision by implementing various classroom activities with that in mind. Finally, it is advisable that learners be encouraged to counterbalance their vision with a feared self when we consider that people tend to perform an action not only because they want to do it, but also because they may face negative results if they do not perform it. Accordingly, to provide this counterbalance, drawbacks of

not learning a foreign language as well as learners' obligations towards their ought-to selves can be reminded (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei, 2014).

All in all, motivational strategies in this group are derived from Dörnyei's (2009) framework to improve language learners' vision of their future language selves. Although such a vision of future self could long be applied in other fields such as sports, it is a relatively new trend in language learning.

Strategies with a Focus on Individual Learning Experience

In this category, Dörnyei (2014) tries to explain how teachers can make the L2 learning experience more appealing to learners individually by proposing 10 strategies as a representative of many other strategies offered to the teachers. According to these strategies, teachers can improve individuals' learning experience by “whetting the students' appetite”; “increasing the learners' expectancy of success”; “making the teaching materials relevant to the learners”; “breaking the monotony of learning”; “making the learning tasks more interesting”; “increasing the learners' self-confidence”; “allowing learners to maintain a positive social image”; “creating learner autonomy”; “increasing learner satisfaction”; and lastly “offering grades in a motivational manner” (Dörnyei, 2018, p.4). Key features of these strategies will be mentioned in this section.

Stimulating learners' appetite is considered a crucial factor in increasing learners' motivation as it can trigger learners' attention and curiosity for the language course. To do so, teachers are encouraged to highlight the challenging, satisfying and attractive sides of the language learning experience with a wide variety of L2 learning activities including such entertaining tasks as competitions and games. They can also make the L2 course more interesting by making use of some activities which learners have already liked doing (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Another motivational strategy suggested to be implemented in class deals with the learners' expectancy of success that is based on the indisputable fact that people perform well when they believe they are able to do it successfully. Teachers are advised to increase learners' expectancy of success by getting them in a more optimistic mood and also by assuring that they accomplish the given tasks steadily. Besides, it is advisable to provide learners with a clear criterion of success and continuous support so that learners can feel

that they can succeed in the given task (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Moreover, teaching materials are considered highly effective sources of motivation as long as they are relevant to learners' lives. In this respect, another suggested strategy is that teachers develop teaching materials and curriculum taking learners' goals and topic choices into account as far as possible. Making the teaching materials relevant to learner profiles is an effective strategy, but it needs to be assisted with some other strategies. Turning learning into a monotonous activity is an undesired situation as it demotivates students. To hinder this situation, teachers are recommended to diversify their techniques they adopted in the learning process. For instance, they can change the type of tasks, classroom materials, and student involvement, or even the arrangement of the desks. Although making such changes frequently during the process of learning might lead to instructor burn-out, it is suggested that teachers do their best to vary their approaches as much as possible to break the monotony of learning. In addition to varying teaching approaches and materials, teachers are also advised to make learning tasks more engaging in such ways as adding interesting topics, introducing challenges, adding humorous, different, fantasy, or novel compounds to teaching (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

According to Dörnyei (2014), "Learning a new language is to a large extent a "confidence game" (p.526). In this remark, Dörnyei emphasizes that having wide lexical and structural knowledge of language alone does not help learners speak if they do not have self-confidence. Therefore, confidence building strategies aiming to encourage learners regularly and lower language anxiety are offered. More specifically, teachers are advised to guide their learners to perceive their mistakes as a natural component of the learning experience (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image is another psychological dimension of motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2014). It is necessary as the learning environment is mostly considered the learners' main social territory and their most valued reference group is their peers. In light of this, teachers are advised to think twice when they ask learners to make free, unscripted speech in front of their peers as learners can feel inferior to their peers when they make mistakes. Instead, teachers can create opportunities for learners to show their individual strengths (Dörnyei, 2014). Furthermore, it is suggested that teachers employ strategies to promote learner autonomy since learners become more

motivated to do a task when they develop a sense of ownership. In order to develop this ownership, teachers might provide learners with opportunities to make choices about many components of their learning process and also they can act as a facilitator (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

In addition to these, Dörnyei (2014) claims that celebrations give credence to past attempts, attest the whole learning process, and generally enlighten the road towards the furthest goal. However, he also highlights that teachers might have a tendency to acknowledge failures more than achievements and this may lead to learner dissatisfaction. Thus teachers are advised to increase learner satisfaction by celebrating any victory (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2014). Similar to celebrations, offering grades and rewards is introduced as another effective motivational strategy (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, William & Burden, 1997). While doing this, teachers are suggested to follow four steps. Firstly, they need to make the assessment program crystal clear and easy to understand with a criterion for success, and also allow learners to voice their opinions. Secondly, they should assure that grades are not only the impartial level of achievement but also an indicator of effort and progress. Thirdly, continuous assessment techniques should be applied. Lastly, learners should be encouraged to self-evaluate themselves accurately with the help of self-evaluation rubrics offered by teachers (Dörnyei, 2014).

Strategies with a Focus on Learner Group Experience

In addition to the motivational strategies that aim to make L2 learning experience more attractive to individual learners, there is a number of motivational strategies adopted to improve the learning experience at a learner group level since motivating learners individually is not enough when we consider the fact that the learner group as a whole has a tremendous effect on individual learner motivation (Dörnyei, 2018). This leads researchers to understand group dynamics in educational contexts. In these contexts, learning takes place in some sort of groups like classes, workshops or seminars. Accordingly, teachers are advised to develop an awareness of the group dynamics principles in order to manage the classroom more effectively and promote learner motivation. Group dynamics most related to the motivation of learner group members are group norms and group cohesiveness (Dörnyei, 2014), and in this section their role in motivating learners will be presented.

Group norms are the unspoken or clearly expressed rules that manage the learner group and enable cooperative learning. As a motivational strategy, it is important to make sure that group norms are permanent and helpful in facilitating learning rather than blocking it (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Hence teachers are to introduce a clear norm building session at the beginning of the group's life by:

- formulating potential norms
- justifying their purpose to enlist support for the norms
- having the norms discussed by the whole group eliciting further potential norms from the learners and subjecting these to discussion too explicitly addressing unproductive norms and changing them by consensus
- agreeing as a group on a mutually acceptable set of class rules that can be displayed on a wall chart (Dörnyei, 2014, p.529).

Learners are more likely to follow the group norms when they have a bigger role in deciding, agreeing on and modeling the norms (Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). When group norms are set by considering the methods listed above, it is claimed that learners will support the instructor when a learner breaks the norms and it will help the instructor to maintain discipline in the classroom (Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019). As a result, there will be a more cooperative and motivational learning environment.

Dörnyei and Muir (2019) define group cohesiveness as “the closeness and “we” feeling of a group, that is, the internal gelling force that keeps the group together” (p.4). In other words, it is the extent of the relationship among group members that bonds them to each other and the group itself. In literature, it is found that teachers can ensure group cohesiveness in the classroom in many ways (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei, 2019; Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998). Firstly, teachers are suggested to help learners to get to know each other well. In this way, they can be more tolerant, and accept each other. Secondly, it is advisable to consider the positive motivational effects of proximity, contact, and interaction on group cohesiveness while planning the lesson. For instance, desks can be arranged considering the influence of proximity; and group or pair work activities can be used in the classes to create opportunities for learners to contact and interact with each other. Shared group history is also found to help learners form strong relationships with each other. Group activities are considered vital with many more benefits. One of them is

that they are rewarding in nature. In other words, learners can feel satisfied when they enjoy doing the activities together and see they have achieved the goals or when they are given grades or prizes in the end. While working in groups, successful groups can develop a sense of belonging to that group by giving it a name, logo, motto, and so on. They can also start a group ritual. Moreover, when they work together for a long time towards the same goals, it is likely that they become committed to the goals and later on to the group, too. Even, experiencing joint hardship and dealing with common threat faced during the process is said to have a positive influence on the group. In addition to these, intergroup competitions are suggested to be held to make learners cooperate with each other to be the winning group. While using competitive games, teachers are advised to put the learners together who would not normally make friends easily in the same group and give them a chance to spend time together. However, defining a group against another is considered to be dangerous for group cohesiveness; therefore, teachers are recommended to avoid giving rise to emotions against the other groups just for the sake of strengthening in-group bonds. Extracurricular activities are also mentioned in the literature since they could be beneficial for creating the group cohesiveness. Thanks to these activities, learners could begin not to see one another as a student, but a civilian. Consequently, a successful outing experience can contribute to learners' perceptions of their relationships with each other in the learning environment. Finally, it is recommended that teachers be a good role model by displaying friendly and supportive manners so that learners are likely to act in the same manners (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2014; Dörnyei, 2019; Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998).

To sum up, it is suggested that building group cohesiveness and establishing group norms are essential parts of group dynamics which is seen as a useful discipline with practical instructional suggestions (Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999). As Stevick (1980) suggests, “[in a language course] success depends less on material, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom” (as cited in Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999, p. 67). Thus, understanding motivational strategies in terms of group dynamics in language classrooms has emerged as a central research interest in the last few decades.

Studies on Motivational Strategies

Over recent decades, the significance of motivation and the use of motivational strategies in the language classroom have been highly emphasized and investigated. Along with the studies that focus on discovering the strategies to increase the motivation of the language students, there are also different studies conducted on the effectiveness of the use of different motivational strategies in the language classroom. In addition to these, some studies focus on the perceptions or beliefs of the teachers and/or learners about motivational strategies.

One of the prominent studies on motivational strategies is carried out by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998). The participants of the study are 200 Hungarian EFL teachers working at different institutions ranging from elementary schools to universities. The participants are asked to rank 51 motivational strategies according to their importance and their actual implementations in the classroom. According to the results of the ranking, the top ten significant motivational strategies are determined and they are called “Ten Commandments for motivating language learners”. Whereas the study mainly suggests the use of “Ten Commandments” to motivate students, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) note that these strategies may not be valid in all teaching contexts.

Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) modify and replicate the study of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) in Taiwan, a totally different context. Three hundred and eighty-seven EFL teachers from institutions ranging from elementary school to university participate in the study. The results are mostly similar to the results of Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) study with some differences in the beliefs of teachers in Taiwan. For instance, “recognizing students’ efforts” is not among “Ten Commandments” although it is in the second place in the Taiwanese context, which suggests that significance of certain motivational strategies might not be valid in different contexts. Conversely, the study also suggests that at least some motivational strategies are found to be valid, and they might be used in different cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts.

While Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei’s (2007) studies heavily depend on self-reported data, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) shift their focus on the real classroom practices and follow a mixed-method research design. They conduct a large scale study aiming to examine the relationship between the teachers’ motivational teaching practice and their students’ language learning motivation. More than 1300 students and 27 teachers are involved in the research carried out in ESOL (English for Speakers of Other

Languages) classrooms in South Korea. For this study, an observation scheme, MOLT (the motivation orientation of language teaching) to assess the teachers' use of motivational strategies is developed. The observable teacher behavior categories of MOLT observation scheme are adapted from Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies framework for language classrooms. A post-hoc rating scale is also used to understand the motivational strategies employed by the teachers. In order to measure students' motivation, the MOLT observation scheme and a self-report questionnaire are used. The results reveal that the teachers' use of motivational strategies is effective in increasing the students' motivated learning behavior and their motivational state. Similar observational studies are conducted to find out the influence of teachers' use of motivational strategies on students' motivation and the results indicate that motivational strategy use of the teachers is strictly linked to increased student motivation. (e.g. Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini, & Ratcheva, 2012; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2011).

Bernaus and Gardner (2008) conduct a study to examine the teacher and student perceptions of language teaching strategies and the effects of these strategies on students' motivation and English achievement. The participants of the study are 31 EFL teachers and their students (N=694) in secondary public and private schools in Catalonia, Spain. Both participant groups are asked to rate the frequency of the use of 26 teaching strategies. A mini version of Gardner and Macintyre's (1993) Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) is used to determine students' attitudes, motivation and language anxiety. In addition to AMTB, tests of English achievement are administered to students. The results show that teachers' reports on the frequency of the use of language teaching strategies differ and teachers favor traditional strategies more than innovative strategies. In addition, the teachers' perceptions indicate that there is not a relationship between the teachers' use of strategies and students' motivation, achievement, attitudes, and language anxiety. On the other hand, the students' perceptions provide evidence on the relationship between these strategies and their motivation and attitudes. Based on this evidence, the researchers suggest that teachers should discover their students' perceptions of the strategies they adopt in the lessons. Another key finding is that attitudes toward learning situation, integrativeness and instrumental orientation positively affect students' motivation to learn English and English achievement while attitudes toward the learning situation and language anxiety influence English achievement negatively. Therefore, Bernaus and

Gardner (2008) believe that it is of importance for teachers to recognize the positive and negative effects of these factors.

Maeng and Lee (2015) investigate the motivating behavior of 12 EFL teachers in Korea by videotaping them. The videotapes are analyzed based on Keller's (1994) ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction) model. The results show that the teachers do not appropriately employ 3 components of the ARCS model. The only component that is found to be effectively adopted is attention. Another finding is that motivational strategies are used in the beginning of the instructional session, rather than during the session or closing the session. They also discover that there is positive correlation between L2 proficiency and teachers' motivating behavior. On the other hand, the study reveals that there is a negative correlation between teaching experience and teachers' use of motivational strategies. Based on the results, Maeng and Lee suggest that teachers should be trained on how to integrate motivational strategies, especially those related to relevance and confidence, into their teaching. They also suggest that it is necessary to provide teachers with opportunities to reflect on their experience while applying motivational strategies. Lastly, they conclude that a diverse set of motivational strategies and customized instruction for teachers with different L2 proficiency level should be provided.

Henry, Korp, Sundqvist, and Thorsen's (2018) study aims to determine what motivational strategies related to design and content of the classroom activities are found to be effective in a context where English is an integral part of students' lives. The analysis of 112 descriptions of motivational classroom activities provided by 252 secondary EFL teachers in Sweden reveals that activities that encourage learners to make use of authentic materials and those involving digital technologies and promote creativity are found to be effective. Based on this evidence, it is concluded that the use of authentic materials requires high level of pedagogical and linguistic skills; therefore, ELT education programs should focus on building teachers' language awareness in contexts of extramural encounters.

Another study that depends solely on self-reported data is Ruesch et al.'s (2012) study aiming to discover which teaching practices students and teachers find motivating in the foreign language classroom. In this respect, her study investigates the participants' perceptions of motivational strategies in foreign language classrooms. One hundred twenty-six students enrolled in beginning level foreign language classes at Brigham Young University and 30 foreign language teachers teaching at different levels at the same university participate in the study. In total, two questionnaires are administered; one for the

students and the other one for the teachers. The questionnaires for this study are based on Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) questionnaire which is used to rate significance and frequency of different motivational strategies used in Hungarian English classrooms. Results show that the students' and the teachers' beliefs about the motivational strategies are alike. Both groups consider "Teacher", "Rapport", and "Climate" as the top three most motivational conceptual domains. Moreover, just 3 out of 17 conceptual domains are statistically different between groups. These domains are: "Task", "Effort", and "Comparison".

Balçıklı and Özmen (2010) examine more than 100 student teachers' beliefs regarding the use of motivational strategies by using questionnaires compiled from a number of studies (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). The results indicate that almost all of the participants adopt favorable attitudes towards the use of motivational strategies and believe that teachers' use of motivational strategies results in successful language learning. Some of the strategies that the student teachers view as most effective include using authentic tasks, game-like competitions, and tasks that allow students to have fun, giving clear instructions and immediate feedback to students, and stating the purpose of every task.

Wong (2013) investigates and evaluates several motivational strategies used in Chinese ESL classrooms by making 30 EFL classroom observations involving 10 teachers and more than 900 students. In order to determine how effective the motivational strategies are, the researcher uses lesson observations, post-lesson teacher evaluation scale, and a student motivation questionnaire. The teacher questionnaire based on Dörnyei's (2003) proposed motivational strategies is administered before the observations. To be used in classroom observations, motivational strategies effectiveness observation scheme (MSE) is developed. MSE is based on Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT) observation scheme. During observations, MSE is used and after the observations, the teachers are asked to complete the teacher self-rated questionnaires. Lesson observations are conducted three times for each teacher. Moreover, students fill in the student questionnaires after the lesson observations. According to the results of the study, top 5 out of 25 motivational strategies commonly used by Chinese EFL teachers are "offering rewards to students, using small group tasks, bring in and encourage humor, preventing rigid seating patterns, and make sure students receive sufficient preparation and assistance". The results also indicate that teachers view the collective motivational strategies as most effective while the researcher observes them as

less so. The teachers, researcher, and students view 6 of the motivational strategies as being most effective. These strategies are: “offering rewards, making sure that the students receive sufficient preparation and assistance, reminding students of the instrumental value of L2, bringing in and encouraging humor, whetting the students’ appetites for the content of the task, and avoiding face-threatening acts.”

As is easily seen in aforementioned studies, motivational strategies have been a topic of interest for researchers around the world. As the concept draws a lot of attention in the field of L2 and foreign language education, it comes as no surprise that numerous studies have been conducted on the use of motivational strategies. Nevertheless, in Turkish context there is not as much attention given to the study of motivational strategies as it merits. At this point, new studies in Turkish context are required to provide new insights into the teachers’ use of motivational strategies.

Language Teacher Cognition

Language teacher cognition has been investigated for more than 40 years in the literature of teacher education. Not surprisingly, in the field of second and foreign language teaching, various definitions of teacher cognition can be found. However, Borg (2006) asserts that there is confusion here as there are different definitions of identical terms and similar notions are described by different terms such as “belief” (Kagan, 1992), “beliefs” (Pajares, 1993), “cognition” (Kagan, 1990), “conceptions of teaching” (Hewson, Kerby, & Cook, 1995), “content knowledge” (Grosman, Wilson, & Shulman as cited in Borg, 2006), “perspective” (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1986), “subject-matter knowledge” (Shulman, 1986), “pedagogical content knowledge” (Shulman, 1986), and “practical knowledge” (Elbaz, 1981). Analyzing all the main concepts in teacher cognition research, Borg (2003) refers to teacher cognition as an inclusive term and defines it as “unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think” (p.81). Borg (2006) also highlights the inclusive character of the term by describing it as a mostly “tacit, personally-held, practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic – that is defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers’ lives” (p. 35).

Teacher cognition research emerged from an arousing interest in understanding what goes on in teachers’ mental lives and an attempt to conceptualize their instructional practices. In

this respect, the 1970s witnessed a change in perspectives in the study of teaching. Instruction started to be viewed as a thoughtful behavior which is affected by what teachers think (Clark & Yinger, 1977) rather than a universal process-product model in which teachers act as “mechanical implementers of external prescriptions” to teach effectively (Borg, 2006, p. 7). In the 1980s, the cognitive basis of instruction was examined more and teacher education started to become a central issue in teacher cognition research. Several literature reviews on teacher cognition research were presented in the 1990s (e.g. Ball & McDiarmid, 1990; Carter & Doyle, 1996; Richardson, 1996) and 2000s (e.g. Munby, Russell, & Martin, 2001; Verloop et. al, 2001). However, most of the reviews are not specific to any disciplines except for some in mathematics (e.g. Thompson, 1992) and language education (e.g. Fang, 1996). Although the initial research focus of the studies is on making decisions, processing information and teaching effectively (e.g. National Institute of Education as cited in Borg, 2006; Shulman & Elstein, 1975), the current research focus is on gaining insights into the psychological constructs in instructors` mind, their growth and use.

In order to conceptualize teacher knowledge, teacher cognition research now mainly centers on understanding what cognitions teachers have (e.g. Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Brown & McGannon 1998; Cumming, 1989), how these cognitions are formed (e.g. Borg, 2003; Woods, 1996), and how they interact with teacher learning and classroom applications (e.g. Kubanyiova, 2015; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Verloop et al., 2001; Zheng, 2009). Teacher cognition research has also provided insights about how instructors` beliefs and knowledge affect their classroom practices and also how their beliefs about their way of teaching are not always in accordance with their practices (Borg, 2006). According to Phipps and Borg (2007), teachers` own learning experience could have an effect on their cognitions. Given their cognitions, teachers can be selective in what to learn and how to learn during teacher training. Their cognitions can also influence the way teachers interpret new experience and knowledge. Even these cognitions can be superior to the ones teachers have gained during teacher training, and influence teachers` instructional practices. In a similar way, teachers` cognitions can be influenced by their teaching practices. In addition to these, Phipps and Borg (2007) also add that cognitions can be deep-rooted and difficult to be changed, and therefore could have a long-lasting effect on teachers` practices.

In the light of the literature on teacher cognition, Borg (2003) introduces a widely valued diagrammatic conceptualization of instruction with reference to teacher cognition. As can be seen in Figure 2, teachers form cognitions about many aspects of teaching and their cognitions are likely to be shaped by schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practice.

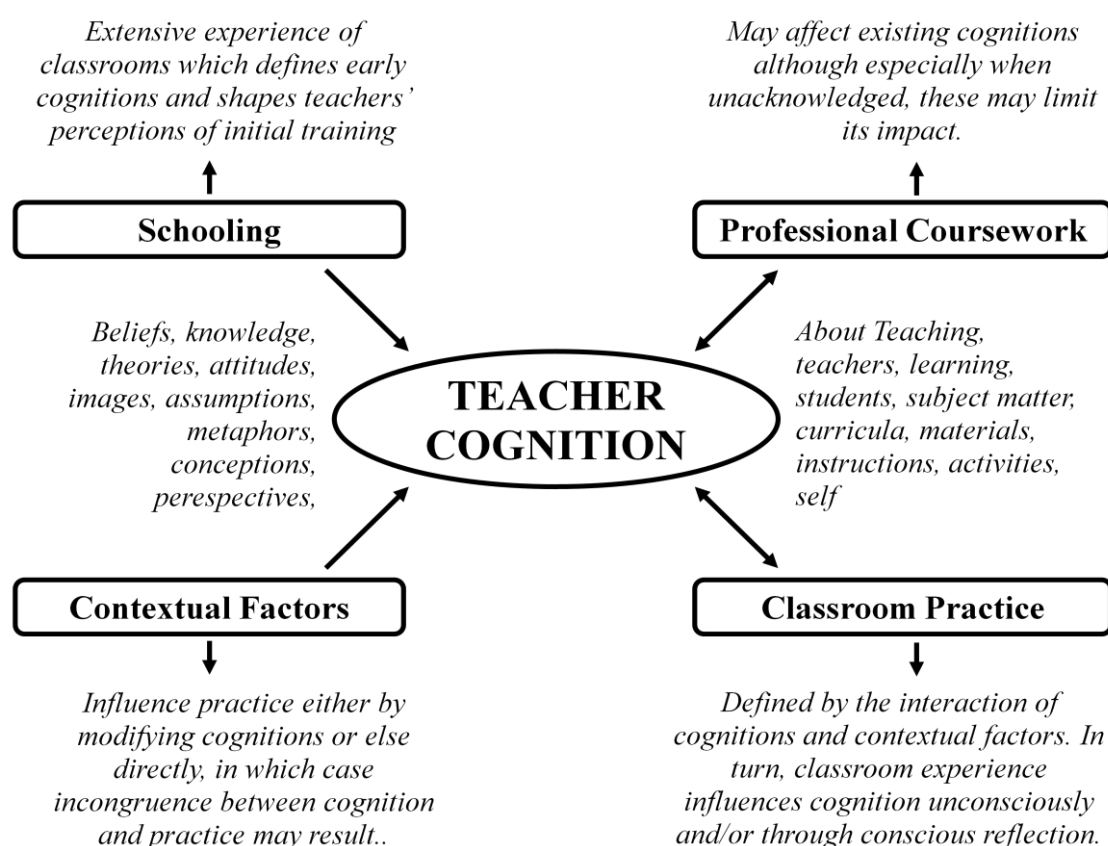


Figure 2. Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education and classroom practice. "Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching: A Review of Research on What Language Teachers Think, Know, Believe, and Do" Borg, 2003, p. 82

Teachers' educational experience as learners could also have an effect on their professional life as teachers. Besides, there is some evidence showing that teacher cognition could have an impact on teachers' instructional practices which are also under the influence of contextual elements (Borg, 2003; Borg, 2006). This diagrammatic conceptualization of teacher cognition in educational literature also forms the basis of language teacher cognition research (Borg, 2003).

Similar to mainstream educational research into teacher cognition, research into language teacher cognition has growingly become an area of research worldwide since the mid-1990s. During this period, teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and thoughts that influence their

instructional practices are viewed as essential to be able to fully understand teachers and their instruction (Borg, 2009). Consequently, much of research is centered on examining the link between teachers' cognitive processes and instructional practices. Freeman and Richard's work of 1996 could be considered a leading early study in language teacher cognition with a particular focus on mental aspects of teachers' practices in order to better understand language teaching. Although the studies shed light on the teachers' mental lives and learning-to-teach processes, they lead to a terminological confusion since similar concepts defined differently and different terms used to describe almost identical terms (Clandinin & Connely as cited in Borg, 2003). As language teacher cognition research is influenced widely by the developments in mainstream educational research, it comes as no surprise to find out a variety of labels used to refer to language teacher cognition (Borg, 2003).

Despite the terminological variability, language teacher cognition has continued to attract research interest. Other series of key publication in the field are Borg's (2003, 2006) works where he makes an extensive review of the studies on language teacher cognition. The research findings on language teacher cognition are mainly found to be parallel with the ones gained in mainstream education research in that they both suggest that teacher cognition not only is influenced by teachers' instructional perspectives and practices but also influences them as summarized by Phipps and Borg (2007). The main focus of the studies is on identifying the range of cognitions, beliefs, or knowledge that teachers hold about various aspects of their profession and providing insights into the connection between teachers' cognitions and practices. The findings of the research have indicated that language teachers' instructional practices are formed in distinctive and usually unpredictable ways by the teachers' mental lives which are shaped by their language learning experience, teacher education experience, and the contexts where they work or learn to do their work. All in all, the growing research into language teacher cognition has helped to shed light on the complex inner dynamics behind teachers' instructional practices (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015).

In the following sections, taking the diversity of the studies into consideration, the researcher will tackle cognition as beliefs, knowledge, experiences, and decisions of the language teacher and provide an overview of the developments and studies done with reference to the cognitions of pre-service and in-service language teachers.

Studies on the Cognitions of Pre-service Language Teachers

Studies on the cognitions of the pre-service or, in other words, prospective language teachers with no formal language teaching experience mostly aim to discover the impact of previous language learning experience on the cognitions of pre-service teachers, pre-service language teachers' views on language teaching, the relationship between their practicum experiences and cognitions, and lastly instructional decisions of pre-service teachers and their practical knowledge. Some examples of these studies will be presented in this section.

It is asserted by many scholars that prospective teachers' experience as learners can shape their cognitions of teaching (e.g. Borg, 2004; Farrell, 1999; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Urmston, 2003; Warford & Reeves, 2003). For instance, in his study, Johnson (1994) investigates 6 pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about learning and teaching a second language and their perceptions of teaching practice. The results collected during a practicum show that the pre-service teachers' in-class decisions on which theories, methods, and materials to adopt derives from their own experiences as learners of a second language. In a similar fashion, Numrich (1996) discovers that pre-service teachers' positive and negative learning experience influences their teaching techniques. For instance, the participant teachers tend to avoid correcting students' mistakes while students are speaking since the pre-service teachers felt nervous about being corrected while speaking during their learning experience.

Pre-service language teachers' beliefs about language instruction are another widely researched topic. There are various studies claiming that trainees may have unrealistic or ill-judged perceptions of teaching and learning at the beginning of teacher training programs (e.g. Brookhart & Freeman, 1992; Brown & McGannon, 1998; Cumming, 1989). For instance, Urmston (2003) suggests that pre-service teachers' beliefs about language instruction are not very likely to form the core of effective classroom practices by being unrealistic and naive. That it is quite common among prospective teachers to believe that teachers should be friends with the learners is given as an example to these beliefs in his study. In similar fashion, Cumming (1989) discovers that pre-service teachers' conceptions of curriculum are inadequate in terms of providing a principled and effective programme design. Similarly, Brown and McGannon (1998) find out that pre-service teachers' beliefs about how language is learned are inadequate as the foundation of effective L2 pedagogy.

In addition to these studies, a considerable amount of work is done in an attempt to understand the concerns of prospective teachers during their practicum experience. For instance, Numrich (1996) examines the practicum diaries of 26 pre-service teachers, and lists their early preoccupations as difficulty in providing a safe and comfortable atmosphere, managing class when students talk, adopting various and creative teaching techniques, teaching alone rather than being paired up with another teacher like him or her and lastly highlighting the importance of the textbook. The study also reveals that pre-service teachers feel unconfident about some issues like managing time, expressing instructions clearly, teaching grammar in an effective way, reacting to the needs of the students, assessing the students' performance, and paying attention to students rather than to self during their practicum.

Let us now look at the nature of pre-service teachers' classroom decisions and their practical knowledge that motivate them to make these decisions. The key findings of Johnson's (1992) study in which he analyzes the instructional decision-making process of six prospective teachers indicates that dealing with unexpected student behavior and maintaining the flow of class activities are the most common precursor of prospective teachers' instructional behavior. Consequently, Johnson suggests that the branch of L2 teacher education could and should benefit from the field of L1 teacher education since the cognitive dimensions of L2 instruction is waiting to be discovered. Tsang's (2004) case study investigates the impact of teachers' personal practical knowledge on instructional decision-making process during lessons. The results indicate that the knowledge have a partial effect on teaching practices with approximately half of the decisions made in the light of personal practical knowledge.

When it comes to understand the influence of teacher education on language teacher cognition, "variable outcomes" and "individual developmental pathways" may be considered the key factors since individuals approach teacher education programs differently and they are affected by them in several different ways (Borg, 2006). Moreover, the link between behavioral and cognitive change during or as a consequence of teacher training is another widely researched topic. In the light of many studies he reviewed, Borg (2006) concludes that behavioral change does not necessarily require cognitive change and cognitive change does not always lead to behavioral change, either. To give an example, studies investigating cognitive development structure and processes indicate that a number of changes in trainees' cognitions happen during teacher education (e.g. Cabaroglu &

Roberts, 2000; Özmen, 2012; Richards, Ho, & Giblin, 1996; Sendan & Roberts, 1998) while many studies focusing on the content of the cognitions imply that the role of teacher training in changing trainee's cognitions seem to be slightly ineffective (e.g. Borg, 2005; Pennington & Urmston, 1998; Urmston, 2003). For instance, Özmen (2012) conducts a four-year longitudinal study to investigate 45 pre-service ELT teachers' beliefs about language learning and instruction. The results indicate that student teachers' previous learning experience has an effect on their beliefs during their first year. The biggest change in their beliefs is observed during their junior and senior years when the student teachers take some courses that help them to develop their understanding of how to foster language learning and become an effective teacher. Based on the findings, it is concluded that teacher education programs have a notable effect on the belief development of pre-service teachers. Borg (2006) suggests that researchers should be careful about interpreting the results even when they find out a cognitive and behavioral change because the context of the training programs could affect the trainees' behaviors or thoughts. For instance, trainees' behavioral changes may be the result of their perception of what is required for them to be successful in their practice teaching. In this case, it can be misleading to conclude that there is a real change in behavior. In addition, Borg (2006) also asserts that the type of teacher education programs such as four-year programs usually managed by universities and four-week courses like the CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) might influence the findings of the research. Thus, he recommends that features of the education programs should be taken into consideration while investigating prospective teachers' cognitions.

Studies on the Cognitions of In-service Language Teachers

The cognitions of in-service teachers have aroused research attention in many respects. In the literature, most of the research focus is on gaining an understanding of the cognitions of teachers regardless of their teaching practices while the focus of the others is on discovering the relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices. More specifically, the studies are concentrated on "cognitions of novice language teachers"; "the cognitions and reported practices of in-service language teachers"; "the cognitions and actual practices of in-service language teachers"; "cognitive change in in-service teachers"; and "comparisons of the cognitions of expert and novice language teachers" (Borg, 2006, p. 75).

In an attempt to investigate the impact of knowledge gained in methodology courses taken during pre-service education on novice language teachers' classroom practices, Spada and Massey (1992) study three novice teachers. The results show that two of them somehow transfer their knowledge obtained in methodology courses to their instructional practices while one of them does not show any evidence of transfer. Spada and Massey (1992) attribute the lack of transfer in that case to the contextual features of the educational institution where this novice teacher works. Another finding of the study is that the three novice teachers are doubtful about the direct effect of their methodology courses on their teaching practices. A similar finding that supports the conclusion of Spada and Massey's (1992) work is from Richards and Pennington's (1998) work in which they study five first-year teachers of English in Hong Kong. The teachers are encouraged to make use of communicative methods like using English as the medium of instruction or highlighting the meaningful language use with an equal emphasis on function and form of the language as they are trained in a version of the communicative approach. Although they report that they believe the effectiveness of these strategies at the beginning of their first year, their classroom practices throughout the year are not actually based on the communicative principles that they support. Instead, they pay more attention to using the assigned material to be covered and maintaining classroom order. The researchers come to the conclusion that the teachers diverge from the communicative principles that they are encouraged to use because of such factors as large classes, exam stress, exam pressure, obligation to follow the set syllabus, pressure to behave like experienced teachers, unmotivated learners, learners resisting to try new learning strategies, learners' little proficiency in English, and increased workload. They also add that these factors hinder the teachers from using innovative techniques in their instructional practices by making them adopt a safe strategy to strictly follow the required material and use teaching strategies that the learners are accustomed to.

Farrell (2003) looks at novice teachers' cognition from a different aspect and investigates the experiences of an EFL teacher in Singapore in terms of his early socialization process. Analyzing the teacher's reflections on his experience during his first year, Farrell notes that the first year of teaching is quite challenging for the teacher. He bases his claim on the fact that the teacher receives little support from his colleagues and the school principal while dealing with demanding teaching load, classroom instruction, and management. He experiences a type of "reality shock" when he discovers that the classroom reality is quite

different from his ideals formed as a pre-service teacher in the course of teacher training (Farrell, 2003, p.95). In the light of the results, Farrell suggests that novice language teachers' initial cognitions, especially their perceptions of being a teacher, are formed by the institutional and social contexts where they work. Overall, studies on novice language teachers tend to be centered on the examination of the link between their early instructional practices and those encouraged during their initial teacher training, and their early socialization experience.

Similar to the studies on novice language teachers, there are numerous studies on experienced language teachers, too (e.g. Allen, 2010; Flores, 2001; Richards, Tung, & Ng, 1992). What we know about experienced in-service teachers' cognition is largely based on teachers' reported practices and their cognitions, and the main data collection instrument applied in these studies is the questionnaire. Richards et al. (1992) and Flores (2001) propose a connection between teachers' reported beliefs and their practices. Richards et al. (1992) study 249 secondary school teachers of English whose average teaching experience is seven years and investigates their beliefs and reported practices. The results indicate that there is a relationship between teachers' aims, principles and beliefs, and their instructional experience, teacher education and their stated approach to language instruction. Similarly, Flores (2001) questions the beliefs of 176 bilingual teachers through surveys and their practices with the interviews. The results of the study suggest that most of the bilingual education teachers acknowledge the significance of culture and language in gaining knowledge. Their beliefs seem to be built upon social factors, making them better at recognizing bilingual learners' needs. In addition to these studies, Allen's (2010) study whose participants consist of 613 foreign language teachers in the USA compares the beliefs of the teachers to the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* – a group of national standards for the teaching of foreign language. The results show that the beliefs of the teachers are mostly in line with those mentioned in the national standards. To give an example, the teachers regard the use of target language as a medium of instruction as true. However, how well the teachers meet these national standards shows variety. Beliefs of the teachers working in rural schools are more consistent with the national standards when compared to those of teachers working in urban schools. Another difference is that the beliefs of the teachers who involve in at least two professional associations are more consistent with the standards. All in all, these studies suggest that

teachers' beliefs are influenced by language learning experience, duration of teaching experience, type of teacher education, and participation in professional associations.

Differing from studies conducted with the help of a self-report instrument like a questionnaire or an interview to understand teacher cognition, numerous studies are undertaken through an analysis of real classroom practices with interviews and observations, and sometimes with little dependence on questionnaires. In general terms, the studies vary in terms of their conceptual frameworks, the terms used to refer to teacher cognition, their purposes, and contexts. Some of these studies; for instance, the study of Gatbonton (1999), Nunan (1992), Richards (1996), and Woods (1996), are performed to understand what factors are effective in teachers' instructional decisions. By making use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, Gatbonton (1999) aims to discover the pattern of experienced teachers' pedagogical knowledge they use during their instructional practices. The results show that teachers' pedagogical thoughts mostly derive from their concerns for the language that learners exposed to and produce, their opinions about the learners, making a smooth transition between activities, and assessment of learner participation and progress. On the other hand, Nunan's study (1992) contradicts Gatbonton's (1999) study suggesting that teachers' decisions are not concerned about language management, but about managing the pace and time, and teacher talking time in the classroom, giving effective explanations and instructions. In a similar study, Richards (1996) accounts for teacher decisions in relation to various maxims which aim to maintain learner engagement, plan instruction and follow the prescribed method, keep the class in order, encourage student learning and accurate student work, manage time effectively and lastly to give students control. In addition to these studies, Woods's (1996) longitudinal study on decision-making and lesson planning process of ESL teachers in Canada gives remarkable insights. Woods (1996) explains the reasons behind teachers' instructional decisions in two groups: internal and external situational factors. External reasons include estimation of group, class, and individual dynamics, estimation of the task complexity, availability of photocopying, the number of students in the class, and teacher knowledge about learners' prior experience. Internal reasons are related to teachers' decisions on the timing and planning of the course. To give an example, teachers make decisions about how to start the lesson, with which activity they plan to go on, which activity or text to use, and how long an activity will last.

Another group of studies examines the reasons why experienced in-service teachers depart from their lesson plans. Bailey's study (1996) bases these reasons on a set of themes aiming to serve the advantage of everyone, teach to the moment, help the lesson progress, integrate students' learning styles, distribute the wealth, and facilitate student participation. On the other hand, Smith (1996) attributes unplanned instructional decisions to both student-related factors like students' affective state and teacher-related factors like teachers' forgetting to bring essential material to the class. However, he does not find a relationship between students' misbehavior or students' incomprehension and unplanned decisions in that study.

There is also some evidence that language teachers in similar teaching contexts have a tendency to build their instruction upon shared principles although the way they implement these principles varies among teachers. Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001) study 18 teachers working in similar conditions in Australia with the help of observation and elicitation procedures is a good example to understand the congruence between practice and cognition. Their study offers collective cognitions and teaching practices that teachers show. Furthermore, some studies suggest that teachers' cognition may subject to change through the course of in-service training. For instance, Freeman (1992) analyses the changes in beliefs and practices of four language teachers doing an in-service teaching degree throughout a period of approximately two years. He notes that some aspects of teachers' practices change while some of those remain the same. Teachers' cognitions about teaching are implicit and unanalyzed at the beginning of the professional training; nevertheless, during the course of the training, these cognitions change as teachers become more aware of their teaching practices and able to critique them, which suggests that teacher cognitions are shaped by professional development experience.

Research into teacher cognition also provides evidence about teachers' implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Sato and Kleinsasser (1999), for example, study ten language teachers to find out how they approach CLT by using qualitative and quantitative methods. It is observed that teachers do not adopt CLT in practice most of the time although the majority of them believe the effectiveness of CLT and report that they make use of many communicative activities like group-work, role-play, simulations and games in the class. Karavas-Doukas' (1996) study enquiring into teachers' attitudes to CLT show supporting evidence to Sato and Kleinsasser's (1999) study. He finds that there is a lack of consistency between teachers' practices and beliefs about CLT. On the

contrary, Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son`s (2004) study contradicts their claim by finding out the teacher observed shows a good example of CLT in practice and holds a fully developed understanding of CLT. Borg (2006) associates this incongruence between the studies with the different research methods applied.

The last group of studies in this section looks at the difference between novice and expert language teachers in terms of their cognitions and practices (e.g. Cumming, 1990; Nunan, 1992; Richards as cited in Borg, 2006). Despite the lack of longitudinal dimension in most cases, these studies imply a change in teachers` cognition as they become more experienced. For instance, Nunan (1992) detects that less experienced teachers make decisions considering classroom management issues more whereas experienced ones` concern behind their decisions is about language-related issues. In a similar fashion, Richards`s (as cited in Borg, 2006) study suggests that novice teachers` interactive decisions are on making the lesson plan fit to available time and sticking to it; in contrast, experienced teachers interactive decisions are made considering learners` difficulties and building on these difficulties, encouraging student participation, and developing a language learning point. The study also sheds light on improvisation in teaching that experienced teachers use more than novice teachers.

To summarize, the extent of in-service teacher cognition research is broad with studies conducted with different methods in different contexts and on different subjects. Overall, it may be concluded that teacher cognition is shaped by various factors such as schooling, pre- and in-service teacher training programs, year of teaching experience, curriculum, and educational system. Studies also imply congruence between teacher cognition and instructional practice, teachers` interactive decisions, and teachers` departing from the lesson. Although many studies are conducted to better understand the link between language teachers` instructional practices and cognitions, studies with a special focus on the link between language teachers` cognition about motivational strategies and teachers` motivational practices are limited.

Studies on Teacher Cognition and Classroom Application of Motivational Strategies

Key studies on language teacher cognition and motivational strategies in language instruction are presented separately in the previous sections. Much of the literature on motivational strategies derives from studies with a focus on teachers` cognition about these

strategies rather than the actual implementation of them. When it comes to language teacher cognition research, although there are studies examining the impact of cognitions on language teachers' instructional decisions and practices, the foci of these studies are mostly limited to the teachers' cognition in grammar (e.g. Andrews, 2001; Borg, 2001; Baştürkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Brumfit, Mitchell, & Hooper, 1996), reading (e.g. Johnson, 1992; Olson & Singer, 1994), writing (e.g. Burns, 1992), or teaching the language (e.g. Öztürk & Yıldırım, 2019). However, there are few studies with a special focus on teachers' motivational practices and their cognitions. In this section, these studies will be presented.

Yang's (2015) case study investigates beliefs of 3 ESP (English for Specific Purposes) teachers in a Chinese university about student motivation and their implementation of motivational strategies. In order to discover the teachers' beliefs and practices, interviews and observations are conducted. The results show that the teachers tend to attach importance to motivation of the students and recognize the impact of motivation on second language acquisition. The motivational factors of which the teachers acknowledge the importance include autonomy, relevance, and expectancy of success. In addition, the study indicates that teachers' beliefs and practices are not always in accordance. The researcher attributes this situation to conflicting beliefs and contextual constraints. Lastly, it is found that teachers' cultural background and learning experience could have an effect on teachers' beliefs. Based on the findings, Yang suggests that teacher education programmes should include the latest research on motivation and how to integrate motivation theories into their teaching practices. He also asserts that teacher education programs need to provide teachers with opportunities to reflect on their teaching practices and beliefs by including awareness-raising tasks.

Sil's (2017) study is conducted in 25 secondary schools with 50 English teachers and 90 students from 8th grade to 10th grade in Bangladesh. In this study, Sil (2017) mainly aims to explore how teachers perceive and employ motivational strategies, and also how their students identify and observe these strategies. The perceptions of the teachers and students are identified by using a questionnaire based on Dörnyei's (2001) Motivational Teaching Model. The analysis of the questionnaire shows that both the teachers and the students find the same set of 10 motivational strategies in the 35-item questionnaire most important, but their perceptions differ in the rank order of these strategies. The 10 most important strategies are related to developing a relevant curriculum, ensuring friendly environment,

decreasing language anxiety, promoting goal-setting, cooperation and confidence, presenting tasks, providing positive feedback and encouragement, making learning fun, and taking students' learning properly. The analysis of the interviews with 5 teachers and 25 students and 5 classroom observations indicates that teachers' actual motivational teaching practices are quite in line with their claims about the use of these strategies and also with the students' expectations.

Another study comes from a different setting. Kubanyiova (2006) shows interest in motivational learning environments and conducts a study to investigate the potential impact of a teacher development course specially designed for promoting motivational teaching practices of the EFL teachers in Slovakia on changing teachers' cognitions and behaviors. The participants of the study are 8 non-native EFL teachers, five of whom work in primary or secondary schools. One of the other participants works in a private institution and the rest work at the tertiary level. In order to answer the main research question, Kubanyiova administers pre- and post- test questionnaires, receives feedback on the course, conducts interviews and classroom observation, and uses his field notes. The results indicate that the teachers' motivational teaching practices mostly show no change at all although the participants enjoy attending the course. Kubanyiova attributes this situation to such factors as the effect of monolingual and monocultural class, heavy work load and prescribed curriculum.

Waddington (2017) conducts a qualitative study with 26 primary school teachers in order to discover how teachers approach and utilize motivational strategies, and how their intentions change during the 30-hour intensive in-service training programme on the development of their understanding of motivation. The study reveals that the teachers have a limited understanding of motivation and of recent theoretical advances in motivational research before the training programme. However, remarkable changes in motivational perspectives and future intentions of the teachers are observed at the end of the training program. Consequently, Waddington suggests that teachers' understanding of motivation and their future intentions on the use of motivational strategies could be changed significantly through intensive training sessions.

Marashi and Ramin's study (2017) focuses on understanding the relationship between EFL teachers' beliefs and their motivational teaching practices. The researchers investigate the motivational practices of 30 teachers working in two private schools in Tehran, Iran by observing them in the lessons. During the observations, The Motivation Orientation of

Language Teaching (MOLT) is used to determine the time the participants spend for each strategy. In order to understand the participant teachers' beliefs, Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and an open-ended questionnaire is used. The quantitative results obtained from the MOLT and BALLI indicate that the teachers' beliefs about language learning and their motivational practices are negatively correlated. On the other hand, the qualitative results generally show consistency between beliefs and practices with respect to most of the motivational strategies such as promoting cooperation, using pair work or group work/presentation, arousing curiosity or attention, and scaffolding. However, there is still some incongruence between them in terms of some strategies such as stating lesson objectives or purpose and usefulness of an activity, and giving neutral feedback.

In language teacher cognition research, much effort has been paid on studying the language teachers' cognitions and their practices with respect to teaching certain skills. As is easily seen in aforementioned studies, little is known regarding the motivational practices and cognitions of EFL teachers. In that sense, there is a scarcity of research examining the cognitions and motivational practices of language teachers with a focus on real classroom practices and studies that would investigate the link between cognitions and EFL teachers' motivational practices in class are urgently needed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter begins by presenting the research design and research questions. Next, it reports the setting and participants, data collection instruments and data collection process. Lastly, it comes to an end with the data analysis section.

Research Design

In the present study, the researcher employed a single case study research design to investigate the motivational beliefs and practices of the EFL instructors at Gazi University School of Foreign Languages. It was decided that the best procedure for this study was to conduct a case study since it permitted the investigation of “a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context” (Yin, 2009, p.14). The case studies could be based on one case or multi cases. Although both types of case studies provide rich contextualization along with comprehensive and inductive data analysis of a small group of participants (Duff, 2014), employing a single case study research design is more preferable to multi-case study design when the researcher’s goal is to study a person or a group of people (Yin, 2009). That’s why the researcher chose to follow a single case study research design. Following that, a mixed-methods approach which required both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis was adopted since it was found to be highly effective in understanding of a situation in complicated educational and social settings (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). In a mixed methods approach, “the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds. It employs strategies of inquiry that involve

collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problem” (Creswell, 2003, p.18). In this study, the data was collected sequentially.

The quantitative data of this research study came from Cheng and Dörnyei’s (2007) *Motivational Strategies Questionnaire*, which was used to explore the instructors’ cognitions about their use of motivational strategies. In order to support the data obtained through the questionnaire and gain more precise insight into the instructors’ beliefs about their use of motivational strategies, a qualitative element was added to the research study. As Morse (2003) highlights, triangulation of the quantitative and qualitative data provides the researcher with “different, but complementary data on the same topic” (p. 122). Therefore, following the administration of the questionnaire, semi-structured individual interviews were held in order to remedy unexpected findings of the questionnaire.

In an attempt to discover how the instructors actually acted to motivate their students, a qualitative study design was necessary as observational data was required. Observations rather than self-report instruments were of utmost importance for this study when it was considered that “people do not always do what they say they do” (Johnson & Turner, 2003; p.312) and one of the aims of the study was to find out the extent of correspondence between teachers’ claims and their actual motivational practices. To apply this method, a classroom observation scheme was developed by the researcher and each instructor was observed for 2 consecutive lesson hours. All the lessons were video-recorded in order to be able to analyze the data more carefully later on.

Research Questions

The main purpose of this study is to find out whether the instructors actually make use of the motivational strategies that they believe they usually employ in their instruction. The following research questions are proposed to accomplish the purpose of the study:

1. What beliefs do EFL instructors hold about their use of motivational strategies?
2. What kind of motivational strategies do instructors use in their teaching context?
3. Are the instructors’ cognitions about the use of motivational strategies compatible with their actual practice?

Research Setting and Participants

Gazi University School of Foreign Languages (GUSFL) - a prestigious state university in Ankara, Turkey - constitutes the universe of the study. GUSFL prepares almost 3000 students for their academic studies in the faculties of Gazi University and professional careers beyond each year. There are two separate programs within GUSFL: Department of Basic Foreign Languages and Department of Modern Languages. The former provides pre-undergraduate level intensive English, German, French, Arabic, and Russian course for students who fail in the proficiency exam taking place at the very beginning of the first term while the latter offers compulsory academic English courses along with elective Arabic, French, Russian, and German courses to undergraduate students. GUSFL comprises 3 Units: Program and Material Development Unit, Testing Unit, and Professional Development and Research Unit. EFL instructors assigned to these units are responsible for preparing the program, materials, exams, seminars, workshops and other professional events under the supervision of academic coordinators. All of the instructors are expected to follow the standard weekly program, cover the required material and administer the exams or projects provided by Program and Material Development Unit and Testing Unit.

At the time of the study conducted, the Department of Basic Foreign Languages consisted of three foreign language preparatory programs and students were replaced considering their faculties' medium of instruction and their department. The first program was designed to prepare students for their undergraduate programs in which 30% of the courses were conducted in English. The second one was for students whose all undergraduate courses were conducted only in English. The last program was for students who were to study at the departments of Foreign Language Education or Literature. All of the foreign language preparatory programs lasted for two academic terms with 24-hour of courses per week. The total number of EFL instructors at GUSFL was 120 with 23 male and 97 female instructors. The instructors were teaching different groups of students assigned to classes according to their undergraduate programs and levels. The number of the students in each classroom ranged from 15 to 25.

The participants of the study were selected according to their convenient accessibility and voluntary basis. Convenience sampling - "a kind of sampling where an important criterion of sample selection is the convenience of the researcher" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 99) - needed to be used since not many instructors were willing to participate in the study. Seven

instructors giving lessons to ELT and ELL students at the Department of Basic Foreign Languages constituted the participants of the study. Table 1 displays the participants' demographic characteristics in terms of age, gender, undergraduate and graduate major and teaching experience.

Table 1

Demographic Profile of the Participants

Pseudonym	Age	Sex	BA	MA in ELT/ELL	Teaching experience
Alison	45	Female	Hacettepe University English Linguistics	✓	21 years
Chloe	34	Female	Hacettepe University ELT	✓	13 years
Emily	32	Female	Middle East Technical University ELT	-	10 years
Lilly	31	Female	Middle East Technical University ELT	-	9 years
Olivia	30	Female	Middle East Technical University ELT	-	8 years
Rachel	30	Female	Middle East Technical University ELT	-	8 years
Sophie	29	Female	Marmara University ELT	✓	8 years

As can be seen in Table 1, all the participants were female which was predictable as female EFL instructors outnumbered male EFL instructors in the universe of the study. Nearly all of the instructors held a BA in ELT with only one exception. Their experience as an EFL instructor ranged from 8 to 21 years and their age range was between 29 and 45. Three of the instructors had a Master's degree in ELT or ELL. In order to ensure confidentiality and keep the identities of the instructors anonymous, the researcher gave pseudonyms to each of them as indicated in Table 1.

Data Collection Instruments

This research study was conducted upon a mixed-method research design by administering a questionnaire to gather initial data, holding semi-structured interviews to allow the voice of instructors to inform the research, and making classroom observations to reveal the phenomenon as it was. This section of the study is concerned with how these data collection techniques were adapted and exploited in the study.

Motivational Strategies Questionnaire

Motivational Strategies Questionnaire was developed by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) to investigate the range of motivational strategies that teachers could employ to motivate their students in an Asian context. The scale is a modified version of Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) survey which is based on Dörnyei's (1994) initial summary of motivational strategies. As Dörnyei provided a more extensive and structured skeleton of motivational strategies in 2001, a revision of Dörnyei and Csizér's survey was necessary and the Motivational Strategies Questionnaire was created to this end (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). The piloting of the questionnaire was piloted with 19 English teachers, and the initial item pool with more than 100 strategies was narrowed down to 48 strategies by the researchers. The questionnaire mainly consists of two parts including the same set of motivational strategies but differing in their rating scales. Although both rating scales comprise six options, their descriptions are different. The scale of the first part describes degrees of frequency whilst the scale used in the second part describes degrees of importance. Each part of the questionnaire consists of 48 strategy items with different rating scales: one describing degrees of frequency from "hardly ever" to "very often" and the other describing degrees of importance from "not very important" to "very important". The questionnaire ends with a part intended to collect demographic information from the participants. The researcher made slight adaptations in this part to make it relevant to the research setting and the participants.

Before administering the questionnaire for the present study, the researcher piloted the English version of the questionnaire with an EFL instructor in the same institution to ensure that all the items were clearly understood. Just after the completion of the questionnaire, the researcher held a feedback session on the questionnaire and made sure that every item was clear to the instructor to respond. After the piloting, the questionnaire was administered to 7 instructors in the main study. The English version of the questionnaire was utilized in this study as it was found to serve the purpose effectively in the pilot study and the participants were highly proficient in English.

Interview

The instructors' cognitions about their use of motivational strategies investigated first with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) Motivational Strategies Questionnaire were also questioned

with the help of interviews. Use of a qualitative instrument was important in that it helped the researcher gain insights into highly complex situations by offering “interpretations that are validated by the main research participants themselves” (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2011, p. 204). The analysis of the Motivational Strategies Questionnaire guided the researcher to make adaptations on the interview questions. They mainly addressed incorporated topics with regard to the key features of teachers’ motivational practices highlighted by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) including proper teacher behavior, recognizing students’ effort, making the learning tasks stimulating, promoting learners’ self-confidence, promoting group cohesiveness and group norms, presenting tasks properly, creating a pleasant classroom climate, increasing learners’ goal-orientedness, promoting learner autonomy, and familiarizing learners with language-related values.

Taking those topics and the results of the questionnaire into account, the researcher prepared the interview questions. From this aspect, the interviews could be considered as retrospective interviews as the questions were formed on the basis of the participants’ own responses to the questionnaire. The researcher also added a part in which demographic information of the participants was gathered. After getting two expert opinions to check for validation and making necessary improvements in the interview guideline, the interview was piloted with an EFL instructor to ensure that the questions could be understood correctly by the participant and the desired data was obtained. After the pilot interview, the participant was asked for feedback on the interview questions and the procedure and whether she found it difficult to attend an interview in English or understand any terms. The participant affirmed that each question was clear and easily understood. Taking the reflection and the expert opinions into account, an interview guideline including all the questions was prepared and used during the interviews.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted in this study since they allowed “depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand the interviewee’s responses” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p.88). Although the questions and the prompts were already prepared, the researcher kindly asked instructors to elaborate on their responses or asked some follow-up questions to gain a better understanding of their cognitions. The researcher did not strictly follow the interview guideline; instead, she directed the interview according to the responses of the participants in the light of the interview guideline.

Before the interviews, the participants were offered to receive the interview guideline to make them feel more secure during the interview. However, most of the participants thought it would be necessary and did not ask for the guide. Interviews were conducted in English as all the participants were EFL instructors with a high level of English proficiency. An average interview lasted for about 20 minutes as shown in Table 2 in a silent room in the participants' workplace. There was a friendly atmosphere and both the interviewee and the interviewer were comfortable during the interviews. All the interviews were digitally recorded with the consent of the participants to be able to review and analyze the results in an effective way.

Observation

Observation as a qualitative data collection technique was applied to discover the teaching practices of the teachers. Like the interviews, the observations were recorded as the participants and the other stakeholders granted consent, and detailed field notes were taken during and after the observations. Fourteen class hours of observations were video-recorded in total. To increase the reliability of the study, each instructor was observed for two consecutive lesson hours. The researcher conducted the observations as a non-participant observer by remaining passive throughout the lessons and only taking notes. In order to check the applicability of the observation scheme, two pilot observations were made in which one instructor was observed for two consecutive lesson hours.

In the pilot study, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) MOLT classroom observation scheme was used. However, the first part of the observation scheme did not match well with the goal of the study as the observation scheme was designed to observe both teachers' motivational practice and learner's behavior. To this respect, an observation scheme based on 10 strategy clusters in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) Motivational Strategies Questionnaire was prepared by the researcher to be used during the observations. This scheme comprised of 10 parts with the same sections as the 10 strategy clusters and a note-taking space. After getting an expert opinion on the observation scheme, the researcher conducted another pilot study in the same conditions and the instrument was proved to serve the purpose of the present study.

An observation schedule was prepared with the permission and cooperation of the stakeholders and the participant instructors. All the observations were taken place as they

were planned and video-recorded with the consent of the instructors and other stakeholders. Thanks to the video recordings, the researcher had a chance to more carefully analyze the motivational practices of the instructors.

Data Collection Procedure

Before gathering the data, permission was granted from the Gazi University Ethics Committee first, and then administrators of GUSFL was officially informed about the study. Lastly, the administrators of GUSFL and the participants of the study were contacted to receive the required permission personally.

The researcher followed a sequential procedure in order to elaborate on the findings of quantitative method with qualitative method. The data was collected by using a questionnaire, making interviews and observations. First, the participants were informed about the study, and they completed the informed consent form. The questionnaire was administered first. The instructors were given 1 week to complete the questionnaires and at the end of the week the questionnaires were collected. Then each instructor was recontacted to agree on the date of the classroom observation and interview. The dates of the observations and the interviews were decided on the availability of the researcher and the participant instructors. Due to time constraints, observations were made first. All of the instructors were observed for two consecutive lesson hours on different days. The observations were video-recorded and detailed notes were taken on the observation scheme during the observations. Lastly, interviews were conducted by following the interview guideline. Like observations, the interviews were digitally recorded with the participants' consent.

Table 2

Data Collection Process

Instructor	Questionnaire Date	Observation Date	Interview Date	Duration of the Interview
Emily	10–17 April 2017	17 April 2017	9 May 2017	25 min. 19 sec.
Lilly	10–17 April 2017	2 May 2017	10 May 2017	29 min. 12 sec.
Sophie	10–17 April 2017	25 April 2017	11 May 2017	20 min. 15 sec.
Alison	10–17 April 2017	27 April 2017	15 May 2017	16 min. 30 sec.
Rachel	10–17 April 2017	19 April 2017	16 May 2017	19 min. 10 sec
Chloe	10–17 April 2017	8 May 2017	17 May 2017	18 min. 25 sec
Olivia	10–17 April 2017	26 April 2017	18 May 2017	19 min. 52 sec

Table 2 provides a detailed overview of the data collection process. As shown in Table 2, the questionnaire with follow-up interview process was completed in 5 weeks, and the observations were completed in 3 weeks at GUSFL in the spring term of the academic year 2016-2017.

Data Analysis

At the data analysis stage, quantitative analysis of the data gathered through questionnaires and qualitative analysis of the data obtained through interviews and the observations were performed. In the first phase of the analysis, the data collected through the questionnaire was examined through a statistical software program, IBM SPSS Statistics 20. The analysis was performed through descriptive statistics function in order to compute the mean and standard deviation of the variables – 48 motivational strategies and 10 strategy clusters. The 48 motivational strategies were grouped into 10 strategy clusters with respect to their content similarities and their internal consistency was tested via reliability analysis by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). The reliability analysis of these clusters displayed that the mean Cronbach Alpha across all the clusters was above 0.70 with relatively low Cronbach Alpha coefficients like 0.55 for Classroom climate, 0.50 for Task presentation, and 0.58 for Goal in the second questionnaire. However, the researchers attributed the low Cronbach Alphas to the fact that these items were behavioral in nature and this made them “more heterogeneous within one domain than attitude scales” and partly justified their reliability (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p.160). In order to compare the mean scores of the strategies in two parts of the questionnaire, first z-scores of each strategy was calculated in each part separately, and then z-scores of the strategies in the first part of the questionnaire were subtracted from those in the second part of questionnaire and standardized z-score differences were found by using IBM SPSS Statistics 20 program.

In the second phase of data analysis, the researcher applied content analysis method to analyze qualitative data gained from the observations and interviews. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) define this method as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (p.1278). This method requires a step-by-step analysis of the data and could basically follow 8 steps: preparing the data, defining unit/theme, developing categories and codes, pre-testing the coding on the sample, coding all the text, assessing the consistency of coding, drawing inferences on them, and reporting the results (Zhang &

Wildemuth, 2009). Qualitative data analysis of the present study adopted this procedure. First, the interviews were transcribed and recursively read, and then the motivational strategies that the instructors reported to use were manually coded according to the categories derived from the 10 strategy clusters emerged in Motivational Strategies Questionnaire. In order to ensure consistency as qualitative studies are validated through “trustworthiness” and “rigor” (Golafshani 2003; Maxwell 2005; Leung 2015), a sample of existing data was coded by another researcher. As the consistency was high across the two researchers, re-coding would not be necessary and the coding process was applied to the whole set of data. At the last stage, the researcher interpreted and presented the results. In order to increase the reliability and the validity of the study, triangulation of data would be beneficial. That’s why the researcher administered a questionnaire to such a small number of participants. With the help of the questionnaire and the interviews, the researcher reached a comprehensive set of findings.

As for the analysis of the observations, an observation scheme comprising of the 10 strategy clusters was used. Instead of transcribing every word the instructors` uttered, the researcher noted down the actions, classroom atmosphere and words the instructors used to motivate the students. The data gathered from observations was carefully and intensively read many times and grouped with the same categories as the interviews. In order to increase reliability and the validity of the study, all the observations were video-recorded and a sample of existing data was watched and analyzed by another researcher. After each researcher completed the coding of the sample data separately, they cross-checked their codes and made sure that the codes had inter-rater reliability. Upon this, the researcher applied the coding to the whole set of data. Lastly, the researcher interpreted the codes and reported the results.

In the final stage, the results of the interview and the questionnaire were compared with the observation results under the same thematic categories. Each instructor’s stated beliefs and practices relative to the ten thematic categories were noted and compared rigorously. In order to be able to present the overall qualitative data, a table on which teachers’ stated beliefs were shown was created. Then each instructor’s practices was examined again and checked if the stated action was observed in the class. Based on the qualitative and quantitative results, the researcher drew conclusions and presented them.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Findings of the First Research Question

This part is concerned with the results of the first research question. Both quantitative and qualitative results will be presented respectively.

Quantitative Findings

As an attempt to gain better insights into teachers' cognition on their motivational practices, qualitative findings are supported with the quantitative findings. This section features the results of the *Motivational Strategies Questionnaire* (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). Table 3 indicates the statistical values of the teachers' cognitions on the frequency of their use of motivational strategies and how much importance they attach to these strategies. As can be seen in Table 3, the most frequently used strategy cluster is "show proper teacher behavior" with the mean score of 5.80 while the least adopted one is "promote learners' autonomy" with the mean score of 4.38. Strategies used to promote learners' self-confidence and create a pleasant classroom atmosphere follow the most frequently used strategy with the same mean scores ($M = 5.46$). There is a slight difference ($M \text{ difference} = 0.30$) between the mean scores of these two strategy clusters and the strategy cluster named "present tasks properly". As for one of the least used strategy clusters, the cluster named "familiarize learners with foreign language - related values" comes just after "promote learners' autonomy" with the mean score of 4.55 and "increase learners' goal-orientedness" follows it ($M = 4.86$).

Table 3

Mean Frequency of Each Item (M); Difference Between Each Item's Mean Frequency and the Mean Frequency of All Items (M-diff); The Frequency of an Item Relative to the Importance Attached to It (Z-Diff)

	Frequency		Importance		Z-Diff
	M	M-diff	M	M-diff	
<i>Proper teacher behaviour</i>	5.80	0.69	5.80	0.30	-0.05
(2) Show students you care about them	5.71	0.60	5.86	0.35	-0.24
(17) Show your enthusiasm for teaching	5.86	0.74	5.71	0.21	0.37
(23) Establish good rapport with students	6.00	0.89	5.86	0.35	0.14
(40) Share with students that you value English as a meaningful experience	5.57	0.46	5.86	0.35	-0.43
(47) Be yourself in front of students	5.86	0.74	5.71	0.21	0.37
<i>Recognize students' effort</i>	5.21	0.10	5.64	0.14	-0.55
(8) Monitor students' progress and celebrate their victory	4.57	-0.54	5.57	0.07	-0.92
(15) Make sure grades reflect students' effort and hard work	5.57	0.46	5.71	0.21	-0.01
(42) Promote effort attributions	5.00	-0.11	5.57	0.07	-0.35
(46) Recognise students' effort and achievement	5.71	0.60	5.71	0.21	0.18
<i>Promote learners' self-confidence</i>	5.46	0.35	5.74	0.24	-0.52
(11) Design tasks that are within the students' ability	5.29	0.17	5.71	0.21	-0.39
(28) Encourage students to try harder	5.57	0.46	5.71	0.21	-0.01
(33) Make clear to students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than being grammatically correct	5.57	0.46	5.71	0.21	-0.01
(34) Provide students with positive feedback	5.57	0.46	5.86	0.35	-0.43
(36) Teach students learning techniques	5.29	0.17	5.71	0.21	-0.39
<i>Creating a pleasant classroom environment</i>	5.46	0.35	5.61	0.11	0.20
(1) Bring in and encourage humour	5.43	0.32	5.43	-0.07	0.63
(21) Use a short and interesting opening activity to start each class	5.00	-0.11	5.43	-0.07	0.07
(30) Create a supportive classroom climate that promotes risk-taking	5.86	0.74	5.86	0.35	-0.05
(41) Avoid social comparison	5.57	0.46	5.71	0.21	-0.01
<i>Present tasks properly</i>	5.43	0.32	5.50	0.00	0.68
(6) Give clear instructions by modelling	5.29	0.17	5.29	-0.22	0.86
(25) Give good reasons to students as to why a particular task is meaningful	5.57	0.46	5.71	0.21	-0.01
<i>Increase learners' goal-orientedness</i>	4.86	-0.25	5.36	-0.14	0.14
(10) Encourage students to set learning goals	5.29	0.17	5.43	-0.07	0.44
(20) Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning	4.71	-0.40	5.57	0.07	-0.73
(26) Find out students' needs and build them into curriculum	4.29	-0.83	5.43	-0.07	-0.88
(31) Display the class goal in a wall chart and review it regularly	5.14	0.03	5.00	-0.50	1.51
<i>Make the learning tasks stimulating</i>	5.17	0.06	5.50	0.00	0.09
(12) Introduce various interesting topics	5.43	0.32	5.43	-0.07	0.63
(13) Make tasks challenging	5.00	-0.11	5.57	0.07	-0.35
(18) Break the routine by varying the presentation format	5.57	0.46	5.57	0.07	0.41
(27) Encourage students to create products	5.14	0.03	5.71	0.21	-0.58
(43) Make tasks attractive by including novel and fantasy element	3.86	-1.26	4.86	-0.65	0.22
(45) Present various auditory and visual teaching aids	6.00	0.89	5.86	0.35	0.14
<i>Familiarize learners with foreign language-related values</i>	4.55	-0.56	5.14	-0.36	0.57
(4) Familiarise students with the cultural background of the target language	4.86	-0.26	5.43	-0.07	-0.12
(7) Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences	3.71	-1.40	4.71	-0.79	0.45
(9) Remind students of the benefits of mastering English	5.00	-0.11	5.00	-0.50	1.32
(19) Invite English-speaking foreigners to class	2.14	-2.97	4.14	-1.36	0.04
(32) Introduce authentic cultural materials	5.00	-0.11	5.71	0.21	-0.77
(38) Encourage students to use English outside the classroom	5.29	0.17	5.29	-0.22	0.86
(39) Increase the amount of English you use in the class	5.86	0.74	5.71	0.21	0.37
<i>Promote group cohesiveness and group norms</i>	5.40	0.29	5.43	-0.07	0.99
(3) Allow students to get to know each other	5.43	0.32	5.57	0.07	0.22
(5) Explain the importance of the class rules	5.43	0.32	5.29	-0.22	1.05
(16) Let students suggest class rules	5.29	0.17	5.14	-0.36	1.28
(35) Ask students to work toward the same goal	5.43	0.32	5.57	0.07	0.22
(44) Encourage students to share personal experiences and thoughts	5.43	0.32	5.57	0.07	0.22
<i>Promote learners' autonomy</i>	4.38	-0.73	5.48	-0.02	-1.55
(14) Teach self-motivating strategies	4.71	-0.40	5.43	-0.07	-0.31
(22) Involve students in designing and running the English course	3.43	-1.68	5.00	-0.50	-0.76
(24) Encourage peer teaching and group presentation	4.86	-0.26	5.71	0.21	-0.96
(29) Give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed	3.43	-1.68	5.29	-0.22	-1.60
(37) Adopt the role of a 'facilitator'	5.29	0.17	5.71	0.21	-0.39
(48) Allow students to assess themselves	4.57	-0.54	5.71	0.21	-1.33

The results of the importance questionnaire indicate relatively small mean differences that range from 5.14 to 5.80. The main trend that can be observed here is that all the participants attach a very similar level of importance to each strategy cluster. All of the mean scores are higher than 5.00 and this suggests that the participants find all the motivational strategies very significant. The detailed comparison and interpretation of the results will be presented in discussion chapter.

Qualitative Findings

In order to find out language instructors' beliefs about their use of motivational strategies in a more detailed way, interviews are conducted as a part of qualitative data collection procedure. This section reports the findings obtained from the interview analysis. The findings are presented under ten headings deriving from the names of the strategy clusters suggested by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007).

Proper Teacher Behavior

The instructors were asked about what proper teacher behavior meant for them and how they generally behaved in the classroom. Their responses are summarized in Table 4 below. As can be seen, the instructors believed that they approached students in a friendly manner by trying to build a good relationship with the students.

Table 4

Instructors' Beliefs about Proper Teacher Behavior

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Proper teacher behavior	Be a good role model
		Show you care about the students
		Be friendly and diplomatic
		Be motivated and enthusiastic about teaching
		Develop good rapport with the students
		Be yourself

One of the main points the instructors highlighted was that they tried to know their students well and showed them that they really cared about them. All of them said that they used some forms or just talked to students in order to know them better at the beginning of the term.

To give an example, Chloe stated that:

By being polite, investing in positive psychology rather than scolding them, or rather than using punishments, I try to show students that I care about them. At the very beginning of the term; for example, the first session is very important to set the tone of the forthcoming classes. I have lots of lists about students like their birthdays; I try to have little celebrations about birthdays. And I regularly keep in touch with them about their problems or private issues. Sometimes they have problems about their parents or romantic relationships, so I try to care about them if I have time.

Lilly's response was quite similar to Chloe's:

When I take a class, I generally try to create a good rapport with my students at first. I try to know them better and I try to introduce myself better to them. Because I think that if we can build a trustworthy relationship, they can trust me and I can create a positive atmosphere in the classroom; and then we can learn more. That's why at the beginning of the term I try to know them better; their experiences so far, their families, their background, and their background in English as well. I think that knowing them, not only their name, but also their needs, their interests is really important. If you talk about them, I think they feel appreciated and cared, and then they try to join your lessons more.

Like Lilly, Sophie and Emily emphasized the effectiveness of being themselves in front of the students as they observed that learners got motivated when they learnt about their teachers' private life, experiences and stories. They added that they shared their personal experiences with the students to motivate them more. Similarly, Alison stated that "If you tell stories about your life, your family, they see you as a person, so they trust you."

Another point that was emphasized was teachers' enthusiasm and motivation for teaching. For instance, Rachel stated: "First I just try to be motivated, and this passes on to my students. I believe I am enthusiastic about teaching. They also feel that and they feel enthusiastic about learning in turn." Likewise, Sophie and Olivia highlighted the importance of being motivated as teachers. They stated that students regarded them as role models, so they behaved accordingly. For instance, Olivia stated that "being a good teacher is like being a good parent. Somehow your reactions create a behavior in your classroom because they see you as a role model." While all of them mentioned the importance of building a strong and friendly relationship with students, Emily suggested that teachers should act friendly but not become friends with the students by emphasizing that:

In the basic way, teachers should be friendly and also diplomatic. Diplomatic, you know, they should be the teachers. They can just have their poker-face and look like their friends to the students so that they can have some intimate relationship with the students. But they should never forget that they are the teachers. A teacher should be the guide, the motivator in the classroom, but also he or she should be formal enough to teach.

Recognizing Students' Effort

Instructors were asked about how they recognized students' effort. The main responses are presented in Table 5 below. Generally, the instructors reported that they found recognition of effort highly important and they monitored students' effort. All of the instructors reported that they recognized students' effort mostly praising and sometimes by giving a reward.

Table 5

Instructors' Beliefs about Recognizing Students' Effort

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Recognize students' effort	Follow students' grades regularly
		Monitor students' effort
		Hold face to face interview about students' progress
		Use a chart to show students' progress
		Receive feedback on students' effort
		Praise and reward

For example, Alison mentioned that she was aware of the significance of monitoring students' progress and she recognized students' effort, even the little ones, by praising them mostly. Similarly, Sophie stated that she praised the students by avoiding the repetition of words of praise, and also by using body language like saying "Give me five!" and asking the student to open her hand to hit with her open hand for celebration sometimes. Chloe stated that she sometimes used a reward to appreciate students' effort. On the other hand, Alison stated that she was unsure about whether she recognized students' effort in the way she should do it because of the time constraints. Emily's response also partly supported Alison's concern:

Honestly, from time to time I lose focus on what is going on around. We are so busy with some other things at work in addition to dealing with students. But when I see a hint in students' behavior or work, I can just recognize it. I cannot observe them overall, but when I see a hint, I can just encourage them to do more and I inform them about their progress. Not regularly I have sessions with them, this is spontaneous.

Three of the instructors mentioned that they were able to follow students' grades regularly thanks to the online grading system. Some of them reported that they held feedback sessions with the students. To give an example, Chloe uttered that: "Following their grades regularly and their level of participation is the thing that I do as much as possible. We have an online system, that's how I actually follow their grades. And during the classes I

monitor their effort.” She also added that she monitored students’ effort and she tried to have one face-to-face conference with her students about their progress, effort, and needs once in a term.

Likewise, Olivia shared an anecdote about recognition of her effort as a student and how this experience helped her to recognize students’ effort. Her answer was as the following:

I remember in the last year of high school, I attended a course after school and it was a great one. I met a great teacher there. He was taking records about every exam result we had taken and he was analyzing them. But we had no idea about all these processes. One day he invited us to share them and we were shocked. That day I understood when your teacher was monitoring your failure, success, and analyzing all the process you had been through academically during the year, this was so much and something great for a student. When I became a teacher, I tried to apply the same staff. For example, after quizzes, midterms, I have my own schedules. I use some color codes to show students what is good, what is needed to be improved, what can be good, etc. So I think it is really working. Once in a month when I have individual talking feedback session with every student, I share them. I know it is a waste of time for a teacher as it is too much effort you are giving, but it really works. I call every student after class and share their results just like my teacher did the same thing for me, and they feel shocked and kind of proud because their teacher is following their progress by giving feedback and asking about how their month is going, etc.

In addition to these, Lilly mentioned that she used a progress chart on which students wrote their weekly goals and whether they achieved them. By collecting these self-evaluation sheets, she had an idea about students’ effort. However, she also stated that “Not every student wants to do that, but if they want, I can carry on with that”. Like most of the instructors, Rachel stated that she could understand how much effort students put in to improve their language skills, especially speaking skill, by observing their performance in the classroom. She added that she could recognize this effort verbally or with non verbal cues.

Promoting Learners’ Self-confidence

The third interview question aimed to discover how the instructors promoted students’ self-confidence. All of the instructors mentioned that at the beginning of the term they gave a session of learning techniques to help students feel more confident while learning and improving their language skills. They also added that, when they felt a need, especially before certain tasks, they could remind students these learning strategies. Table 6 indicates the main responses.

Table 6

Instructors' Beliefs about Promoting Learners' Self-confidence

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Promote learner's self-confidence	Maintain special eye contacts with special students Have a session of learning strategies Share your own experiences as a student Celebrate any success and ignore failures Do not correct every mistake Give positive feedback Use a motivating quote/picture

Rachel's response below provides a good summary of the instructors' common practices:

I might have some shy students in the beginning of my classrooms. For example, when I do some role-play activities, I try to give them some new identities, some English names, American names, or different roles. By this way, they are not themselves, they are just those people. So they can just act like them and they can be more self-confident. In order not to hurt their feelings, while giving feedback, I also try to be careful. I try not to correct their mistakes. Actually it depends on the mistake. Not directly, but indirectly I lead them to correct their mistakes. You know, first by giving some positive feedback and then making some suggestions. "Maybe you can do this part like this." etc. So they can boost their self-confidence. Before the tasks, I give them the strategies along with the instructions. At the beginning of a listening activity, I can just make a quick revision and ask their opinion about the note-taking strategies that they use. For example, what they do while listening to a lecture such as use of abbreviations, symbols, they shouldn't write full sentences etc. I just try to make them remember all those things.

Alison asserted that there was a link between building trust and respect in the classroom and promoting students' self-confidence. She added that when students really trusted the class and the teachers, they could say everything and do anything in the classroom; and they knew that nobody was going to laugh at or harm them when they made a mistake. Lilly and Sophie also supported this idea by stating that students knew making mistakes was acceptable in their classroom. Lilly also mentioned that she came with a motivating quotation, photos or such things for students sometimes and generally put them on the walls of the classroom so that students could see and they could become more confident. In addition to these, she said that she shared her own experiences as a learner and told students "I did this and you should or shouldn't do that as well". Olivia stated that she tried to celebrate any success and ignore failures. She added that criticizing was something that didn't work, but positive feedback worked.

All of the instructors mentioned that they tried to encourage students as much as possible. Emily said that mostly she focused on the positive sides of students' work more to boost students' self-confidence, especially during feedback sessions. Sophie asserted that students with low self-confidence needed more motivation and she tried to provide those with more encouragement. Similarly, Chloe stated that:

I know there are silent students in the classroom I try to maintain an eye contact with them as much as possible to encourage them with my body language. I maintain special eye contacts with special students. And they know that what it is for, so it triggers them. Unfortunately, I don't have tailor-made materials for each student, but I know that some students are really strong in some points and I encourage them. I wish I had more time for them to create tailor-made materials for some students, but I try my best.

She also added that she used her special techniques in order to encourage them to try harder. She gave an example:

In order to increase participation when I ask a question, sometimes I ask them to raise hands. I see four volunteers for example; then I say I need more volunteers, and start counting their hands like eight, nine, OKAYYY, everyone is volunteered for this question.

Creating a Pleasant Classroom Climate

Instructors were asked about how they managed to create a pleasant classroom atmosphere. Their responses are presented in Table 7. All of the instructors reported that they tried different techniques to create a comfortable learning environment.

Table 7

Instructors' Beliefs about Creating a Pleasant Classroom Environment

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Create a pleasant classroom climate	Be a colorful teacher trying different things in class Make little comments about their clothes, appearance Be open, supportive, friendly and approachable Appreciate humor Do not scold students, smile frequently Start the lesson with an intriguing activity

Olivia stated that "By being supportive, making students believe in themselves, making them feel good in the class, I try to create a positive classroom climate". She also added that she made little comments about students' clothes or appearance such as saying "Nice

hair!” She believed that students liked such kind of compliments since they recognized that the teacher was aware of them. All of the instructors highlighted the effectiveness of use of humor for a positive classroom climate. Alison said that “There should be jokes and humor as long as they don’t hurt anyone. There is a limit for that, but humor is always good in the class, that makes students relaxed and also the teacher.” Lilly also explained why she found humor useful in the class. She stated that:

I try to use humor, and try to make fun of myself as well; and students love it. They feel more comfortable when I do it. Of course not in every lesson, but generally... If they enjoy, they join your classes, you can attract their attention and they can find themselves because they are young and they need something enjoyable, active, and energetic. If you use humor, it will help them more.

In addition to humor, all of the instructors stated that they tried different warm-up activities to start the lesson. For instance, Olivia stated:

It depends on the subject. If it makes me show nothing, but just question it, I mean if it is a hot topic, a controversial issue related to global warming etc, I just start a discussion. Sometimes with just a picture, sometimes after just a video, sometimes a quotation, sometimes with a game ... Sometimes, I may give them some objects and material and then analyze it to arouse interest in the classroom in a way like that. But saying that every single day we apply all those stuff is wrong. At least every single day we use some visuals. After all, with 6 years of experience, I think we are the motivators in the classroom. If you are not in the mood, showing the best video ever simply doesn’t work. So with my words and behaviors I try to motivate them again.

All of the instructors noted that they tried to be approachable and supportive to create a nice classroom atmosphere. To illustrate, Rachel stated that:

I’m not a very strict teacher. I try to be myself in front of my students. I’m trying to be as approachable as I can. For example, I want them to talk about their problems when necessary, I try to support them, try to be smiling all the time. It is also about my personality. I don’t easily get angry, for example. I try to help my students at all costs and I forgive them whether they make a mistake or they don’t obey the rule. I just warn them in a polite way. They are not scared of me in the class; I am not dominant in the classroom.

Like Rachel, Sophie said that she welcomed students’ ideas and personalities. She also mentioned that she was a relaxed person and her tolerance level was high, and this helped her to create that climate. All of the instructors stated that they avoided scolding students, instead they smiled frequently.

Chloe remarked that being open, friendly, and open to criticism were just some of the ways to create a pleasant atmosphere. She added that sometimes her students got bored and

criticized her for following the lesson plan so strictly, and when she felt that she could make small alterations in her plan. Emily also shared a similar problem:

When I see that students get bored, or when I feel that they need the motivational feedback, then I just try to create that atmosphere. But sometimes that atmosphere is never possible to create because you don't get anything from the students back. Then I get discouraged, let's just accept it. I just try to be a colorful teacher, try different things in a class, but it has a lot of things to base on. It depends on the students, the topic we are teaching, the responsibilities of that lesson, and a lot of things. But I try to do my best to create an atmosphere in which students feel relaxed. Most of the time, they feel comfortable in the lesson. But near the end of the day, I can see the boredom in their eyes sometimes. But I know that it's something usual. I was a student once upon a time and I was the same way. I just try to understand them and just change the topic, do something different and just go on with another thing.

Presenting Tasks Properly

Instructors were asked about in what ways they presented tasks. They all stated that they were aware of the importance of giving clear instructions and they used different techniques while presenting the tasks. Their answers are shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Instructors' Beliefs about Presenting Tasks Properly

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Present tasks properly	Be simple and crystal clear Check for student understanding of the instruction Write or project it on the board/ Paraphrase/ Repeat/ Explain step by step/ Give a time limit

Chloe explained why presenting tasks was really important and how she presented them. She stated:

Presenting tasks properly is very important. Otherwise they are lost; they don't know what to do, or how to do. When they are lost, they are easily distracted by other staff like social media or their friends. So showing them how to do, or giving instructions properly is very important not to lose their interest. I try to be simple; I have my dos and don'ts for giving instructions. For example, I never give them the handout before giving the instruction. After giving the instruction, after checking that they are clear about the instruction, I ask them what they are going to do, or I ask one of the students to rephrase the instruction.

Rachel stated that she tried to paraphrase the instruction and she repeated the instruction if necessary. She added that she changed her tone of voice and asked some confirmation check questions like “Is everything clear?” and “Do you know what you are going to do now?” Lilly stated that her instructions were understood as it was nearly the end of the term and students were used to the course book and to her. She also added that she had to write the instructions on the board or send instructions for a task as an email sometimes to make it clearer for students at the beginning of the term. She also stated that: “I may ask a student to repeat it by asking what we are going to do or whether that is clear, especially to a student who is sleeping.” Olivia stated that everything should be crystal clear so that she could make students feel like “Yeah, I can understand my teacher!”, and this pampered them. She also added that this had a great influence on students’ confidence. Different from the other instructors, Sophie stated that she gave the instructions by modeling and using her body language at the same time.

On the other hand some of the instructors stated that they had some hesitations about whether they presented the tasks properly. For example, Alison stated:

I think giving clear instructions is really important, but am I really good at it? I’m not sure. Sometimes teachers think that they have some problems giving the instructions because students sometimes don’t understand what to do. So the solution I found for that is giving instructions in little parts. First do this, and then do this. I don’t give the instructions as a whole, as a paragraph. That’s the solution I found, but I don’t know if that’s the correct solution, I am not sure.

Similar to Alison, Emily stated that she recognized that she should be more careful about giving instructions when she started to teach to a different group of learners. She also said that she was still improving the way she presented the tasks. She added that she could forget giving a time limit while assigning a task sometimes and she was not sure whether she should always set a time limit for each activity.

Increasing Learners’ Goal-orientedness

The instructors were asked about how they increased learners’ goal-orientedness. The main point they highlighted was that they tried to encourage learners to set their learning goals as much as possible, especially at the beginning of the term. Table 9 indicates the instructors’ main responses.

Table 9

Instructors` Beliefs about Increasing Learners` Goal-orientedness

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Increase learners' goal-orientedness	Encourage them to set realistic, motivational goals Set certain goals for them and their projects etc. Use a self-progress sheet

Rachel stated that:

Setting learning goals are important. Before they start a term, I just tell them to observe themselves. When there is a presentation I just want them to record themselves, and I give the recording to them and want them to see their progress at the end of the term. I just ask questions to them; for example, "What is your goal?", "What do you expect?", "What are the things you expect from the teachers?" at the beginning of the term or throughout the term, and we talk about how to meet the expectations. It also depends on the students. If they want to improve themselves in a specific skill, I try to help them, we kind of talk about our goal. For example, we say in this midterm you need to get at least 70 or 80. And I help them by giving feedback. It depends on the task and the student actually. But the goals are not so general.

Most of the instructors` responses were in line with Rachel`s response. Alison stated that students should have their own goals and they had to find them themselves, so she just led them the way. Chloe noted that students` first goal in the prep class was to pass the exam, so while helping them set their goals she considered their needs and gave recommendation accordingly. She also stated that she needed more time to help them set more specific goals. Emily stated that she encouraged learners to set goals when they had free time. She gave an example: "Today we talked about living abroad, why we learn a foreign language, what we can do in our future career. And I encouraged them to set realistic, motivational, creative goals for their life." Lilly and Sophie stated that they set certain goals for students and their projects. They added that sometimes they explained students what they were able to do or learn after certain tasks and checked whether they were achieved at the end of the lesson. Lilly also stated that she asked students to complete a self-progress form to help them set their goals and check whether they were achieved. When asked about how she promoted learners` goal-orientedness, Olivia focused on asking about learners` dreams and expectations by stating that:

At least I try to do it by asking about their dreams, their own expectations at the beginning of the term. There are some forms like questionnaires, surveys that we share with the students about their expectations and goals.

Olivia also added that:

I also share what I expect from my students and there is a choice what I expect from myself. Subconsciously, indirectly, time to time, for each student, I try it. Sometimes we ask for feedback. For this feedback session, I have always had another option; you know, how much satisfied I feel from my progress. You should know you are just the guide, and they are the one to achieve themselves. They are doing anything and everything for their own good, not for you, not for making teacher proud and happy, but you know “So yeah I'm doing it for me, so it's beneficial for me” like so.

Making the Learning Tasks Stimulating

Instructors were asked about how they made the learning tasks stimulating. Overall, they stated that they tried to differentiate their presentation techniques and use a wide variety of materials. Table 10 summarizes their responses.

Table 10

Instructors' Beliefs about Making the Learning Tasks Stimulating

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Make the learning tasks stimulating	Use various materials and techniques for different learning styles
		Use your charisma/personality/personal experiences
		Personalize the topic

Chloe and Alison stated that they used different kinds of materials like kinesthetic materials or audio visual materials addressing to different learning styles. Similarly, Emily noted that she tried to be a colorful teacher and used different resources and digital materials like songs and videos. Lilly stated that she provided students with lots of audio and visual materials, too. She added that sometimes she brought students magazines for authentic reading or asked them to create blogs to see their product and also progress. Olivia also remarked that she used a variety of different materials every day, but she also stated that “If you are not in the mood, showing the best video ever simply doesn’t work”. Some of the instructors mentioned they used their personality to make the tasks interesting. For instance, Sophie mentioned that her personality was her teaching style and she added:

I find myself as a person “enjoyable” so that’s the reason I find my lessons enjoyable. I’m trying to use different techniques, atmospheres, to give students different opportunities for new experiences. For example, if it is not snowing or raining, I can have lessons outside. I use different materials in the classroom and do my best to make the class enjoyable.

Rachel mentioned that she made the tasks stimulating by personalizing the topic. She also stated that she could talk about her own experiences about the topic and then ask some questions to students to arouse their interest. Like the other instructors, she added that she used some audiovisual materials, presentations and pictures.

Familiarizing Learners with FL-related Values

The instructors were asked about how they familiarized learners with foreign language-related values. They stated that they did not have a special session on these values, but they tried to give them a place as much as possible, mostly through the use of authentic materials.

Table 11.

Instructors' Beliefs about Familiarizing Learners with FL-related Values

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Familiarize learners with FL-related values	Share your cultural experiences/ cultural knowledge Encourage students to reach native speakers Use authentic cultural materials Invite senior students to share their experience

Alison stated that languages were internally related to the values and the culture of that language so students should have some knowledge of it. She added that she used authentic videos, podcasts, and pictures to help learners become familiar with FL-related values as much as the time limit let her. Rachel highlighted that as language teachers, they were representatives of their culture and she tried to give cultural background of the topic if it was related. She also added that to make learning process more interesting and more fun; she sometimes introduced the cultural point. Chloe noted that she could not have a chance to include cultural elements all the time, but she tried it when the topic arouse. She also added that she emphasized intercultural values. Emily gave a more concrete example and stated that:

First term; for example, I always try to celebrate Halloween. I just know that students are getting relaxed, enjoyed by such things. I give importance to them just to broaden their horizons. We must teach them, especially as prospective English teachers. I can say I often try to use cultural elements in my teaching. If I can't particularly apply something in the classroom, we can just watch something and discuss on it. We don't have to do it actively.

Lilly stated that she tried to teach students commonly used slangs because students found it difficult to communicate with foreigners. She also added that she read culture notes in the reading book before the lessons to explain the cultural point to the students better. Similar to most of the instructors, Olivia stated that:

When they understand cultural background, it is much more meaningful for them. With authentic materials, I try to teach them. Again according to topic, if it is a suitable task, I use a written poem, article, or a quotation. For example, if the topic is related to presenters, TV and Media figures, I give them Oprah Winfrey as an example, and they have no idea about her. Sometimes I use similarities between our culture and their culture. When I give this example, one of my students said “Hocam bu oranın Seda Sayan’ı gibi bir şey yani?” (Teacher, she is like Seda Sayan in Turkey, isn’t she?). It sounds so stupid but it works for them to understand the issue.

Different from the other instructors, Sophie emphasized that she tried to stimulate students to find their own ways of reaching native speakers of English and find epals, online websites to communicate with them. She also added that she avoided suggesting places in Ankara where they could contact foreigners because most of these places were in Kızılay and it could be dangerous for them.

The instructors also reported that they shared their cultural experiences with them. For example, Sophie stated that she shared her Work&Travel experience with the students. Alison and Lilly stated that they shared what they learnt about culture from their relatives living abroad.

All of the instructors also stated that they invited senior students to the orientation program held at the beginning of the first term to share their English learning experiences. Most of them also stated that senior students sometimes came to visit their classes and shared their experiences with their present students.

Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Group Norms

Table 12

Instructors’ Beliefs about Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Group Norms

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	Do not have a very rigid set of rules Make use of reflections Set the rules all together in the first lesson Use pair/group work activities frequently

The instructors were asked about how they promoted group cohesiveness and group norms. Their answers are demonstrated in Table 12. Overall, the instructors reported that they talked about classroom rules at the beginning of the term. Chloe emphasized that classroom relationship was dynamic so setting the tone of the classroom, setting the rules all together at the beginning of the term, creating and recreating those group dynamics were really important. She also added that classrooms were democratic, so she was not there as authority because her students were university students. Likewise, Emily mentioned that students had more words than she did while they were setting the rules as a class. Alison, Rachel and Sophie stated that they set some rules altogether for the teacher and the student and they signed it at the beginning of each term. They also added that they stuck it on the wall of the classroom and tried to obey those rules. Emily described the situation in her classroom by stating that:

I have two classes at the moment. In one of the classes, I can feel the harmony among the students. Whatever I say, they can do it in collaboration, cooperation; whatever it is they need to do, they do it. But in the other class, there are some students who are just against anything, who just don't feel comfortable within some other groups. I sometimes apply reflections in the classroom. In those reflections, some students just talk about their feelings about the other students and the tasks. I just note them as a really precious feedback from the students and I assign the tasks according to that, I group them according to that. I just try to figure out who can deal with the others. For example, there is a student; I always put him in a group where others can deal with him. So that he doesn't dominate the group and the others also cope with him.

Like the other instructors, Lilly mentioned that she talked about classroom rules at the beginning and she believed that she could be flexible. She added that "We should also have flexibility; those rules could be flexible from time to time. It depends on the situation and also the intention why it has changed etc. So we don't have very rigid set of rules." Olivia also mentioned that there should not be too many classroom rules because she believed that

When you set up so many rules, they will ignore all, but when you set up just two or three rules, they will accept all and apply it. So I'm just saying at the beginning of the term, two spoken rules, first one is "Only English!", second one is "Listen to each other!". But there are some rules which are not written, not spoken. For example, they know that they shouldn't be late for the classroom. It is not a nice behavior to do actually. When you highlight just two or three rules, this is much more manageable I guess. But when you give them 20 rules, and this is what we expect and write them all, speak them all, which of them will they apply? So they just ignore all of them. But in that way, they really follow those two rules.

When they were asked how they promoted group-cohesiveness, all of them stated that they used pair/group work activities frequently in their lessons to make students feel as a part of group.

Promoting Learner Autonomy

The last question asked in the interview was how the instructors promoted learner autonomy. The focal point highlighted by the instructors was that they tried to give learners autonomy as much as possible. The ways they promote autonomy in the classroom are shown in Table 13.

Table 13

Instructors' Beliefs about Promoting Learner Autonomy

Theme	Category	Code
Teacher cognition on their use of motivational strategies	Promote learner autonomy	Be a facilitator / Scaffold Get feedback and organize the lesson accordingly Try to give students options Encourage peer teaching

One of the strategies mentioned was acting as a facilitator by scaffolding. Alison stated that she used scaffolding when she observed that students needed help on the task given. She added that she tried it by giving them tasks step by step and guiding them through the course of each step. Chloe noted that she always scaffolded students in many ways like asking questions in order to lead students for the correct answer, or monitoring them while they were on task and giving feedback. Lilly also gave an example on how she scaffolded students:

I generally observe them during an activity and sometimes while observing I notice that they are doing something wrong or they are not on the right track so I just come in and try to help them with some questions. I try to change their direction. I monitor them, if they need help I just come in and give help. They feel free to ask me help as well.

Another main point frequently touched upon was making adaptations or changes on the tasks based on students' reflection. Five of the instructors stated that they couldn't change the curriculum, but they could make some adaptations on the tasks by taking students' wishes and needs into consideration. For example, Rachel stated that she might adapt or change the topics depending on students' character and needs. She added that she

discussed the classroom activities with the students sometimes and received feedback from them, and she tried to learn how they learnt best and adapt activities according to their learning strategies. Similarly, Sophie stated that:

When I try something new, I ask for feedback from my students on whether they like it or not. I care about my students' feedback. If they say that they are happy with playing songs, I keep playing songs. If they say that they are not happy with choosing different partners, I try to avoid it. So their feedbacks are the key form of lesson plan.

Olivia also mentioned that she asked for reflection from the students on the lesson and the teacher; and organized her lessons accordingly. She added that she gave students words on the planning of the week sometimes by stating: "We vote in the classroom and students decide what we are going to do first." Chloe shared a similar practice, but she also shared why she could not promote autonomy more by highlighting that:

I wish I could give more autonomy to my students. This is prep school; we have to follow a realistic plan. We have no other options, but if I can have options, I try to give it to students. For example, I ask them about the order of the activity, books we should follow on that day. I try to give them autonomy.

Different from the other instructors, Rachel highlighted that not only did she scaffold the students, but also she encouraged peer teaching. To give an example, she said:

Sometimes I need to scaffold them. For example, while introducing some grammar points, it might be difficult for some students to understand it and do the exercises. In that case I might form some groups or tell my students to check their answers with their pairs. They can help each other first, and then if necessary I can also answer their questions, and revise the topic once again if there is a general problem about understanding the topic.

The instructors said that they tried to provide students with choices and freedom as much as possible to help them become autonomous learners. Rachel reported that she tried to let students be free about the topics that they chose for a task or project. Likewise, Olivia stated that she gave students options for their projects. As for giving freedom to students, Emily gave an example:

If it is not an obligatory assignment in the curriculum, I can give students freedom. For example, we created a blog on which students write about their opinions on a topic. Their works are just accumulating there, so I can see who has done it, or who hasn't done it. But I don't actually punish the ones who haven't done it because I told them: "If you do it, it's for your own sake. You are all 18; you are autonomous learners, so you decide it". Out of 15 students, 7 or 8 students didn't write anything about it, but it's their responsibility. On such tasks I give them autonomy.

Lilly focused on the difficulty she had while promoting learners' autonomy and how she dealt with the problem. She stated that:

The biggest problem... At the very first, it is difficult. They don't know the system here. They learnt English very differently in the past and they came here. Especially most of the students don't know how to use English in real life. They just come here with some tests. When they come here, they are shocked and they don't know what to do. So, firstly I try to explain them how they can improve certain skills etc., and then I try to create their independence in their own learning. But firstly they should know what they are doing and what is expected from them. If they know those things, then they can build their own independence and they can become autonomous learners. For instance, I used something like a learning log that the student was checking the things they learnt throughout the week. Sometimes I used that because the students can see their own progress, strengths and weaknesses and they can try to make up for them.

Findings of the Second Research Question

In an attempt to answer the second research question, instructors' use of motivational strategies was investigated through 14 hours of classroom observation. This section deals with the results of the observations.

Proper Teacher Behavior

During the observed classrooms, all of the instructors displayed proper teacher behavior. They all started the lesson with greetings and social-chat. Chloe, Lilly, Olivia and Emily asked about students' weekend, or whether they did something interesting or unusual on the previous day. Olivia asked about the absent students and whether the absent students had a problem. Rachel asked about students' lesson observation experience and they had a small chat. Alison told students that she had read their reflections and shared some of them without giving students' names and asked about students' ideas and showed she cared about their responses. All of the instructors listened to students' answers attentively by making an eye-contact, or simply nodding. They commented on students' responses sometimes by saying just "Great!", or asking further questions to show that they were interested.

In terms of enthusiasm, out of seven instructors, three of them looked extremely enthusiastic, and the rest seemed to be enthusiastic enough about teaching. They seemed to enjoy teaching by smiling frequently and being energetic. They went around the classroom

most of the time. Just during listening activities, some of them sat for a while and checked the computer.

They all knew the names of the students and called them by their name. Rachel used “-cim” suffix in Turkish to sound more sincere; for example, she said “Mustafacım” and “Gamzecem”. In Sophie’s classroom, students would like to celebrate one of their friends’ birthday and asked for permission. She welcomed the idea and checked the availability of the program.

All of the instructors seemed to be themselves in front of the students. After asking about students’ weekend, Olivia, Chloe and Lilly shared what they did at the weekend. Emily shared an experience she had when she was at university. Sophie shared another real-life experience to make a smooth transition to the topic.

The instructors’ level of proficiency in English was adequate for classroom purposes. They were all a good model in the classroom.

Recognizing Students’ Effort

All of the instructors seemed to be monitoring students’ effort to complete the tasks all the time and they recognized it mostly by praising during the observed lessons. For example, Sophie asked a question to the whole class, just one of the students could give the correct answer. Upon this, she said “Only person to give the correct answer was Meral”. She recognized her achievement with that phrase, but no reward was given. In a similar case, in Rachel’s classroom students could not give the fully correct answer, but the instructor praised the students by saying “Only two words were missed, perfect!” She also appreciated students’ effort verbally by saying “Good try!”, “Good guess! Try again!” In her lesson, Olivia asked for class applause for the first volunteer student to participate in the activity. She appreciated his effort in this way. Chloe introduced a game to the students and asked them what they wanted as a winner prize. At the end of the game, the winning students were promised to be given a cup of coffee. Chloe and Emily asked about students’ exam results and commented on them very briefly. One just said “Well done!”, and the other commented on their overall progress. However, they did not evaluate the results in detail, or recommended any study skills to students. All in all, they recognized students’ effort to some extent.

Promoting Learners' Self-confidence

The instructors encouraged students both verbally and nonverbally. They usually provided students with positive feedback. While three of them frequently used the same phrases like “OK”, “Thank you”, “Hi hi” after students’ responses, four of them varied their oral feedback by saying “That’s a good example!”, “Right!”, “Exactly!”, “That’s a good point!”, “Wooww!”, “Thank you dear!”, “I like it!”, “Quite a good point”, “Thank you very much”, “Yeah!”, “You are great!”. One of them used class applause technique after each team made a presentation. Moreover, all of them kept an eye-contact with the students, sometimes nodded and showed their interest in students’ answers in their eyes.

None of the instructors interrupted students when they made a grammar mistake while speaking. They just ignored the mistake if it was a minor mistake. When they felt that they needed to correct it, they used “repetition technique”. For example, one of the students mispronounced “certain” in her sentence, Instructor Sophie repeated her sentence with the correct pronunciation and then she said “değil mi?” (Isn’t it?) in Turkish by smiling and keeping an eye-contact with the student. The tasks used in the classes were within the students’ ability. They were neither too difficult, nor too easy for students to complete as all of the students seemed to be completing the tasks without too much effort. All of the instructors encouraged students to participate in the discussions by asking further questions when they gave short answers, or directing them to give better answers to their questions. They generally directed questions not only to volunteers, but also to the other students who were listening attentively. To give an example, when few of the students raised their hands for a question, Sophie asked “Who says summary A? Raise your hands please... So why do you think so?” In her classroom, while checking the answers of a listening activity, Emily said “Come on! I have seen everybody has written something.” She tried to make everyone participate in the neutral feedback session. Rachel used humor to encourage students to answer a question. She said: “Anybody, any brave person, any “cengaver” (Turkish word meaning hero)?” by showing her muscles to make students answer a hard question. When students gave the wrong answer, she smiled and said “Good guess! Good try!” In Rachel’s classroom, a student shared her worries about the midterm exam and said that she was afraid that everyone would have to repeat the preparatory school. The instructor said: “Don’t worry, you can do it. What you need to do is practice more and more. You will just have to push your limits a little bit, especially for reading and listening.” She also added that she could provide the student with rich sources and she

could recommend her some useful websites. By this way, not only did she encourage students to try harder, but also she guided them towards their goal. When we think about the ways to promote students' self-confidence, teaching them some learning strategies is also in the list. However, in the observed lessons, learning strategies were not mentioned at all. Only three of the instructors gave some strategies students could use while they were on task. Rachel reminded students of skimming and scanning techniques and checked whether they knew when they needed to employ those strategies by uttering:

Look at the questions first, and then look at the text. Do you sometimes use that strategy? (pause) What kind of technique is it? (pause) Making inferences, the author's main purpose? Skimming or scanning? (pause) Skimming yes! Do you remember these strategies? Skimming for getting the main idea, scanning to look for details... Now we are going to use the skimming technique, so you have 2 minutes.

She also told students to set a time limit when they had long texts in front of them as they wanted to increase their reading speed. Chloe and Olivia taught some useful phrases students might need to use to perform the speaking task.

Creating a Pleasant Classroom Climate

The instructors treated students with kindness and respect, and students appeared to be comfortable and relaxed. They had a smiling face most of the time. None of the instructors scolded the students. Olivia complimented one of the students by saying "Nice hair, I like it!" Rachel sometimes called students with their surnames like "Miss Kartaç", and students seemed to enjoy it. While checking the answers, the instructors generally had neutral feedback sessions in which all students felt free to give the answer. When they gave the wrong answer, the instructors did not discourage the students; instead they encouraged them to try again.

Most of the instructors were really humorous. When it was appropriate and related to the topic, they made some little jokes. One of them made fun of herself when she made a mistake. In addition, when students brought in humor, they appreciated it and laughed at it with the students.

They all started the lesson with an interesting activity. Emily started the lesson with a pairwork discussion and then with an interesting video to help them generate more ideas about the topic. Chloe preferred a group-work activity that included colorful Montessori picture cards to start the lesson. Sophie started the lesson with a treasure-hunt game in which students needed to move around the classroom to find some clues. Olivia made a

brainstorming activity and asked all the students to come to the board and write a word/phrase they associated with the advantages and disadvantages of the topic mentioned. There were enough board markers for everyone and they were colorful. Students were not forced to come to the board, but most of them attended the activity. Rachel started with a quotation and asked for students' ideas. Alison distributed colorful post-its to each student and asked them to write when and at what age they started learning English and what they found most difficult when they started learning English. Then they shared their ideas. Lilly introduced students a hot topic with detailed explanations and started class discussion on the topic. In all of the classes, students appeared to be really comfortable and relaxed.

Presenting Tasks Properly

In the study, it was observed that the instructors gave clear instructions by using different techniques. They generally explained the task step by step and checked whether students understood it by asking "Is everything clear?" Chloe asked a student to say what they were going to do after she gave the instructions. Five of them set a time limit for the tasks. They mostly changed the tone of their voice and used short pauses to keep an eye-contact with the students while giving the instructions. However, just three of them gave good reasons to why a particular task was meaningful. The others did not give any justifications for the activity.

Four of the instructors presented the task step by step by using their body language, gestures and mimics, and also by showing the related page on the book. They said "Okay?" to check whether the instructions were understood or not. They also projected the questions on the board and highlighted them. Sophie reminded students that they had played that game before and gave the instructions for the game step by step, and pausing between each step. Rachel gave crystal clear instructions by increasing her volume from time to time, repeating it at a reasonable pace and using body language. She also checked whether students understood it or not by saying "Okay?", "Any questions?" For another activity, she waited for students to open their weekly pack and then gave the instructions. She also asked whether they were ready for the exercise. For a more difficult task, she gave some strategies and the first two items in the exercise were done as a class, then students were given time to complete it individually. Lilly did the first exercise and asked for the class to do another one. Then she let the students work on their own to complete the exercise.

All in all, the instructors presented the tasks well. Although they did not use modeling technique frequently, or give reasons for the importance of the activities, students seemed to have understood and completed the tasks.

Increasing Learners' Goal-orientedness

Although weekly class objectives were posted on the walls in each class, none of the instructors reviewed them within the observed lessons. Lilly, Chloe, Olivia and Rachel mentioned what they were going to do on that day and introduced the goal of the lesson, but they did not refer to it in later stages of the lessons. Alison asked students about their motivation to learn. The students shared their ideas and the instructor tried to encourage them towards their goal. When one of her students shared her worries about not being able pass the exam, Rachel guided her by emphasizing she only needed to practice more and she could provide the student with rich sources. By this way, not only did she guide her towards her goal, but also encouraged her to try harder. Considering the observed lessons, it could be said that instructors did not show enough attempt to increase students' goal-orientedness.

Making the Learning Tasks Stimulating

One of the commonly used motivational strategies was the use of stimulating tasks. To do this, the instructors generally personalized the topics. Although students did not seem to have much information about some of the topics first, the instructors made the topic meaningful to them by helping the students associate the topic with their own lives through some questions. For example, Olivia first asked students to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of shopping at a grocery store (Erdal Bakkal) and at supermarket (Migros). Then she introduced students the term "globalization" and asked them to discuss its pros and cons. Lilly used students' names, their interests and personal information to teach defining relative clauses.

To arouse students' attention, they benefited from audio-visual aids. Most of them used authentic videos while some of them preferred picture slides. Chloe and Sophie used game like competitions as a fantasy element. Both competitions required students to go around the classroom to do the task and win the game in a given time. Sophie played a song which students liked in order to set the time limit for an activity. Rachel used background music while students were working together on a task. By playing a song and music, they made

the task more enjoyable. In Sophie's class, the students were asked to act as an agony aunt and find solutions to people's problems. As the task required students to solve a problem, they seemed to enjoy it a lot. In addition, all of the instructors used their charisma (i.e. their enthusiasm, dynamic teaching style, humor) in order to make the learning tasks more engaging.

The instructors generally changed their presentation format. Sometimes, they followed the book, and sometimes they used some extra materials. For example, Rachel asked students to create analogies and complete the sentence "Reading is similar to ... because" as a group after they read a text about analogies. She used a quote and then a tedtalk. In order to draw students' attention, she told students that she knew they loved tedtalk, and in this lesson they were going to watch a tedtalk before playing the tedtalk. In Emily's classroom, an excerpt of a TV-series was used to catch students' attention on the topic. Lilly and Alison used a video and paused it in the middle of it and asked students to guess what would happen next.

Although five of the instructors gave a time limit for the activities, just one of them, Rachel, used a timer and it really motivated the students by making the task more challenging. All in all, it was observed that the instructors tried to make learning tasks stimulating enough for students to get motivated about doing the tasks.

Familiarizing Learners with FL-Related Values

All the instructors used English all the time. Just to be sincere, or catch students' attention, Sophie and Rachel rarely used Turkish phrases like "canım", "çocuğum", "yani", "değil mi?", or the suffix "-cim". Olivia, Lilly, Emily and Sophie used authentic videos of native speakers such as a part of a real TV debate, a Tedtalk, part of a documentary, a scene from a popular sitcom. Alison used an academic journal article as an authentic reading text. She also told students about her little niece's acquisition of English in the USA. She drew students' attention on different contexts they were learning English, and the effects of it. Chloe showed some pictures consisting of cultural elements like cuisine, fine arts, folk dances, traditions, or traditional costumes of many different countries and asked students to compare and contrast them with their own culture. She also used an animation video about European and Italian culture, and asked students to compare it with their own culture again. Rachel used a quotation of an American politician on literature, but she did not give much information about that politician. Olivia gave international brand names as an

example to explain the topic “globalization” to the students. In Lilly’s class, students were discussing “peer pressure”. The instructor asked the Turkmen student what the case was in their education system. Sophie introduced the phrase “agony aunt” to the students by saying “Güzin Abla” in Turkey. She focused on the similarities between two cultures. Although there was not a specific focus on English-related values, all the instructors gave a place to them as much as possible.

Promoting Group Cohesiveness and Group Norms

In each of the classrooms, students were frequently encouraged to share their personal opinions or experiences about the topic mentioned. First, they were given background information about the topics, and then they were asked about how they felt about that. In all of the classes, students either worked in pairs or in groups of three or four from 15 minutes to 30 minutes in each lesson. In four of the classes, students worked in groups to complete a task together. Moreover, after an exercise on the book, the answers were mostly checked as a class in all of the classes.

In Rachel’s, Emily’s and Lilly’s classrooms, classroom rules were posted on the wall and both the instructor’s and the students’ signature was under it. In Rachel’s classroom, one of the students asked a question in Turkish and she answered to it in English, and then approached to the classroom rules poster by showing the rule written there and asked the student: “Mrs. Karaay, what was our rule number one?” by smiling. However, classroom rules were not mentioned in other classrooms.

In all of the classes, students seemed to know how they should behave in the classroom, and they worked collaboratively and cooperatively with their classmates. When they were asked about their opinions and experiences on a topic which made up a big part of the lessons observed, they did not hesitate to share.

Promoting Learner Autonomy

All of the instructors acted as a facilitator rather than the authority in the lessons. During group-work, or pair-work activities, they all went around the classroom and checked whether students were on task. During discussions, when students needed help to elaborate on the topic, they directed them by asking further questions, giving some related examples or ideas that could lead them to generate more ideas.

They used different scaffolding techniques. For example, when one of the students gave a wrong answer, Sophie gave him options to choose. In a similar case, Rachel gave some cues that could help the student to find the correct answer in the reading text. While checking students' written work, Alison read the students answer and paused where there was an error and waited for the student to correct her answer.

In Chloe's classroom, the students were asked to define culture, first they wrote their definitions. Then she showed them some definitions of culture and asked students to check if they could make any alterations in their definitions. Similarly, when one of the students asked the meaning of an idiom, Sophie asked to the whole class: "What does "bear" mean as a verb?", and after she got the answer she asked them "So "bear in your mind" means?". In Alison's classroom, the students looked interested in the topic very much and the instructor told them to check it on the internet by entering the key word "critical age hypothesis" if they are really interested.

In two of the classrooms, students were asked to compare their answers with their partners before the answers were checked as a class. Four of the instructors generally asked whether students agreed with their classmates' answer, or whether there were any different answers. As for giving choices to students, Chloe asked students to decide on the prize (chocolate or coffee) of the competition. Rachel asked students how much time they needed for the reading activity and set her time accordingly. Similarly, Olivia told students to start discussion when they were ready. In her class, students would like to listen to the recording again, then she gave reasons for why they were listening once and the importance of it, but accepted their offer. In Sophie's lesson, students were working in groups to find solutions to three people's problems. As the time limited, the instructor asked students to choose the problem which they would like to solve and report on.

In Rachel's classroom, the students shared their worries about the reading parts in the midterm. She learnt that her partner instructor recommended a book to the students and told students: "If you all have that book, we can build a schedule and check your answers." We can infer that the instructor took students' needs into consideration and involved them in running the lesson. In Sophie's class, students would like to listen to an English song as background music. She agreed and asked students to which song they would like to hear while they were on task.

At the end of the lesson, one of the instructors asked students about the factors that hinders their motivation and facilitated their motivation to come to prep school, but she did not comment on them much.

Through the end of the lesson, Alison asked students to write three words they had learnt in that session and asked them to pass it to the person next to them. They did the same thing several times and then they checked whether they learnt the words written on the card that they had just received. By this way, they assessed themselves.

Although instructors adopted the role of a facilitator in the lessons and encouraged peer teaching, or group presentation to a degree, they did not teach self-motivating strategies to the students. Within the observed lessons, they did not create enough opportunities for students to assess themselves or decide the design of the English course.

Findings of the Third Research Question

The third research question in this study is whether instructors' cognitions about their use of motivational strategies are compatible with their motivational teaching practices. To explore this, first teachers' cognitions were investigated through the use of *Motivational Strategies Questionnaire* and semi-structured interviews, and then the instructors' motivational practices were examined with the help of 14 hour of classroom observation. In this section, similarities and differences between the instructors' cognitions and practices will be presented.

When we look at the results of the questionnaire, it is seen that the highest mean score in both parts of the questionnaire belongs to "proper teacher behavior" strategy cluster ($M = 5.80$). In addition, all of the instructors claimed that they displayed proper teacher behavior in many different ways in the interviews (see Table 15). In a similar fashion, observations showed that all of the instructors acted properly and supported students as much as possible as they claimed. It was also observed that they cared about the students and formed a good relationship with them. They looked enthusiastic about teaching mostly. In the light of the findings, it can be suggested that the instructors' cognitions about their behavior in the class are quite parallel with their motivational practices.

When it comes to recognizing students' effort, the questionnaire results indicate that the instructors give a lot of importance to the recognition of students' effort ($M = 5.64$) and they quite often do it ($M = 5.21$). Likewise, during the interviews, all of the instructors claimed that they followed students' progress and level of participation regularly by giving feedback and praising. In the observed lessons, all of the instructors praised students' active participation in the class activities by thanking them simply or commenting on their responses positively. One of them used a reward as she claimed in the interview. Two of

the instructors gave brief feedback on the students' exam results. However, the instructors did not have a session with the students about their progress, or shared a chart of progress as they claimed. Based on this, it can be suggested that there are some clashes between instructors' cognitions and practices in terms of recognizing students' effort.

According to the results of the questionnaire, the second most frequently used motivational strategy cluster is "promote learners' self-confidence" ($M = 5.46$). The strategy cluster also comes second in the importance questionnaire ($M = 5.74$). The instructors asserted that they found the impact of self-confidence on students' progress highly important and they tried to boost students' self confidence in a variety of ways (see Table 15). As they claimed in the interview, it was observed that all the instructors avoided correcting students' mistakes directly while they were speaking. Either they ignored it, or they helped the students to correct themselves. After students' responses, no matter they were right or wrong, all of the instructors encouraged them mostly with positive feedback and sometimes with their body language. This practice supports their responses in the interview, as well. In addition to these, all the instructors stated that they taught learning strategies to students at the beginning of the term as it was in the first week's program; however, the observer could not see such practices as the observations took place through the end of the term. However, some of the instructors stated that they sometimes reminded students learning strategies when they found it necessary in that specific lesson. Out of seven instructors, three of them talked about these briefly in the class. All in all, it would not be wrong to state that there is mostly an overlap between instructors' cognitions and their practices with respect to promoting learners' self-confidence.

The strategy clusters of "create a pleasant classroom climate" and "promote learners' self-confidence" have the same mean scores ($M = 5.46$) in the frequency questionnaire. In the second part of the questionnaire, the mean score of "create a pleasant classroom climate" is 5.61. The mean scores suggest that the instructors find the strategies used to create a pleasant classroom climate very important and they employ them frequently. Similar to the questionnaire results, the interview results showed that the instructors believed the importance of creating a positive learning environment and they adopted many strategies to provide it for students (see Table 7). In similar fashion, when the observations were examined it was concluded that all the instructors tried to create a supportive learning environment by smiling frequently, using humor and encouraging students as they claimed. In addition, each instructor started their lessons with a short and interesting opening activity as they stated that they tried to do it frequently in the interviews. Based on this

evidence, it might be concluded that instructors' cognitions about their active role in promoting students' self-confidence and their actual practices are quite in line with each other.

As for presenting tasks properly, the questionnaire results show that the instructors find this strategy cluster highly significant with a mean score of 5.50 and they give the instructions properly very often ($M = 5.43$). The instructors' responses on how they presented tasks were presented in Table 8. It was observed that each of the instructors presented the tasks in the ways they reported doing in the interviews. For example, Chloe stated that she could make a student repeat the instructions after she gave it, and she did so in the observed lessons. When the interview and observation results given in the previous sections are examined, it is seen that there are not any significant differences between the instructors' cognitions and practices with respect to task presentation.

The questionnaire results show that one of the least frequently used strategy cluster is "increase learners' goal-orientedness" ($M = 4.86$). However, the instructors' cognitions about the importance of that cluster is much higher ($M = 5.36$). In the interviews, the instructors claimed that they tried to promote students' goal-orientedness sometimes by helping students to set their goals for the future, and setting learning goals for the students usually before an assignment or a task. On the other hand, it was observed that most of them did not use strategies to promote students' goal-orientedness as frequently as indicated by the questionnaire results. Although the mean score is relatively low when compared to many of the other strategy clusters, it still shows a high frequency and it may sign a mismatch as instructors did not frequently employ strategies to promote goal-orientedness in the observed lessons.

When it comes to making the learning tasks stimulating, the mean score of the frequency questionnaire is found as 5.17 while the mean score of the importance questionnaire is calculated as 5.50. The interview findings could explain the high mean scores as all of the instructors stated that they used a variety of sources and techniques to make the learning tasks interesting as much as possible. In the observed classrooms, it was detected that each instructor made use of an audio-visual aid in the lesson and differentiated their instruction as they claimed. Based on this evidence, it can be concluded that teachers' cognitions about their use of strategies to make the learning tasks stimulating is compatible with their actual classroom practices.

According to the results of the questionnaire, the second least used strategy cluster is named "familiarize learners with foreign language-related values" with a mean score of

4.55. In the interviews, all of the instructors stated that they did not have an intense session on culture, but they used authentic materials as much as possible. When the observations were analyzed, it was seen that five of the instructors made use of authentic materials in their lessons as they claimed. All of the instructors also stated that they gave a place to culture when the topic arose and the observation analysis correspondingly showed that they integrated cultural elements to their lesson when the topic was related as explained in the previous section. These findings reveal that there is a positive correlation between the instructors' cognitions and practices in terms of making students' familiar with cultural values.

In order to promote group cohesiveness and group norms, the instructors reported that they used some strategies very frequently ($M = 5.40$) and gave a similar level of importance to those strategies ($M = 5.43$). As indicated in Table 12, all of the instructors claimed that they used ice-breaker activities and set the classroom rules in the first lesson at the beginning of each term. However, the researcher did not have a chance to observe it as the observations were made through the end of the term. In addition to using ice-breakers and deciding on the classroom rules, each of the instructors also reported that they often used pair and group work activities in their lessons. In the observed lessons, each instructor organized pair and small group activities which lasted from 15 minutes to 30 minutes as they claimed in the interview. Therefore, it can be suggested that instructors' cognitions about group cohesiveness and group norms seem to be mostly in line with their practices.

According to the quantitative findings, the last and the least used motivational strategy cluster is "promote learners' autonomy" with the mean score of 4.38 although the instructors attach a lot of importance to it ($M = 5.48$). The two most common responses given in the interviews were acting as a facilitator and scaffolding students. In similar fashion, the instructors adopted the role of a facilitator and used scaffolding most of the time in the observed lessons. On the other hand, it was also observed that they did not provide students with many options to assess themselves or decide the design of the lesson. Considering all these, it can be concluded that there are some clashes between the instructors' practices and beliefs relative to promoting autonomy.

When the questionnaire findings are interpreted in the light of the interview findings and compared with the observation findings, it can be suggested that there is mostly satisfactory agreement between the instructors' cognitions about their use of motivational strategies and their actual use of these strategies. However, there are some mismatches between their cognitions and practices in terms of promoting autonomy and learners' goal-

orientedness. Table 14 below shows the stated beliefs and observed practices of the instructors. All in all, it can be concluded that instructors' cognitions about the use of motivational strategies are mostly in line with their motivational practices in the classroom.

Table 14

Instructors' Stated Beliefs (S) and Observed Practices (O)

	Alison		Chloe		Emily		Lilly		Olivia		Rachel		Sophie	
	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O	S	O
Be a good role model									✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Show you care about the students /Know student profiles well	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Be motivated/ enthusiastic about teaching									✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Build good rapport with the students	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Be yourself / Introduce yourself better	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓
Follow students' grades regularly			✓	✓			✓	x	✓	x				
Monitor students' effort	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	✓	✓	✓		
Hold face to face interview about their progress			✓	x					✓	x				
Use a chart to show students' progress							✓	x	✓	x				
Praise or give reward	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Maintain special eye contacts with students			✓	✓										
Teach learning strategies	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
Encourage students to try harder	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Give positive feedback					✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
Do not correct every mistake	✓	✓					✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓
Share your own experiences as a learner							✓	x						
Use a motivating quote/picture							✓	x						
Celebrate any success and ignore failures									✓	✓				
Be a colorful teacher trying different things			✓	✓	✓	✓								
Be open, supportive, friendly and approachable	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Appreciate humor	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Do not scold students, but smile frequently	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Start the lesson with an intriguing activity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Make little comments about their appearance									✓	✓				
Be simple and crystal clear	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Check whether students are clear about the instruction			✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Write/Project / Paraphrase/Repeat/ Explain step by step/ Give a time limit	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Encourage them to set realistic goals	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x			✓	✓	✓	x
Set certain goals for them and their projects etc							✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	x
Use a self-progress sheet							✓	x						
Use various materials& techniques for different learning styles	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Use their charisma/personality			✓	✓									✓	✓
Personalize the topic											✓	✓	✓	✓
Share your cultural experiences/knowledge	✓	✓	✓	x			✓	x			✓	x	✓	x
Encourage students to reach native speakers													✓	x
Use authentic cultural materials	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Invite senior students to share their experience	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x
Do not have a very rigid set of rules							✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Make use of reflections					✓	x								
Set the rules all together in the first lesson	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x
Use pair/group work activities frequently	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Be a facilitator / Scaffold	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Get feedback and organize the lesson accordingly									✓	x	✓	✓	✓	x
Try to give students options			✓	✓	✓	x			✓	x	✓	✓		
Encourage peer teaching											✓	✓		

Note: ✓ Stated/Observed , x Not Stated/Not Observed

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Interpretation of the Findings of the First Research Question

A growing body of literature has analyzed instructors' use of motivational strategies as it serves a pivotal role in boosting student motivation and making teaching practice more effective. One of the aims of the present study is to contribute to the current knowledge of instructors' cognitions about their use of motivational strategies, and both qualitative and quantitative analyses are made to this end. Overall, the self-reported findings indicate that the instructors have similar cognitions about their use of motivational strategies. This could be attributed to the teacher education (Borg, 2006) and shared institutional culture (Breen et al., 2001). As shown in Table 1, 6 out of 7 instructors hold a BA in ELT. In addition, 4 of them are graduates of Middle East Technical University while 2 of them are graduates of Hacettepe University. Moreover, all of the ELT graduates finish their undergraduate studies between 2005 and 2010 years. Therefore, it could be hypothesized that they are likely to have undergone a similar type of training in their undergraduate programs. Moreover, all of the instructors have been working in the same institution for more than 7 years, which could indicate that they have exposed to the same institutional culture. Based on this evidence, it could be suggested that the instructors' shared cognitions could stem from their higher education background and shared institutional culture.

Quantitative findings show that the instructors use the motivational strategies listed in Cheng and Dörnyei's questionnaire very frequently ($M = 5.17$) and they place a lot of importance on the use of these strategies ($M = 5.50$). The findings share a number of similarities with Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) and Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) findings.

To start with, proper teacher behavior is found to be the most important strategy cluster in this study, which coincides with the results of the other two studies. Although each study is carried out in three different contexts -Turkish, Hungarian, Taiwanese -, the fact that the instructors' cognitions about this macrostrategy are quite similar could suggest that instructors regard appropriate teacher behavior in the class as the most effective and powerful way to motivate their students. Another striking similarity is that five top-ranked strategies in the present study are nearly the same as those found in Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) Taiwanese study. These strategies include displaying appropriate teacher behavior, boosting students' self-confidence, recognizing students' effort, creating a pleasant atmosphere, and presenting tasks properly. There is only one difference in the rank order of importance. While recognizing effort comes second and promoting learners' self-confidence comes third in Taiwanese study, it is vice versa in the present study. Moreover, the five top-ranked strategies also correlate favorably well with Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) five top-ranked strategies with only one exception. Surprisingly, recognizing students' effort does not have a place in their "Ten Commandments" for motivating language learners while it is considered highly important in the current and Taiwanese study, which implies that the importance given to the recognition of students' effort may depend on context. Nevertheless, drawn upon these similarities, it could be proposed that "appropriate teacher behavior", "promoting learners' self-confidence", "creating a pleasant atmosphere", and "presenting tasks properly" are universally key principles in motivating language students. As Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) put forward, "these macrostrategies embody fundamentally important beliefs in teaching pedagogy and thus can be universally treated as central tenets for any sound teaching practice (p.169)". When it comes to promoting learners' self-confidence, the evidence we find indicates that instructors are well aware of their role in boosting learners' belief in themselves as also put forward in both Hungarian and Taiwanese studies. Another conclusion we could draw upon the quantitative findings is that instructors acknowledge the need to provide students with a positive learning environment where students feel secure and comfortable. This also fits well with Wong's (2013) study in which keeping students emotionally and socially safe is believed to be an effective motivational strategy. Consistent with the results of Hungarian and Taiwanese studies, the findings of the current study also indicate that instructors recognize the significant role of proper task presentation with clear instructions and rationale behind it. The findings seem to corroborate William and Burden's (1997) idea that instructors "should be clear in their minds why specific tasks have been selected and

careful to convey exactly what is required of the learners” (p.4). Likewise, making learning tasks stimulating; or in other words interesting, is found to be as important as presenting tasks properly in current study. This confirms previous findings in the literature which regard the concept of ‘interest’ as a notable factor in motivating students (e.g. Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; William & Burden, 1997). There is a very slight difference between the mean scores of 5th ranked strategies and the 6th ranked strategy “promote learner autonomy” (M-Diff = 0.02). Therefore, we can assert that instructors recognize the relationship between learner autonomy and motivation and attach importance to giving autonomy to students. This confirms Balçıkanlı’s (2010) and Yıldırım’s (2005) study in which most of the student teachers are found to favor the use of learner autonomy principles in their teaching. Promoting group cohesiveness and group norms comes next in the order of importance. The relatively high mean score suggests that instructors value the quality of the relationship among students and also group norms in the classroom. Similarly, many scholars acknowledge the key effect of group-cohesiveness and norms on classroom environment and suggest many ways to promote it in the class (e.g. Dörnyei & Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998). However, in Hungarian study the macrostrategy is not even among “Ten Commandments” and, in similar fashion, it comes ninth in Taiwanese study, which suggests that the importance of this strategy is perceived differently in various contexts because of cultural differences in learning and teaching. Like promoting group-cohesiveness, increasing the learners’ goal-orientedness is positioned in the second half of the rank order (and positioned sixth in Taiwanese and the ninth in Hungarian study). It can be asserted that some level of importance is attached to the role of goal setting in motivation of students, which is also supported by Dörnyei’s (1994) and Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) studies. Finally, the endorsement of familiarizing learners with FL-related values by the participating instructors seem to be insufficient when compared to the other macrostrategies since it has the lowest mean score. This matches well with Önalın’s (2005) study in which transmission of cultural information is found as not being a primary concern of the instructors working at preparatory schools in Turkey although the instructors value the presentation of FL-related values. It can thus be concluded that familiarizing learners with foreign or second language related values is slightly a neglected area.

The findings of the importance questionnaire are discussed above with some reference to the literature. Taking all these findings into consideration, it can be asserted that instructors have a high opinion of the ten motivational macrostrategies. In the following section, the findings of the importance and frequency questionnaires will be compared and interpreted in the light of interview findings, and discussed.

Table 15

Comparison of the Mean Score and Rank Order of the Macrostrategies in Importance and Frequency Questionnaires

	Importance		Frequency		Z - Diff
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	
Proper teacher behaviour	5.80	1	5.80	1	-0.05
Promote learners' self-confidence	5.74	2	5.46	2	-0.52
Recognize students' effort	5.64	3	5.21	5	-0.55
Creating a pleasant classroom environment	5.61	4	5.46	2	0.20
Present tasks properly	5.50	5	5.43	3	0.68
Make the learning tasks stimulating	5.50	5	5.17	6	0.09
Promote learners' autonomy	5.48	6	4.38	9	-1.55
Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	5.43	7	5.40	4	0.99
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	5.36	8	4.86	7	0.14
Familiarize learners with foreign language-related values	5.14	9	4.55	8	0.57

When we look at the rank order of the importance and frequency questionnaires presented in Table 15, it is clearly seen that “proper teacher behavior” comes first in both of the questionnaires. This can be justified by the interview findings in which the instructors highly emphasize the importance of appropriate teacher behavior and state that they do their best to display it by being a good model, showing that they care about the students and building trust with the students all the time. Based on this evidence, it can be asserted that instructors are well aware of their position as a motivator in the class and they tend to approach their students properly keeping that in their mind. Their responses also lend support to previous findings in the literature (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). This could be attributed to the assumption that appropriate teacher behavior is seen as the first necessary precondition to create the basic motivational conditions in the classroom (Dörnyei, 2001). In a similar fashion, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) highlight that teachers are the main “social figures who significantly affect the motivational quality of the learning process in positive or negative ways” (p.109). As one of the participants suggests, “I think we are the motivators in the classroom. If you are not in the mood,

showing the best video ever simply doesn't work." Therefore, it could be suggested that teachers value this strategy most because they see it as a prerequisite for the effectiveness of other motivational strategies. The strategy cluster "promote learners' self-confidence" holds the second position in both questionnaires. However, the negative z-difference indicates that this macro-strategy is underutilized with respect to its importance ($Z\text{-Diff} = -0.52$). When we compare the responses given in the interviews with the individual strategies relative to "promoting learners' self-confidence", it is identified that the instructors do not mention "designing tasks within students' ability" (item 11) in the interviews. A possible explanation for it may be the fact that classroom materials are supplied by material office and their level is most probably appropriate for students' ability. Although the instructors give importance to material adaptation, they may not have to design them by themselves. Besides, one of the instructors state that she would like to design tailor-made materials, but she does not have enough time for that. Time constraints and busy schedule can account for it. Another possible explanation for the underutilization of this macrostrategy could be about teaching learning techniques (item 36). During the interviews most of the instructors state that they teach learning techniques at the beginning of the term and they sometimes refer to them in the lessons. Due to time constraints, they may not have a chance to teach learning strategies in every lesson even though they attach importance to it. These two items in the questionnaire could partly explain the inconsistency between perceived importance and frequency.

Another underutilized macro-strategy appears to be "recognizing students' effort" ($Z\text{-Diff} = -0.55$) which could be attributed to instructors' already busy teaching schedule. The quantitative findings show that monitoring students' progress and celebrating their victory is the most underutilized strategy of this strategy cluster. Qualitative findings indicate that instructors value the effort students put in during the course of learning, but they could not recognize it as much as they wish because of tight schedule. As one of the participants mentions:

Honestly, from time to time I lose focus on what is going on around. We are so busy with some other things at work in addition to dealing with students. But when I see a hint in students' behavior or work, I can just recognize it. I cannot observe them overall, but when I see a hint, I can just encourage them to do more and I inform them about their progress.

Moreover, it is predictable to find a mismatch since some of the instructors claim that they hold interviews with students about their progress once a month or term out of class time.

Consequently, it is understandable to find a mismatch between importance and frequency questionnaire findings.

As can be seen in Table 15, the least-used and most underutilized macrostrategy is “promoting learner autonomy” with all the individual items within the scale having a negative frequency. The underutilization of these strategies can be justified by one of the instructors’ statement in which she remarks “I wish I could give more autonomy to my students. This is prep school; we have to follow a realistic plan. We have no other options, but if I can have options, I try to give it to students.” As also stated by many other instructors, although instructors recognize the significance of giving autonomy to students, they could not implement it sufficiently in their class due to the obligation to follow the standard program, standard tests prepared and administered by the test office, and the tight schedule. As Balçıkanlı (2010) suggests, “there are some constraining factors involved in the formal learning environment that may be viewed as hindrances to the development of learner autonomy” (p.98). The aforementioned contextual factors in the formal learning environment of the present study seem to hinder the instructors’ practices to develop autonomy in students. When we compare the results of the study with those of Taiwanese study, it is discovered that Taiwanese do not attach much importance to promoting learner autonomy and thus they use this strategy less frequently than the others. This indicates that teachers’ attitudes towards the concept of autonomy are context-dependent. While it is valued in Turkish and Hungarian contexts, it is not very approved in Taiwanese context.

“Familiarize learners with FL-related values” is the second least used motivational strategy. This could be attributed to item 7 and 19 in the questionnaire to a certain degree. Inviting senior students to share their English learning experiences (item 7) could not be a practice frequently applied (M-Diff = -1.40). In the interviews, instructors mention that they call senior students to the orientation programme held at the beginning of the first term and ask them to share their learning experience in preparatory school. Similarly, inviting English-speaking foreigners to class (item 19) appears to be inapplicable in the class since instructors teach English in EFL context and it is not very likely for them to find native speakers of English around (M-Diff = -2.97). In addition, one of the instructors comments that:

In Turkey, we lack pragmatics. That's what we lack. I have a cousin from Australia. When we talk, she says I'm like a very polite person coming from the royal family. I think it is because we don't teach students daily language...

She also added that: “In our reading book, we have culture notes. I really like that part because we also don't know about their culture a lot. Before the lesson, I read those culture notes and it helps me a lot.” These statements could imply that instructors could not frequently familiarize students with the cultural background of the target language since their knowledge of foreign culture is limited. As reported by Atay, Kurt, Çamlıbel, Ersin, and Kaslıoğlu (2009), Turkish teachers have some knowledge (neither too little, nor too much) about the history, daily life, music, traditions, literature, youth culture, education, and politics of the target culture. Moreover, their study supports the findings of the present study in that it concludes that Turkish EFL teachers hold positive attitudes towards the role of culture in foreign language education, but they sometimes use strategies to promote cultural awareness in their classroom.

Six of the macrostrategies in the list seem to be overused relative to the importance given to them, which is not surprising as the instructors highlighted the significance of them during the interviews. Most of the individual constituents of these macrostrategies in the questionnaire are found to be quite parallel with the instructors' main responses summarized in Table 14.

All in all, it can be concluded that quantitative findings and qualitative findings complement each other indicating that instructors find the use of motivational strategies very important and they believe that they employ these strategies in their instruction as much as possible. Moreover, when the results of the two questionnaires are compared and the findings of the questionnaires are interpreted in the light of the interview findings, it might be hypothesized that instructors mostly have a tendency to use the strategies that they perceive as more important more frequently.

Interpretation of the Findings of the Second Research Question

A challenging area in the field of motivation is to discover teachers' actual motivational practices. Most of the previous studies on motivational strategies have tended to heavily rely on self-reported data from teachers (e.g. Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), and thus their scope is limited in part. One of the aims of the current study is to contribute to narrow down this research gap by investigating what motivational strategies instructors actually employ in their classroom practices. In order to achieve this, each instructor is observed for two consecutive lesson hours and the results are presented in Chapter 4. In this section, the results will be interpreted.

Based on the overall observation results, it could be asserted that all of the instructors display appropriate teacher behavior most of the time. By looking at the quality of instructors' social chat with the students and also the way they approach students, it is clear that they establish good relationship with the students and they care about them. Most of them look energetic smiling, going around the class and keeping eye-contacts with the students while teaching, which suggests that they show enthusiasm for teaching. They also share personal stories, which may indicate that they behave in their usual manner.

It is also observed that instructors recognize students' effort mostly by giving positive feedback. However, the way they give feedback seems to be a mechanical response in some situations, which makes it apparently ineffective sometimes. They monitor students' progress and celebrate their victory mostly by praising and sometimes by a reward or class applause. These practices are in good agreement with those observed in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) study in which teachers use tangible rewards, effective praise and class applause for approximately 3 minutes on average in the lessons. In order to promote learners' self-confidence, the instructors generally encourage them to try harder verbally and provide them with positive feedback. Moreover, interestingly, all of them prefer not to correct the mistakes students make while speaking, which indicates that they highlight the importance of communicating meaning effectively rather than being grammatically correct. In addition, the tasks instructors use appear to be within the students' ability since students seem to be completing them without too much effort. Considering these practices, it could be asserted that instructors are good at promoting learners' self-confidence.

In the light of the observed classroom practices, it can also be claimed that students are provided with a pleasant classroom environment where they are not afraid of taking risks, bringing in humor and making mistakes. Moreover, students appear to understand and perform the tasks introduced by the instructors easily, which could imply that instructors present tasks properly. However, the instructors do not give the rationale behind doing specific tasks most of the time, which is parallel with the qualitative finding of Marashi and Ramin's study (2017) in which stating purpose and usefulness of an activity is found to be overlooked. The reason for that could be the limited time, or teachers' underestimation of the importance of the strategy.

Despite seeing many good practices of motivational strategies, increasing learners' goal-orientedness is found to be a neglected macrostrategy since few of the instructors encourage students to set learning goals effectively or help them develop realistic beliefs about their learning process during the observed lessons. Few of them mention the

objectives of the lesson briefly. In similar fashion, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) study shows that teachers use signposting for 0.55 minutes on average by stating the lesson objectives clearly and giving retrospective explanations of progress made towards the goals. Likewise, in Marashi and Ramin's study (2017) informing students about the lesson objectives is found to be an underused strategy in the qualitative part of the study. This could be attributed to the assumption that teachers may not have opportunity to allocate time for such practices due to the demanding requirements of that lesson, or they tend to ignore the use of this strategy since they believe that the standard curricula already outline the objectives and goals of the lessons. Öztürk and Ok's (2014) study reveals that students of English preparatory program in a state university attach low level of importance to the effect of this strategy on their motivation. This could be another reason why the instructors tend to skip giving the purpose of the task.

Instructors' use of audio-visual aids, games, intriguing topics and problem-solving activities and their continuous attempt to break the routine and personalize the topic could suggest that instructors try to make the learning tasks stimulating in various ways. Overall, it could be affirmed that the instructors make learning tasks stimulating enough for students to get motivated about doing the tasks. Their practices are similar to those reported in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) study which shows that teachers establish relevance between the topic and students' everyday life, arouse curiosity for upcoming activity, and use elements of creativity, fantasy, interest and intellectual challenge to make learning tasks stimulating.

The conclusion that instructors try to familiarize learners with foreign language-related values as much as possible can be justified by their use of English all the time, use of authentic materials, and discussion of culture-related topics. However, their practice seems to be limited in terms of promoting integrative and instrumental values, which is quite parallel with Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) finding that indicates the duration of teachers' promoting these values is only 0.08 minutes on average. Similarly, in Marashi and Ramin's study (2017), it is found that most of the teachers do not allocate time for these values in practice. Thus, it could be suggested that instructors tend to neglect the importance of promoting integrative and instrumental values, or they do not have much opportunity or classroom time to promote these values.

The instructors encourage students to talk about their personal experiences or thoughts most of the time. In addition, they ask them to discuss their opinions in small groups. It can thus be assumed that instructors try to promote group-cohesiveness and group norms by

allowing students to get to know each other better. In some classes, students are encouraged to complete a task together, which explains that instructors ask students to work toward the same goal. Those groups' working in harmony could lead us to the conclusion that instructors promote group cohesiveness. Similarly, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) and Marashi and Ramin's (2017) study indicate that teachers' use pair/group work activities, organize team competition, promote cooperation, ask students to create a tangible task product to promote group cohesiveness.

When it comes to promoting learners' autonomy, it is observed that instructors try to give students choices as much as possible and scaffold them most of the time. Although instructors adopt the role of a facilitator in the lessons and encourage peer teaching, or group presentation to a degree, they do not teach self-motivating strategies to the students. Within the observed lessons, they do not create enough opportunities for students to assess themselves or decide the design of the English course. In similar fashion, it is found in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) study that the duration of time on which teachers promote autonomy in one class hour is 0.66 minutes while they scaffold students for 1.10 minutes on average.

Interpretation of the Findings of the Third Research Question

Several studies in the field of education have highlighted the "symbiotic relationship" between teacher cognition and classroom practice (Foss & Kleinsasser, 1996, p. 441). Despite this interest, few scholars to best of our knowledge have studied the link between language instructors' cognitions and practices with respect to motivational strategies (e.g. Sil, 2017; Yang, 2015; Waddington, 2017). In an attempt to discover the relationship between them from a motivational aspect, the current study enquires whether the instructors' cognitions about the use of motivational strategies are compatible with their actual instructional practices. In order to find an answer to this research question, observational data is collected in addition to self-reported data since observation plays a key role in language teacher cognition research "by providing concrete descriptive basis in relation to what teachers know, think, and believe" (Borg, 2006, p.231).

The findings of the questionnaires and observations are presented and interpreted in the previous sections. Taking all the findings into account, it could be hypothesized that there is mostly a correspondence between instructors' cognitions about motivational strategies and their actual classroom practices relative to motivational strategies. This notion can be

justified by a considerable number of studies claiming a certain transfer of cognitions to classroom practices (e.g. Farrell & Kun, 2007; Flores, 2001; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Mangubhai et. al., 2004; Olson & Singer, 1994; Richardson, Anders, Tidwell & Lloyd as cited in Borg, 2006; Smith 1996; Xu, 2012). The correlation between reported beliefs and practices could be attributed to instructors' self belief systems as Olson and Singer (1992) assert that "teachers have belief systems that influence their teaching and those beliefs are generally consistent with classroom practice" (p.6). Similarly, Johnson (1992) argues that "ESL teachers who possess clearly defined theoretical beliefs provide literacy instruction which is consistent with their theoretical orientation" (p. 101). As implied, the reason behind the link could be the fact that the instructors' theoretical beliefs about motivational strategies form the basis of their motivational practices in the classroom. That could explain why the motivational strategies they use are quite parallel with their cognitions. Richardson et al. (as cited in Borg, 2006) assert that "for most cases, practices could be quite accurately predicted from belief interviews" (p. 140). Likewise, in the present study; instructors' claims on their use of motivational strategies, especially those stated during the interviews, are mostly proved to be true in the classroom observations. This can also justify the complementary effect of interviews on the interpretation of the questionnaire results. Another reason why this study mostly points to congruence between instructors' cognitions and practices might be the fact that the study is supplemented with additional forms of data deriving from interviews and observations. As Borg (2006) highlights that "theoretical profiling instruments may elicit beliefs about what should be the case, while less structured interviews, perhaps grounded in concrete classroom events, may be better able to elicit beliefs about instruction as it actually unfolds" (p.141). Overall, the present study provides additional support for the previous findings in the literature which indicates congruence between teacher cognition and practice relative to the use of motivational strategies (e.g. Marashi & Ramin, 2017; Sil, 2017).

Empirically, research into teacher cognition has indicated that teacher cognition plays a significant role in shaping classroom decisions and events (Borg, 2006) even though some studies are in contradiction to this notion (e.g. Burns & Knox, 2005; Choi, 2000; Ezzi, 2012; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Khonamri & Salimi, 2010; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Spada & Massey, 1992; Yang, 2015). While the congruence could be justified by teachers' belief systems (Olson & Singer, 1992), the discrepancy could be linked to external factors beyond their control such as social, psychological and environmental influences that exist in schools and classrooms and also to research methods

heavily relied on self-reported data (Borg, 2006). For instance, Duffy (1977) attributes the inconsistencies between stated beliefs and actual practices to contextual factors such as obligatory curricula, time, resources and student abilities. Similar to Duffy's (1977) claim, participants of the present study assert that they do not employ certain strategies in the classroom because of the mandated curriculum and program, time and resource constraints, and heavy workload although they recognize the effectiveness of the strategies. The discrepancy between the instructors' beliefs and practices relative to those strategies are caused by contextual factors. In similar fashion, Yang (2015) attributes the clashes in his study to teachers' conflicting beliefs and contextual constraints.

Moreover, Borg (2006) asserts that teacher cognition studies need to discover the way in which teaching practice is shaped by the interaction between cognition and context. When context takes priority over cognition, discrepancy between practices and cognition occurs. Conversely, if the cognition is superior to practice, consistency between practice and theoretical beliefs is observed. The congruence found in this study could thus be explained by the fact that instructors' cognitions mostly outweigh their teaching context. It could also be seen as a reflection of the instructors' belief systems which probably hold consistent set of beliefs that regulate how they perform in consistent manner. As for the discrepancy between cognitions and practices relative to certain motivational strategies, our study substantiates previous findings in the literature which indicate that contextual factors and constraints are effective in shaping the instructors' practices in the classroom and could lead to tensions between cognitions and practice. Returning to the third research question posed at the beginning of this study, it is now possible to state that instructors' cognitions about their use of motivational strategies and actual practices mostly concur well although there is some inconsistency with respect to few motivational strategies.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings that are compiled from the data regarding the EFL teachers' cognitions and practices of motivational strategies, the following implications are drawn and suggestions are made for the administrators, program developers, and other stakeholders.

First, findings indicate that there is mostly a correspondence between the instructors' cognitions and actual practices relative to the use of motivational strategies. If teachers have positive beliefs about motivational strategies, they are more likely to employ them in

their instructional practices. Therefore, it is suggested that in-service and pre-service teacher education programmes provide teachers or prospective teachers with opportunities to reflect on their teaching practices and beliefs by including awareness-raising tasks.

Second, the instructors seem to underuse certain macrostrategies including “promote learner autonomy”, “recognize students’ effort”, and “promote learners’ self-confidence” because of contextual factors such as limited time, obligation to follow the standard program and materials, and teachers’ lack of freedom to choose their way of assessment techniques. Therefore, program developers, curriculum designers, and other policy makers in teaching institutions are suggested to give more flexibility to teachers and take their ideas into consideration while designing the program. The policymakers could give more words to teachers while designing the curriculum and program.

Third, familiarizing learners with FL-related values is found as the second-least used macrostrategy in the questionnaire. One reason given in the interviews is that the instructors have limited pragmatic and cultural awareness. To this end, pre-service and in-service teacher training programs are suggested to aim to increase the pragmatic and cultural awareness of the teachers. For instance, some seminars, workshops, and field trips could be offered. Promoting learners’ goal-orientedness is another least-used strategy. One of the reasons voiced is the heavy workload. Therefore, the workload of the teachers could be moderated and more office hours could be held so that teachers can allocate more time for their students to discuss their goals. In addition, in-service teacher training programs could organize sessions on how to promote students’ goal-orientedness more effectively.

Limitations to the Study and Suggestions for the Future Research

The study is limited in several ways. First, it was conducted with 7 EFL instructors in one state university in Turkey; therefore, the study makes no claims that the participants are the representative of instructors elsewhere or the findings could be generalized to all tertiary level programs in other contexts. Similar studies could be carried out in different contexts like state schools, private schools, or different countries. The matches and mismatches between teachers’ cognitions and practices in such different contexts could be investigated and compared to address the issue from another perspective.

Another limitation is about the research methods used in this study. The questionnaire and the interviews provided limited understanding of instructors’ cognitions since they heavily relied on self-reported data. Likewise, during the observed periods, the instructors might

not have showed their typical teaching performance while being observed. In addition, observations were limited in number as each instructor was observed for two lesson hours. Instructors could have employed some other motivational strategies during the time period when they were not observed. Thus, a longitudinal study is recommended since it could provide a deeper understanding into the instructors' use of motivational strategies.

In addition, the study did not investigate the effectiveness of the motivational strategies. Further studies could look into the relationship between teachers' use of motivational strategies and students' reaction to those strategies.

Finally, further research into language teacher cognition and its impact on teachers' motivational practices is also required, as despite the present work highlighted here, our understanding of the relationship between teacher cognition and teachers' motivational strategy use is still relatively underdeveloped.

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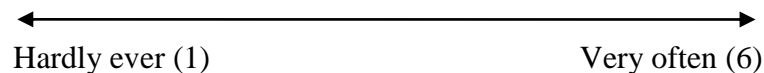
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Motivational Strategies Questionnaire(Frequency)

Below is a list of possible motivational strategies that some teachers use to motivate their learners. We would like to ask you to decide about each strategy how often you have used it in your own teaching practice. Thank you for your help!

Please mark a tick (✓) in the appropriate blank on the continuum between “Hardly ever (1)” to “Very often (6)”. Please only tick one space and answer all the questions.



		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Bring in and encourage humour and laughter frequently in your class.						
2	Show students that you respect, accept and care about each of them.						
3	Create opportunities so that students can mix and get to know each other better.						
4	Familiarize the learners with the cultural background of the English language.						
5	Explain the importance of the ‘class rules’ that you regard as important (e.g. let’s not make fun of each other’s mistakes) and how these rules enhance learning, and then ask for the students’ agreement.						
6	Give clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modelling every step that students will need to do.						
7	Invite senior students who are enthusiastic about learning English to talk to your class about their positive English learning experiences/successes.						
8	Monitor students’ accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory.						
9	Regularly remind students that the successful mastery of English is beneficial to their future (e.g. getting a better job or pursuing further studies abroad).						
10	Encourage students to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for themselves (e.g. learning 5 words every day).						
11	Design tasks that are within the learners’ ability so that they get to experience success regularly.						
12	Introduce in your lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting (e.g. about TV programmes, pop stars or travelling).						
13	Make tasks challenging by including some activities that require students to solve problems or discover something (e.g. puzzles).						
14	Teach the students self-motivating strategies (e.g. self-encouragement) so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions.						
15	Make sure grades reflect not only the students’ achievement but also the effort they have put into in the task.						
16	Ask learners to think of any classroom rules that they would like to recommend because they think those will be useful for their learning.						

		1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Show your enthusiasm for teaching English by being committed and motivating yourself.						
18	Break the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g. a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work).						
19	Invite some English-speaking foreigners as guest speakers to the class.						
20	Help the students develop realistic beliefs about their learning (e.g. explain to them realistically the amount of time needed for making real progress in English).						
21	Use short and interesting opening activities to start each class (e.g. fun games).						
22	Involve students as much as possible in designing and running the language course (e.g. provide them with opportunities to select the textbooks; make real choices about the activities and topics they are going to cover; decide whom they would like to work with).						
23	Establish a good relationship with your students.						
24	Encourage student participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant (e.g. group presentation or peer teaching).						
25	Give good reasons to students as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important.						
26	Try and find out about your students' needs, goals and interests, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible.						
27	Allow students to create products that they can display or perform (e.g. a poster, an information brochure or a radio programme).						
28	Encourage learners to try harder by making it clear that you believe that they can do the tasks.						
29	Give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed/ evaluated.						
30	Create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule.						
31	Display the 'class goals' on the wall and review them regularly in terms of the progress made towards them.						
32	Bring various authentic cultural products (e.g. magazines, newspapers or song lyrics) to class as supplementary materials.						
33	Make clear to students that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes.						
34	Notice students' contributions and progress, and provide them with positive feedback.						
35	Include activities that require students to work in groups towards the same goal (e.g. plan a drama performance) in order to promote cooperation.						
36	Teach students various learning techniques that will make their learning easier and more effective.						
37	Adopt the role of a 'facilitator' (i.e. Your role would be to help and lead your students to think and learn in their own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to them).						
38	Highlight the usefulness of English and encourage your students to use their English outside the classroom (e.g. internet chat room or English speaking pen-friends).						

		1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Motivate your students by increasing the amount of English you use in class.						
40	Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches your life.						
41	Avoid 'social comparison' amongst your students (i.e. comparing them to each other for example when listing their grades in public).						
42	Encourage learners to see that the main reason for most failure is that they did not make sufficient effort rather than their poor abilities.						
43	Make tasks attractive by including novel or fantasy elements so as to raise the learners' curiosity						
44	Encourage students to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks.						
45	Enrich the channel of communication by presenting various auditory and visual aids such as pictures, realia, tapes and films.						
46	Show students that their effort and achievement are being recognized by you.						
47	Try to be yourself in front of students without putting on an artificial 'mask', and share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes.						
48	Give students opportunities to assess themselves (e.g. give themselves marks according to their overall performance).						

Finally, would you please answer the following short questions:

1. Gender:

2. Age:

3. University and the department you received your Undergraduate Degree:

4. Year of Graduation:

5. Years of teaching experience:

6. Years of teaching experience in the current workplace:

7. Have you received a Master's degree?

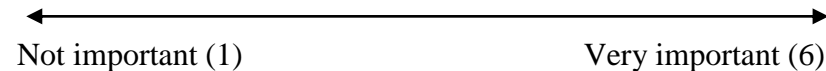
a) Yes b) No

If your answer is "Yes": University and the department you received your Master's Degree:

Appendix 2. Motivational Strategies Questionnaire(Importance)

Below is a list of possible motivational strategies that some teachers use to motivate their learners. We would like to ask you to decide about each strategy how important you believe it is in your own teaching practice. Thank you for your help!

Please mark a tick (✓) in the appropriate blank on the continuum between “Not important (1)” to “Very important (6)”. Please only tick one space and answer all the questions.



		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Bring in and encourage humour and laughter frequently in your class.						
2	Show students that you respect, accept and care about each of them.						
3	Create opportunities so that students can mix and get to know each other better.						
4	Familiarize the learners with the cultural background of the English language.						
5	Explain the importance of the 'class rules' that you regard as important (e.g. let's not make fun of each other's mistakes) and how these rules enhance learning, and then ask for the students' agreement.						
6	Give clear instructions about how to carry out a task by modelling every step that students will need to do.						
7	Invite senior students who are enthusiastic about learning English to talk to your class about their positive English learning experiences/successes.						
8	Monitor students' accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory.						
9	Regularly remind students that the successful mastery of English is beneficial to their future (e.g. getting a better job or pursuing further studies abroad).						
10	Encourage students to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for themselves (e.g. learning 5 words every day).						
11	Design tasks that are within the learners' ability so that they get to experience success regularly.						
12	Introduce in your lessons various interesting content and topics which students are likely to find interesting (e.g. about TV programmes, pop stars or travelling).						
13	Make tasks challenging by including some activities that require students to solve problems or discover something (e.g. puzzles).						
14	Teach the students self-motivating strategies (e.g. self-encouragement) so as to keep them motivated when they encounter distractions.						
15	Make sure grades reflect not only the students' achievement but also the effort they have put into in the task.						
16	Ask learners to think of any classroom rules that they would like to recommend because they think those will be useful for their learning.						

		1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Show your enthusiasm for teaching English by being committed and motivating yourself.						
18	Break the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g. a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work).						
19	Invite some English-speaking foreigners as guest speakers to the class.						
20	Help the students develop realistic beliefs about their learning (e.g. explain to them realistically the amount of time needed for making real progress in English).						
21	Use short and interesting opening activities to start each class (e.g. fun games).						
22	Involve students as much as possible in designing and running the language course (e.g. provide them with opportunities to select the textbooks; make real choices about the activities and topics they are going to cover; decide whom they would like to work with).						
23	Establish a good relationship with your students.						
24	Encourage student participation by assigning activities that require active involvement from each participant (e.g. group presentation or peer teaching).						
25	Give good reasons to students as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important.						
26	Try and find out about your students' needs, goals and interests, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible.						
27	Allow students to create products that they can display or perform (e.g. a poster, an information brochure or a radio programme).						
28	Encourage learners to try harder by making it clear that you believe that they can do the tasks.						
29	Give students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed/ evaluated.						
30	Create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate where students are free from embarrassment and ridicule.						
31	Display the 'class goals' on the wall and review them regularly in terms of the progress made towards them.						
32	Bring various authentic cultural products (e.g. magazines, newspapers or song lyrics) to class as supplementary materials.						
33	Make clear to students that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes.						
34	Notice students' contributions and progress, and provide them with positive feedback.						
35	Include activities that require students to work in groups towards the same goal (e.g. plan a drama performance) in order to promote cooperation.						
36	Teach students various learning techniques that will make their learning easier and more effective.						
37	Adopt the role of a 'facilitator' (i.e. Your role would be to help and lead your students to think and learn in their own way, instead of solely giving knowledge to them).						
38	Highlight the usefulness of English and encourage your students to use their English outside the classroom (e.g. internet chat room or English speaking pen-friends).						

		1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Motivate your students by increasing the amount of English you use in class.						
40	Share with students that you value English learning as a meaningful experience that produces satisfaction and which enriches your life.						
41	Avoid 'social comparison' amongst your students (i.e. comparing them to each other for example when listing their grades in public).						
42	Encourage learners to see that the main reason for most failure is that they did not make sufficient effort rather than their poor abilities.						
43	Make tasks attractive by including novel or fantasy elements so as to raise the learners' curiosity						
44	Encourage students to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks.						
45	Enrich the channel of communication by presenting various auditory and visual aids such as pictures, realia, tapes and films.						
46	Show students that their effort and achievement are being recognized by you.						
47	Try to be yourself in front of students without putting on an artificial 'mask', and share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes.						
48	Give students opportunities to assess themselves (e.g. give themselves marks according to their overall performance).						

Finally, would you please answer the following short questions:

1. Gender:

2. Age:

3. University and the department you received your Undergraduate Degree:

4. Year of Graduation:

5. Years of teaching experience:

6. Years of teaching experience in the current workplace:

7. Have you received a Master's degree?

a) Yes b) No

If your answer is "Yes": University and the department you received your Master's Degree:

Appendix 3. Strategy Observation Scheme

Observed Participant :
 Subject :
 Number of the Students :

Date:
 Time:

Motivational Strategies	Observed Motivational Practice
1. Proper teacher behavior	
2. Recognise students' effort	
3. Promote learners' self-confidence	
4. Create a pleasant classroom climate	
5. Present tasks properly	

10. Promote learner autonomy	
9. Promote group cohesiveness and group norms	
8. Familiarize learners with FL-related values	
7. Make the learning tasks stimulating	
6. Increase learners' goal-orientedness	

Appendix 4. Interview Questions

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Participant No:

Date:

Duration of the Interview:

1. Do you think you are a good motivator in the classroom?
2. What do you think about the role of teachers' behavior in motivating students?
 - How do you usually behave in the classroom to motivate students?
3. How important do you think recognizing students' effort to motivate students?
 - How do you recognize your students' effort?
4. What do you think about promoting learners' self-confidence?
 - How do you promote students' self-confidence?
5. Can you tell me how you create a pleasant classroom environment?
 - Do you think classroom environment has an effect on student motivation?
6. How important do you think presenting tasks?
 - In what ways do you present tasks?
7. What do you think about increasing students' goal orientedness?
 - How do you increase students' goal-orientedness?
8. In what ways do you make the learning tasks stimulating?
 - What do you think about the importance of using stimulating tasks?
9. How do you feel about the use of cultural elements in the classroom?
 - How do you familiarize students' with FL-related values?
10. What do you think about the importance of promoting group cohesiveness and group norms?
 - In what ways do you promote group cohesiveness and group norms?
11. Can you tell me how you promote students' autonomy?
 - How important do you think promoting autonomy?
12. Are there any factors that restrict your motivational practices?
 - Can you tell me more about these factors?

Appendix 5. Informed Consent Form (Turkish)

KATILIMCILAR İÇİN BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ OLUR FORMU

Sizi, “Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğreten Öğretim Görevlilerinin Motivasyon Stratejilerine İlişkin İnançları ve Uygulamaları Üzerine Bir Araştırma” başlıklı araştırmaya davet ediyoruz. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmadan çıkma hakkına sahipsiniz. Bu çalışmaya katılmanız için sizden herhangi bir ücret istenmeyecektir. Çalışmaya katıldığınız için size ek bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır. Çalışmadan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak olup, kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır.

Araştırmanın İçeriği

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğreten öğretim görevlilerinin sınıfta kullandıklarını düşündükleri ve gerçekte kullandıkları motivasyon stratejileri arasındaki ilişkinin araştırılmasını amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada, veri toplamak için bir anket kullanılacak olup, her katılımcı için 2 ders saati sürecek olan sınıf gözlemleri ve yarı yapılandırılmış bireysel görüşmeler yapılacaktır. Katılımcıların onayı ile görüşme ve gözlemlenen derslerde ses ya da video kaydı yapılacaktır.

Katılımcı Beyanı

“İngilizce Okutmanlarının Motivasyon Stratejilerine İlişkin İnançları ve Uygulamaları Üzerine Bir Araştırma” başlıklı araştırmanın yapılacağı belirtilerek bu araştırma ile ilgili yukarıdaki bilgiler tarafıma aktarıldı. Bu bilgilendirmeden sonra, araştırmaya katılımcı olarak davet edildim. Bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğim takdirde gerek araştırma yürütülürken gerekse yayımlandığında kimliğimin gizli tutulacağı konusunda güvence aldım. Bana ait verilerin kullanımına izin veriyorum. Araştırma sonuçlarının eğitim ve bilimsel amaçlarla kullanımı sırasında kişisel bilgilerimin dikkatle korunacağı konusunda bana yeterli güven verildi. Araştırmanın yürütülmesi sırasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden çekilebilirim. Araştırma için yapılacak harcamalarla ilgili herhangi bir parasal sorumluluk altına girmiyorum. Bana herhangi bir ödeme yapılmayacaktır. Araştırma ile ilgili bana yapılan tüm açıklamaları ayrıntılarıyla anlamış bulunmaktayım. Bu çalışmaya hiçbir baskı altında kalmadan kendi bireysel onayım ile katılıyorum”

Katılımcı Adı ve Soyadı

Tarih ve İmza

Adres ve Telefon

Araştırma Yürütücüsünün Adı ve Soyadı :

Tarih ve İmza

Adres ve Telefon

Appendix 6. Informed Consent Form (English)

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

We invite you to participate in the research study named “An Investigation into EFL Instructors’ Beliefs and Practices Regarding the Use of Motivational Strategies”. Participation in this study is purely voluntary. You have the right not to participate in the study or to quit the study at any time after participating. You will not be charged or paid for participating in this study. The information obtained from the study will be used for research purposes and your personal information will be kept confidential.

Content of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the link between EFL Instructors’ beliefs and practices relative to the use of motivational strategies. The data collection procedure includes the administration of a questionnaire, conducting a semi-structured interview and making classroom observations, which will take 2 hours of visitation. Observations and interview will be digitally recorded with the approval of the participants.

“I was informed about the research study named “An Investigation into EFL Instructors’ Beliefs and Practices Regarding the Use of Motivational Strategies” and the participation conditions to the study. After that, I was invited to participate in the research. I have been assured that if I agree to participate in this study, my identity will be kept confidential both when the research is conducted and when it is published. I allow the use of my data. I have been given sufficient confidence that my personal information will be carefully protected during the use of the research results for educational and scientific purposes. I can withdraw without giving any reason during the investigation. I do not assume any monetary responsibility for the expenditures to be made for the research. I can't be paid either. I have fully understood all the explanations made to me about the research. I agree to participate in the study with my own personal approval.”

Name and Surname of the Participant

Date and Signature

Address and Phone

Name and Surname of the Researcher:

Date and Signature

Address and Phone



GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR...