Motivational Strategies in the Secondary School EFL Classroom: The Case of Ecuador

Andrzej Cirocki
(Andrzej.Cirocki@york.ac.uk)
University of York, UK

Sandy T. Soto
(stsoto@utmachala.edu.ec)
Technical University of Machala, Ecuador

Maria Asuncion Rojas Encalada
(marojas@utmachala.edu.ec)
Technical University of Machala, Ecuador

Ketty Vanessa Honores Cuenca
(07h00127@gmail.com)
Simon Bolivar Baccalaureate School, Ecuador

Abstract

This contribution reports on a study of the motivational strategies used in the English as a foreign language classroom in Ecuador. The sample consisted of secondary school teachers (*N*=80) and students (*N*=350) who were recruited randomly. Using a mixed-methods approach – a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview – the results revealed an interesting picture of motivational strategies. Specifically, the findings disclosed that the teachers used six categories of motivational strategies in their pedagogical practice. The degree of utilisation of each category varied from high to low. The most frequent category was *Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours,* whereas the least common was *Promoting Learner Autonomy*. Of the six categories used by the teachers, the three that students found most motivating were *Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group, Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities* and *Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours*. The study also revealed that the students wished to be exposed to more diverse motivational strategies, especially those from the *Promoting Learner Autonomy, Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation* and *Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive* categories. The teachers agreed with the students' choices; yet their preferences for motivational strategy categories were sequenced differently.

1   Introduction

Dozens of definitions and theories of motivation have been proposed in the past four decades (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), evidencing the continuous evolution of this concept both in psychology and education. For example, motivation has been presented as a complex psychological construct, defined as "the effort, want (desire) and affect associated with learning a […] language" (Gardner,

1985, p. 147). It has also been described as an abstract concept that not only includes a variety of cognitions and affects (Boekaerts, 1995), but also explains "why people think and behave as they do" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 2). More recently, motivation has been presented as a complex social-constructivist mechanism of interacting forces of a biological, emotional, social and cognitive nature that activate human behaviour (Nakata, 2006; Nevid, 2013).

Whichever approach emerged as dominant at whatever time, motivation has always been considered a factor that determines success in language learning (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001; Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016; Ushioda, 2013). Some suggest that certain types of motivation are more important in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) than English as a Second Language (ESL) contexts. For example, Dörnyei argues that instrumental motivation (resulting from the need to use the target language for communication) is of greater importance to EFL learners than integrative motivation (resting on a desire to interact with, as well as become a member of, the target language community). This is largely because EFL learners have insufficient experience with the target language community and are not driven to blend with target language speakers (Dörnyei, 1990).

It is important to note that schools – their curricula and the nature of the teaching and learning environment – and teachers play important roles in stimulating student motivation and engagement. Teachers are particularly important, as they usually affect students' motivation by engaging in both formal and informal social interactions, offering appealing content and assignments, building a welcoming and safe classroom climate, and implementing curricula in a challenging, exploratory, relevant, innovative and enjoyable fashion. All these aspects were considered in the context of the current study, Ecuador, where a new English language curriculum is being implemented. The overarching purpose of the new curriculum is to motivate teenagers to learn English to become competent users as well as consumers of the language in international communicative exchanges.

The current study was stimulated by both formal and informal conversations with secondary school EFL teachers during continuing professional development workshops in Ecuador. These teachers had lamented their students' lack of interest and low motivation. The study adopted a sequential explanatory design, the quantitative stage of which was based on a questionnaire focused on 37 motivational strategies compiled from empirical projects by Guilloteaux (2013) and Sugita McEown and Takeuchi (2014). The purpose of the study was threefold: (1) to establish the repertoire of motivational strategies that Ecuadorian teachers use in the classroom, (2) to ascertain which of these strategies students report as effective and motivating and (3) to identify what motivational strategies Ecuadorian teachers should use more often to enhance their students' engagement in the teaching-learning process.

Consequently, this article explores the construct of motivational strategies. At the outset, it defines the concept and briefly presents major classifications of motivational strategies. It then reviews various empirical projects that focus on motivational strategies and mainly relate to the English language classroom. Next, it reports the findings of the mixed-methods study carried out in Ecuador. The article ends with implications for classroom instruction and teacher education.

2 Motivational strategies

Motivation is considered one of the key factors in language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Lasagabaster, Doiz, & Sierra, 2014; Ushioda, 2013). It is believed to give "the primary impetus to initiate second or foreign language … learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, pp. 55–56). For this reason, teachers and students alike repeatedly report that insufficient motivation is the primary cause of failure in language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Kikuchi, 2015; Kim, 2009). It is therefore vital that teachers create and sustain high levels of learner motivation. To achieve this, they should systematically utilise diverse motivational strategies.

Motivational strategies are defined as instructional techniques, approaches, tactics or interventions employed "to consciously generate and enhance student motivation, as well as maintain ongoing motivated behaviour and protect it from distracting and/or competing action tendencies" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 103). This definition has its roots in Dörnyei's earlier works, published in the 1990s and 2001.

Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy of motivational strategies – validated empirically by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), and Sugita McEown and Takeuchi (2010), to name but a few – is regarded as the most rigorous and systematic in the literature, and was therefore chosen to guide the current study. It consists of four main dimensions (Table 1).

Table 1. Four dimensions of motivational strategies (adapted from Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 58)

DIMENSIONS	
Creating basic motivational conditions	Establishing a good teacher-student rapport, creating a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and generating a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.
Generating initial motivation	"Whetting the students' appetite" by using strategies designed to (a) increase the learners' expectancy of success, and (b) develop positive attitudes toward the language course and language learning in general.
Maintaining and protecting motivation	Promoting situation-specific task motivation (e.g. through the use of stimulating, enjoyable, and relevant tasks), providing learners with experiences of success, allowing them to maintain a positive social image even when communicating with a severely limited language code, and promoting learner autonomy.
Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation	Promoting adaptive attributions, providing effective and encouraging feedback, increasing learner satisfaction, and offering grades in a motivational manner.

There are several other classifications distinct from Dörnyei's, but since they do not guide the current project, they will receive only brief attention here. For example, Williams and Burden's (1997) classification, also designed with language teachers in mind, is based on the social constructivist theory of learning. Lamb and Wedell (2015) focus on motivational strategies in the English language classroom through the lens of inspirational pedagogy and inspiring teachers. The general education literature, on the other hand, offers various options, including the discussion of motivational strategies in practical terms, the combination of theory and research, and/or more traditionally, a blend of theory, research and practice. Some useful sources include: Keller (2010), Schunk, Meece and Pintrich (2013), and Wentzel and Brophy (2014).

The classifications above are rather complicated and comprise many strategies, because both language learners and teaching contexts vary. Some strategies work with some learners and others are only applicable to certain contexts. It can therefore be inferred that the effectiveness of motivational strategies depends on complex interactions among distinct contextual variables, such as approaches to learning and teaching, or teachers' personalities, to name two (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). As a result, more empirical studies are required to give detailed information about the use of motivational strategies in individual teaching contexts, including Ecuador, hence the current project.

3   Empirical studies on motivational strategies

The empirical literature regarding motivational strategies shows that the concept has gained importance in language education and educational psychology. There are more and more sources available, many underpinned by solid empirical projects. There are several studies based on Dörnyei's aforementioned taxonomy of motivational strategies. What distinguishes them from one another is their research focus. For example, Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) large-scale study (N=387) focused

on the use of motivational strategies in the Taiwanese EFL classroom. In their survey, Cheng and Dörnyei presented a list of motivational strategies and asked their teacher participants to rate two aspects: (1) how much importance they paid to the individual strategies and (2) how often they implemented them in their own teaching. The study revealed that "Setting a Personal Example with their own Behaviour" and "Recognising Students' Effort and Celebrating their Success" were two of the macro-strategies that Taiwanese teachers found most important. Regarding the frequency of the implementation of the ten macro-strategies included in the survey, "Demonstrating Proper Teacher Behaviour" was ranked first, whereas "Promoting Learner Autonomy" came last.

Since Cheng and Dörnyei used a modified survey from Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study conducted in Hungary, the findings also indicated that some motivational strategies were transferable across diverse teaching contexts, whereas others were culture-sensitive. A similar comparison, but with a broader scope (involving five countries: China, Taiwan, Hungary, Japan and Oman) was made by Wong in 2014. She concluded her project stating that "no single motivational strategy … was viewed as effective across different EFL contexts" (Wong, 2014, p. 145), which only partially concurred with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) observations.

Dörnyei's taxonomy of motivational strategies was also utilised to measure the correlation between teachers' observed use of motivational strategies and students' language learning motivation in the South Korean English language classroom. In a project involving 27 teachers and over 1,300 students, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) collected the data using a self-report questionnaire and a classroom observation instrument labelled "the motivation orientation of language teaching" (MOLT) scheme, followed by a post-hoc rating scale, completed by the observer. The results suggested that the English language teachers' motivational classroom practices were directly connected with the enhanced levels of both the students' motivational state and their engagement in the classroom. Similar observations regarding students' motivational state and behaviour were later made in Iran by Papi and Abdollahzadeh (2012). The researchers reported that Iranian students' motivated behaviour was significantly affected by their teachers' motivational practices.

Similarly, the influence of motivational strategies used by teachers on English language learners' self-reported learning motivation was investigated by Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini and Ratcheva (2012). In this project, a quasi-experimental design was employed. The experimental treatment spanned an eight-week period, during which Saudi EFL learners (*N*=296) were exposed to ten preselected motivational strategies. The experiment showed that teachers' motivational behaviours led to a significant increase in learner motivation in both experimental and control groups.

Finally, in a controlled quasi-experimental study, Alrabai (2016) quantified the effects of motivational strategies on Saudi EFL learners' motivation and achievements. The experiment revealed that the motivation-oriented intervention in the experimental group brought about enhanced levels of learner motivation. On closer inspection, the enhanced learner motivation was seen to lead on to higher achievements among learners in the experimental group compared with those in the control group. Other studies reporting on a close relationship between students' motivation and learning achievements include Bernaus and Gardner (2008), Bernaus, Wilson and Gardner (2009), and Lasagabaster (2011).

All these studies have made an important contribution to the field. Some found positive correlations between teachers' motivational pedagogical practices and learners' learning motivation and achievements. Some also showed learners' increased engagement in the classroom. Some suggest that EFL teachers do succeed in enhancing their students' motivation.

There are also motivational strategies studies that do not follow Dörnyei's framework. Although these are not directly related to the current project, their contribution to the existing literature must not be ignored, especially when they produce intriguing findings which differ from those already discussed. In one project, conducted in South Korea, Maeng and Lee (2015) employed Keller's model of learning motivation to identify strategies used by in-service English language teachers. The study found that less experienced teachers tend to use more motivational strategies than more experienced instructors. In a different project, conducted in China and Indonesia, Lamb and Wedell (2015) asked EFL learners to describe inspiring language teachers they had had in the past. The

learners were encouraged to reflect on these teachers' pedagogical qualities, which enabled the researchers to identify aspects of L2 pedagogy with a long-term motivational impact. Some of the nominated teachers were later visited and observed in the classroom. The findings revealed that Indonesian learners value teachers who conduct entertaining classes, whereas Chinese learners prefer teachers who offer interesting content. The study also indicated that a teacher's personality is likely to have a major long-term impact on students' motivation to learn.

As the scope of this section is rather limited, it must be clarified that there are other projects that focus on motivational strategies. Some of these studies found positive correlations between teachers' motivational classroom practices and learners' engagement (Ekiz & Kulmetov, 2016), classroom participation and interaction (Frisby & Martin, 2010; Gascoigne, 2012) and increased learning satisfaction (Wu, Wu, & Tasi, 2014) more generally.

In light of the undeniable importance that motivational strategies have in the teaching-learning process, the need to establish repertoires of motivational strategies for English language teachers in specific teaching contexts, and particularly in developing countries where English language teaching is not satisfactory, is clear. Research on motivational strategies in EFL contexts in Latin America is scarce, hence the current project. The present study is the first phase of a larger research project and seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What motivational strategies do Ecuadorian secondary school EFL teachers employ in the teaching-learning process?
2. Which of the motivational strategies used by teachers do Ecuadorian secondary school EFL learners find motivating?
3. What motivational strategies should be utilised more often in the Ecuadorian secondary school EFL classroom to enhance learner engagement?

4   Research methodology

Utilising a mixed-methods approach, the study adopted a sequential explanatory design (Creswell, 2003; Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). The data were collected in two consecutive stages: quantitative and qualitative. The purpose of using quantitative and qualitative methods in combination, synthetic interpretative methodology, was twofold: (1) to document both objective and subjective information, thus ensuring greater validity; and (2) to achieve greater completeness by illustrating the rather dry numerical findings with more descriptive qualitative quotes from interviewees (Bryman, 2006). Combining the two methods additionally allowed for harnessing the strengths and counterbalancing the weaknesses of both ways of collecting data.

The research design the study followed was regarded as fixed (Bryman, 2006). This means that the order of the quantitative and qualitative methods, as well as the various empirical procedures within the project, were precisely determined before the research process began. In addition to the fixed design, the quantitative data were given methodological dominance in the study. Such dominance was mainly determined in relation to the research questions. As a result, the quantitative data were given priority as the main source of data, whereas the qualitative data played a subservient role (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003).

4.1   Participants

The sample was generated from randomly chosen EFL students and teachers (N=430) from secondary schools in the south of Ecuador. There were 164 (n=164; 38%) male and 266 (n =266; 62%) female participants in the sample. All of them were Ecuadorian.

In the teachers' group (N=80), the participants' ages fell into five categories, the most common being 40–49 (n=34; 42.5%). The participants held BA (n=64; 80%) and MA (n=11; 14%) degrees, as well as teaching certificates (n=5; 6%). Their teaching experience varied in length, yet the most common bracket ranged from 11 to 15 years (n=32; 40%). The participants came from urban (n=55; 69%) and rural (n=25; 31%) schools.

The student participants (*N*=350) were enrolled in the 11th-grade urban (*n*=220; 63%) and rural (*n*=130; 37%) schools. Their English language learning experience varied. Some had attended English language classes in primary and secondary schools, but some had started at the secondary level due to an acute shortage of teachers.

4.2 Data collection

Two instruments were employed to collect the data: the questionnaire (*N*=430) and the semi-structured interview (*N*=48). The questionnaire, translated into Spanish, consisted of three sections, each containing a list of 37 items presented on a four-point Likert scale (-2 = strongly disagree, -1 = disagree, 1 = agree, 2 = strongly agree). The items were arranged into six categories of motivational strategies: (1) Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours, (2) Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation, (3) Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities, (4) Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group, (5) Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive and (6) Promoting Learner Autonomy. The neutral option was not included on the scale as Ecuadorian respondents tend strongly to select the middle option. The questionnaire items were either borrowed from or modelled on those included in the surveys used by Guilloteaux (2013) and Sugita McEown and Takeuchi (2014). Some of the items were simplified in terms of language and adjusted to the local context. In total, 430 questionnaires were returned, 350 in the student and 80 in the teacher groups.

The semi-structured interview was based on four questions, yet the probing procedure varied from one participant to another. It was conducted in Spanish, the first and preferred language of the participants. Altogether, 48 participants (28 students and 20 teachers) gave interviews. The purpose of using semi-structured interviews was to explore motivational strategies, how teachers promoted them and what impact they had on students. The second instrument was particularly advantageous, for it encouraged greater "spontaneity, involvement, and thoroughness of responding" (Kerr, Aronoff, & Messe, 2000, p. 181).

4.3 Data analysis

The two instruments generated a large amount of data. The quantitative data were analysed statistically, using PQStat (version 1.6.6.202). Descriptive statistics such as the mean (M) and the standard deviation (SD) were calculated and tabulated first. Then, the Mann-Whitney U test, the Kruskal-Wallis test, Spearman's coefficient and Kendall's tau coefficient were employed to measure the relationships between specific variables. The level of significance selected was *p*<0.05, whereas highly significant differences were observed when *p*<0.001.

By contrast, the qualitative data were analysed using thematic coding. The purpose of the thematic analysis was not only to identify and analyse themes in the dataset, but also to understand the meanings that teachers and students gave to their lived experiences in the classroom. The process of content analysis involved three steps: (1) identifying the main themes in relation to the research questions, (2) classifying responses under the main themes and, finally, (3) integrating themes and responses into a research report presented in Section 5. To illustrate and bring to life the various points being made in Section 5, several quotes from participants were included.

Participants' anonymity was ensured by replacing their names with letter-and-number-based codes. Two types of codes were used: one for teachers (T) and one for students (S). For example, T5 meant teacher number five and S3 meant student number 3.

5 Results

This section presents empirical findings that answer the three research questions guiding the project. For the sake of clarity, the three issues are discussed under separate headings below.

5.1   *Strategies used to motivate students to learn English*

According to the gathered data, Ecuadorian teachers used a range of motivational strategies in the classroom. They can be arranged into the six categories listed above (see 4.2). In descending order, the categories are listed as follows (Table 2):

Table 2. Categories of motivational strategies used by teachers

Categories of motivational strategies	M	SD
Displaying appropriate teacher behaviours	0.86	0.54
Creating a friendly classroom atmosphere and a cohesive learner group	0.81	0.60
Selecting and presenting instructional activities	0.76	0.61
Making learning stimulating and attractive	0.40	0.43
Encouraging positive self-evaluation	0.26	0.63
Promoting learner autonomy	-0.21	0.47

As the data show, some categories were quite popular, whereas others were used very rarely. The most popular instances identified in the pool of 37 strategies investigated in the current project are presented in Table 3. They only represent four categories, one of which is dominant (see grey-shaded strategies), namely – *"Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours."*

Table 3. The most common motivational strategies used by teachers

Motivational strategies	M	SD
Being polite to students	1.19	0.56
Creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom	1.09	0.63
Speaking in a clear and loud voice	1.04	0.79
Asking students to be quiet when needed to maintain a better learning environment in the classroom	0.99	0.86
Varying the activities students take part in in the classroom	0.94	0.74
Using pictures, gestures, actions to make concepts and content clear	0.93	0.81
Being enthusiastic about their own teaching	0.90	0.82
Listening to students when they have problems	0.89	0.77
Writing clearly on the blackboard/whiteboard during the presentation/ explanation stage of the lesson	0.89	0.80
Bringing humour into the classroom	0.85	0.89
Providing individual support for students whenever needed to show that the teacher cares about them	0.81	0.79

The least frequently used motivational strategies in the set under investigation are listed in Table 4. There is one dominant category (see grey-shaded strategies) – *"Promoting Learner Autonomy."*

Table 4. The least frequently used motivational strategies

Motivational strategies	M	SD
Giving student choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed	-0.39	0.86
Creating opportunities for students to assess themselves	-0.31	0.89
Allowing students to choose classroom activities	-0.19	1.03
Sharing as much responsibility to organise the teaching-learning process with the students as possible	-0.15	0.90
Assessing students' knowledge through role-plays, debates, games, etc.	-0.13	0.89
Encouraging students to participate in English-related activities outside the classroom	0.00	1.02
Introducing new topics through games, songs, short videos, quizzes, images, etc.	0.01	0.98
Encouraging creativity in the classroom	0.04	1.02
Moving around the classroom to monitor each student's work and celebrate their successes	0.05	1.03
Rewarding students in various ways (e.g. Teach the class your favourite game, Take a homework pass, Choose a book for reading aloud)	0.19	1.09

The use of motivational strategies was also analysed in terms of the participants' gender, age, teaching qualifications, teaching experience and type of school – urban or rural. No significant differences were observed in relation to gender, age and teaching qualifications because $p>0.05$. However, the results revealed a bigger variation in teaching experience. A significant positive correlation ($p<0.05$) was found between the instructors' teaching experience and "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours" ($r=0.2554$; $p=0.0092$), "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" ($r=0.3298$, $p=0.001$), "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" ($r=0.3009$; $p=0.002$) and "Promoting Learner Autonomy" ($r=0.2029$, $p=0.0464$) categories. This indicated that the more experienced the teachers were, the more amenable they tended to be regarding the use of the individual types of strategies. Finally, the results were analysed by school location. The results showed highly significant differences ($p<0.001$) in four categories of strategies. These included: "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours" ($p=0.0012$; $Z=3,2352$), "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" ($p=0.0026$; $Z=3.0142$), "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" ($p=0.0079$; $Z=2.6582$) and "Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive" ($p=0.0058$; $Z=2.7694$). The higher results were noticed in the urban schools. The results disclosed a significant difference ($p<0.05$) for "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" between urban and rural schools, where, again, the higher results came from urban schools ($p=0.0211$; $Z=2.3055$).

To ensure a more objective picture of the problem under study, the teachers' responses regarding the use of motivational strategies were compared with students' opinions. In general, there was agreement among the participants. The order of the motivational categories was almost the same in both groups, except that "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" and "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" were reversed. The teachers thought that they used the former more often than the latter, whereas the students believed the opposite.

During the interview stage, the participants stated that they used the strategies from the first two categories (Table 1) more often as "they came more naturally" (T2) to them and seemed "the obvious part of good teaching" (T9). Some added that they "could not imagine being impolite to students" (T1), while others pointed out that "students' participation in lessons depend[ed] on how welcoming and friendly the classroom [was]" (T2). Regarding the "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" and "Promoting Learner Autonomy" categories, the interviewees explained that they "[did] not use these strategies as often as [they] could" (T6). Interviewees ascribed this to "insufficient knowledge" (T14, T16, T19), both "theoretical and practical" (T8). Other comments included: "fostering autonomous learning is not my priority" (T11) or "major aim" (T17), and "the implementation

of some of the strategies would require a lot of time" (T19) and "preparation, [which] I cannot afford now" (T20).

5.3   Strategies that Ecuadorian secondary school EFL learners find motivating

Another purpose of the project was to identify strategies which Ecuadorian secondary school EFL learners found motivating. Table 5 arranges the six categories of strategies from most to least motivating. The highest score was given to the "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" category, while the lowest rating went to "Promoting Learner Autonomy."

Table 5. Categories of the most motivating strategies for students

Categories of motivational strategies	M	SD
Creating a friendly classroom atmosphere and a cohesive learner group	0.74	0.50
Selecting and presenting instructional activities	0.74	0.62
Displaying appropriate teacher behaviours	0.71	0.54
Encouraging positive self-evaluation	0.62	0.59
Making learning stimulating and attractive	0.59	0.55
Promoting learner autonomy	0.44	0.47

Having looked at the individual strategies in the six clusters, it can be inferred that students found some strategies more motivating than others. Examples of the most motivating strategies are listed in Table 6, while Table 7 focuses on the least motivating.

The findings were subsequently examined with respect to participants' gender and school location. For gender, a significant difference was observed only in one instance: "Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive" (p=0.0389; Z=2.0657), where the higher results concerned female participants. The significance of school location was much more complex. For example, in four categories, "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours" (p=0.0001; Z=3.9265), "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" (p=0.0068; Z=2.7046), "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" (p=0.0025; Z=3.027) and "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" (p=0.0005; Z=3.4648), the results differed highly significantly (p<0.001), and the higher results belonged to the rural schools. For the "Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive" category, significant differences were also found (p<0.05) and here too the higher results applied to the rural schools (p=0.0211; Z=2.3069).

Table 6. Strategies that students find the most motivating

Motivational strategies	M	SD
Asking students to be quiet when needed to maintain a better learning environment in the classroom	0.91	0.69
Being polite to students	0.80	0.78
Providing clear explanations regarding the content of the English coursebook	0.78	0.82
Providing clear answers and explanations for students' questions	0.78	0.74
Varying the activities students take part in in the classroom	0.73	0.78
Providing positive feedback about students' learning progress	0.67	0.75
Giving students choices in deciding how and when they will be assessed	0.49	0.82

Table 7. Strategies that students find the least motivating

Motivational strategies	M	SD
Assesses students' knowledge through role-plays, debates, games, etc.	0.35	0.95
Encourages students to participate in English-related activities outside the classroom	0.41	0.94
Rewards students in various ways (e.g., Teach the class your favourite game, Take a homework pass, Choose a book for reading aloud)	0.55	0.85
Brings humour into the classroom	0.62	0.79
Speaks slowly so that students can understand what he/she is saying	0.63	0.86
Writes clearly on the blackboard/whiteboard during the presentation/explanation stage of the lesson	0.67	0.83

According to the qualitative data, the participants stated that they liked that their "English language teachers create[d] a friendly atmosphere in the classroom" (S1, S6, S21). This "[made them] feel safe" (S6) and "welcome" (S21). Some participants also mentioned that sometimes "teachers must ask students to be quiet" (S17, S22, S24). This "usually happens when classroom situations are getting out of control" (S22). One interviewee thought that it was "good that [teachers tried] to regularly maintain control during lessons" (S24), as this "help[ed] students to be focused and attentive" (S17). Some students "enjoy[ed] classroom rules [that teachers] set at the beginning of the school year" (S11), yet such rules were not common in all schools. For instance, in a few urban schools, participants stated that "rules" (S6, S13, S15) and "discipline" (S24, S25, S28) were urgently required so that "students [could] concentrate on classwork" (S13, S19, S21). A few interviewees added that "it [was] difficult to learn when other students chat[ted] loudly" (S3) about things "unrelated to the theme of the class" (S2), for example, "messages or online chats" (S4).

To a lesser degree, the interviewees commented on attractive and enjoyable classes. They "like[d] learning through [songs, games, short videos]" (S2, S5, S7). However, many stated that such "lessons [were] infrequent" (S4, S18). On the whole, "teachers mainly [taught] from coursebooks" (S10, S15), which "[made] all the lessons [more or less] the same" (S1). In general, in both urban and rural areas, "students [found coursebook texts] boring" (S10, S21). Some thought "the topics [were] not interesting" (S3), and quite a few admitted that they did not "enjoy reading" (S3, S6, S8, S15). However, five participants stated that "interesting texts could [encourage them] to read more" (S11, S24). This would mean, as two stated, that "teachers must [supplement coursebooks with] extra materials" (S26, S28), which hardly ever happened in their school experience. Quite a few interviewees stated that the situation could improve if "teachers taught reading [with technology]" (S7, S13, S26), which would be "more motivating and enjoyable" (S1, S7, S22).

The participants also thought that they would enjoy lessons more, and feel more motivated, if teachers included students more in decision-making. For example, students were willing to "help [teachers] to choose reading texts" (S6), "suggest writing topics" (S8, S11) or "decide on activity types" (S5) that students were asked to do during lessons or at home. Classes would also be more attractive if there was "more emphasis on collaborative activities" (S18). This would be particularly useful in developing "thinking" (S14), "problem solving" (S3), and "management" (S9) skills and oral "communication in [the target language]" (S15). These joint decisions would contribute to incorporating materials or activities that would be "more related to students' interests" (S5), making "the learning process more interesting" (S9) and "engaging" (S21).

5.3   *Desirability of motivational strategies to enhance students' engagement*

The study also aimed to identify students' needs in relation to motivational strategies. The students were asked to list strategies they would like teachers to use more frequently to improve classroom community engagement. Table 8 lists the six most desirable strategies in descending order.

Table 8. The most desirable strategies for students

Motivational strategies	M	SD
Base classroom instruction on interesting texts	0.29	0.45
Encourage students to practise vocabulary through games	0.30	0.46
Share as much responsibility to organise the teaching-learning process with the students as possible	0.30	0.46
Use a variety of materials during every lesson (e.g., coursebooks, workbooks, dictionaries, technology, newspapers, magazines, etc.)	0.31	0.46
Reward students in various ways (e.g., Teach the class your favourite game, Take a homework pass, Choose a book for reading aloud)	0.34	0.47
Introduce new topics through games, songs, short videos, quizzes, images, etc.	0.35	0.48

The data revealed that the most desirable category of motivational strategies for students was "Promoting Learner Autonomy" (M=0.36, SD=0.20). The least desirable strategies belonged to the "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours" (M=0.17, SD=0.21) category.

The learners' needs concerning motivational strategies were further analysed against participants' gender and type of school. No significant differences in relation to gender were observed, but the situation was different for the school location variable. Significant differences were found in three motivational strategy categories, where the higher results belonged to urban schools; significant differences were found in the "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours" (p=0.0184; Z=2.3583) and "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" (p=0.0167; Z=2.393) categories, and highly significant differences for the "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" category (p=0.0002; Z=3.7265).

The students' answers to the question concerning desirable strategies were compared with teachers' responses. In the teacher questionnaire, the participants were asked to select motivational strategies whose frequency they thought should be enhanced in their pedagogical practice. The results showed only small discrepancies in the choices made by both groups. The participants unanimously divided all the categories of motivational strategies into high- and low-priority groups. The former consisted of "Promoting Learner Autonomy," "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" and "Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive," while the latter included "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group," "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" and "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours." The discrepancy concerned the sequence of categories in the high-priority group.

6   Discussion

The first research question aimed at identifying motivational strategies which Ecuadorian teachers used in the teaching-learning process. According to the gathered data, the teachers employed different strategies to motivate students to learn English; they displayed appropriate behaviours, including being polite to students, speaking clearly and loudly, listening to students when they had problems and offering individual support. Similar strategies were analysed in other projects conducted in English language classrooms (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Elisdawati, Husein, & Setia, 2018; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini, & Ratcheva, 2012; Pavlidou, 2001; Widiadnya, Seken, & Santosa, 2018) as well as non-language subjects (Ibanez, Kuperminc, Jurkovic, & Perilla, 2004; Murdock & Miller, 2003; Sanchez, Colon, & Esparza, 2005). The conclusions of these studies, similarly to the current project, suggested that the motivational strategies listed above had an important impact on student motivation and performance, as well as contributed to increased students' interest and self-efficacy.

Additionally, Ecuadorian teachers motivated their students by creating a friendly classroom atmosphere as well as providing them with interesting activities. The former emphasises the im-

portance of a safe and anxiety-free classroom setting where students feel respected, accepted, included, supported and where they can realise their potential, regardless of their individual differences. Recent research indicates that a positive classroom atmosphere is important for several reasons. For example, Ekiz and Kulmetov (2016) and Frisby and Martin (2010) found that it enhanced students' engagement and motivation. Johnson (2009) and Frisby and Martin (2010) noticed a positive relationship between friendly classroom environments and enhanced learning. Frisby and Martin (2010) and Gascoigne (2012) additionally observed that friendly classrooms positively affected students' participation and interaction during lessons. Finally, Wu, Wu and Tasi (2014) reported a strong relationship between non-threatening classroom environments and increased student learning satisfaction.

The strategies related to selecting and presenting appropriate instructional activities stress the importance of a variety of activities and using pictures, gestures, and actions to make concepts and content discussed in the classroom clear. Corroborative evidence listing materials as a motivating factor in the English language classroom can be found in Mishan (2005), Chapelle and Lui (2007), Csizér and Kormos (2009), Hou (2009) and Rahman and Cotter (2014), to name a few. Tomlinson (2011) suggests that a wide range of high-quality materials must be employed to engage students in the teaching-learning process, and be based on fundamental principles and underpinned by SLA research. According to these principles, materials should: (1) achieve an impact, (2) help learners to feel confident and at ease, (3) be perceived by learners as relevant and useful, (4) require and facilitate learners' self-investment, (5) expose learners to authentic language, (6) draw learners' attention to linguistic features of the input, (7) provide learners with opportunities to use the target language for communicative purposes, (8) consider learners' diverse learning styles and affective attitudes, and (9) maximise learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement, thus stimulating the right and left brain hemispheres (Tomlinson, 2011, pp. 8–23).

A problem that needs to be addressed, however, is the development of learner autonomy in the classroom. As the data revealed, Ecuadorian teachers hardly ever used strategies aimed at fostering independent learning and action. A considerable amount of literature has been published on learner autonomy (Benson, 2013; Cirocki, 2016), disclosing that autonomy-supportive motivational strategies seek to stimulate language learners' intrinsic motivation as well as volition to act (Benson, 2013). In the language classroom, autonomy can be facilitated in various ways. For instance, Cirocki (2016) suggests four approaches which allow transferring responsibility to students by encouraging them to: plan, monitor and assess their own learning process using relevant strategies; negotiate the syllabus; utilise technology to enhance their learning; and engage in collaborative tasks to maximise their use of the target language. These are all intended not only to enhance willingness to engage in learning tasks, but also to positively affect motivation. The latter has been backed by empirical studies, including Ushioda (2006), Okazaki (2011) and, more recently, Hu and Zhang (2017).

The second research question focused on identifying classroom strategies which EFL learners found motivating. The analysis revealed that some strategies appeared to be more motivating than others and an interesting relationship between the teacher and student groups was observed. From the six categories, three groups of strategies – "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours," "Creating a Friendly Classroom Atmosphere and a Cohesive Learner Group" and "Selecting and Presenting Instructional Activities" – were reported as more motivating than the others. This, unfortunately, does not seem to corroborate the results from earlier studies. For more details, see, for example, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). More interestingly, these were the strategies which Ecuadorian teachers reported utilising in the classroom regularly. The remaining categories, seen as less motivating by the students are "Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive," "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" and "Promoting Learner Autonomy." As the analysis showed, the same three categories seemed to be given much less attention by the teachers.

More specifically, the analysis showed that the students liked that their teachers spoke loudly and clearly. Clear explanations were particularly valued, yet, in some cases, students thought their "teachers [were] not always well-prepared as they [could not] answer questions" (S13) related to "vocabulary or grammar used in coursebook texts" (S6). Such situations, as some students stated,

"[were] disappointing" (S11, S18, S26) and often led to situations, usually after class, in which "students question[ed] their teachers' expertise" (S9). In general, however, the students felt that their teachers "[tried] very hard to provide support whenever needed" (S5), which made students "feel valued and included" (S22) and "more willing to participate in the classroom" (S30). The latter tallies with Bergin and Bergin (2012, p. 525), who affirm that students' participation in the classroom expands when "students feel emotionally safe."

The students would like to see more innovation in the classroom and for their classes to vary in nature. They thought that "teachers over-rel[ied] on coursebooks" (S10). Instead, they would like to "learn [through] songs, games, and technology" (S2, S5, S7), believing that "songs and games [were] very beneficial" (S7) in the language classroom. This tallies with Lopez Sanz (2013), who notices that songs and games increase students' motivation, confidence and participation. Educational technology, in turn, offering similar benefits to songs and games, promotes autonomous and collaborative learning (Kassim & Zuraina, 2007; Padurean & Margan, 2009; Wang, 2015), both of which were reported in the previous section as highly desirable in the Ecuadorian context.

The last research question was about identifying motivational strategies the students would like teachers to employ more frequently in their pedagogical practice. As the analysis showed, the three most desirable categories were: "Promoting Learner Autonomy," "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" and "Making Learning Stimulating and Attractive." The underutilisation of the first and third categories was also reported in studies by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Guilloteaux (2013), and indicated two points. Firstly, Ecuadorian teachers found it hard to believe that their students could become more motivated by assuming more responsibility for their own learning. Secondly, arousing students' deep interest in English language learning did not seem to be a significant factor in motivation. Given this evidence, it could be inferred that, in Ecuador, teachers were perceived as transmitters of knowledge, not facilitators of the learning process. The second point also resonates with Benson's (2000, p. 114) remark that "education often does little to provide learners with the opportunity to exercise autonomy in the practice of learning."

The encouraging observation is that both teacher and student participants saw the need to improve the current situation in Ecuador. Both groups concurred that more, and more varied, motivational strategies were required. The analysis revealed that both groups of participants were unanimous that the strategies belonging to the "Promoting Learners Autonomy," "Encouraging Positive Self-evaluation" and "Making Learning Stimulating and attractive" categories had to become a top priority.

7   Conclusion and implications

This study aimed to investigate motivational strategies used in the secondary school EFL classroom in Ecuador. The mixed-methods project showed that Ecuadorian teachers used a range of motivational strategies; yet many were underused, which might indicate that motivating students was not a high priority for EFL teachers.

On the one hand, the current study shares some findings with previous research conducted in Taiwan, Hungary and the US. Specifically, "Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours" appeared to be the most commonly used category of strategies in Ecuadorian schools. This observation may imply that such strategies transfer across teaching contexts. On the other hand, the current study differs from previous research on certain issues. The most striking is that the "Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-evaluation" category ranked very low, which is disappointing indeed. The strategies in this cluster are essential as, among other things, they help students to sustain a positive self-image as well as identify areas of weakness and, consequently, ways of addressing them (Dörnyei, 2007).

Since the current study is rather limited in scope, it is not possible to draw any discernible conclusions for the field as a whole. We believe, however, that the study gives us enough evidence to make three recommendations for action in the southern provinces of Ecuador – the context of this research. Firstly, it is advisable that EFL teachers prioritise motivational strategies in their practice

and utilise them regularly and for various purposes. The plenitude of such strategies will help students to become more engaged, confident and autonomous learners. Secondly, it is important that the concept of motivational strategies is thoroughly discussed during teacher education programmes as well as continuing professional development events, so that both pre- and in-service teachers gain sound theoretical and practical knowledge. Last but not least, it is recommended that educational researchers conduct a large-scale study on motivational strategies in Ecuador to obtain a detailed picture of how these strategies are promoted in EFL classrooms across the country, not just in the south.

References

Alrabai, F. (2016). The effects of teachers' in-class motivational intervention on learners' EFL achievement. *Applied Linguistics, 37*(3), 307–333.

Benson, P. (2000). Autonomy as a learners' and teachers' right. In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions* (pp. 111–117). London: Longman.

Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching autonomy* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Bergin, C. C., & Bergin, D. A. (2012). *Child and adolescent development in your classroom*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.

Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. (2008). Teacher motivational strategies, student perceptions, motivation, and English achievement. *Modern Language Journal, 92*, 387–401.

Bernaus, M., Wilson, A., & Gardner, R. (2009). Teachers' motivation, classroom strategy use, students' motivation and second language achievement. *Porta Linguarum, 12*, 25–36.

Boekaerts, M. (1995). Self-regulated learning: Bridging the gap between metacognitive and metamotivational theories. *Educational Psychologist, 30*(4), 195–200.

Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research, 6*(1), 97–114.

Chapelle, C. A., & Lui, H-M. (2007). Theory and research: Investigation of 'authentic' CALL tasks. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), *CALL environments* (2nd ed.) (pp. 111–130). Alexandria, VA: TESOL Publications.

Cheng, H. F., & Dörnyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(1), 153–174.

Cirocki, A. (2016). *Developing learner autonomy through tasks: Theory, research, practice*. Halifax: Lingua-Books.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 209–240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Csizér, K., & Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behavior: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and university learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 98–119). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualising motivation in foreign language learning. *Language Learning, 40*(1), 45–78.

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

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–731). New York, NY: Springer.

Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivating language learners: Results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research, 2*(3), 203–229.

Dörnyei, Z., & Schmidt, R. W. (Eds.). (2001). *Motivation and second language acquisition*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda. E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education.

Dörnyei, Z., Henry, A., & Muir, C. (2016). *Motivational currents in language learning: Frameworks for focussed interventions*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Ekiz, S, & Kulmetov, Z. (2016). The factors affecting learners' motivation in English language education. *Journal of Foreign Language Education and Technology, 1*(1), 18–38.

Elisdawati, Y., Husein, R., & Setia, E. (2018). Boundary dilemmas in teacher-student relationships: Struggling with the line. *Teacher and Teacher Education, 25*, 636–637.

Frisby, B. N., & Martin, M. M. (2010). Instructor-student and student-student rapport in the classroom. *Communication Education, 59*(2), 146–164.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitude and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gascoigne, C. (2012). Towards an understanding of the relationship between classroom climate and performance in post-secondary French: An application of the classroom climate inventory. *Foreign Language Annals, 45*, 193–202.

Guilloteaux, M-J. (2013). Motivational strategies for the language classroom: Perceptions of Korean secondary school English teachers. *System, 41*(1), 3–14.

Guilloteaux, M-J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2008). Motivating language learners: A classroom-oriented investigation of the effects of motivational strategies on student motivation. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*, 55–77.

Hou, Y-J. (2009). The impacts of using reading journal and learning strategy on improving college students' reading and writing skills: A case study in Taiwan. In A. Shafaei & M. Nejati (Eds.), *Annals of language and learning. Proceedings of the 2009 International Online Language Conference* (pp. 283–286). Boca Raton, FL: Universal Publishers.

Hu, H., & Zhang, J. (2017). A pathway to learner autonomy: A self-determination theory perspective. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 18*(1), 147–157.

Ibañez, G. E., Kuperminc, G. P., Jurkovic, G., & Perilla, J. (2004). Cultural attributes and adaptations linked to achievement motivation among Latino adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 33*(6), 559–568.

Johnson, D. I. (2009). Connected classroom climate: A validity study. *Communication Research Reports, 26*(2), 146–157.

Kassim, H., & Zuraina, A. (2007). The use of ICT in the implementation of student-centred learning (SCL). *Language Learning & Teaching, 4*(1), 15–31.

Keller, J. M. (2010). *Motivational design for learning and performance: The ARCS model approach*. New York, NY: Springer.

Kerr, N. L., Aronoff, J., & Messe, L. A. (2000). Methods of small group research. In H. T. Reis & C. M. Judd (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology* (pp. 160–189). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Kikuchi, K. (2015). *Demotivation in second language acquisition*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Kim, K. (2009). Demotivating factors in secondary English education. *English Teaching, 64*(4), 249–267.

Lamb, M., & Wedell, M. (2015). Cultural contrasts and commonalities in inspiring language teaching. *Language Teaching Research, 19*(2), 207–224.

Lasagabaster, D. (2011). English achievement and student motivation in CLIL and EFL settings. Innovation in *Language Learning and Teaching, 5*(1), 3–18.

Lasagabaster, D., Doiz, A., & Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2014). *Motivation and foreign language learning. From theory to practice.* Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Lopez Sanz, L. (2013). *Using games and songs in the English classroom*. Retrieved from http://publicacionesdidacticas.com/hemeroteca/articulo/036011/articulo-pdf

Maeng, U., & Lee, S-M. (2015). EFL teachers' behaviour of using motivational strategies: The case of teaching in the Korean context. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 46*, 25–36.

Mishan, F. (2005). *Designing authenticity into language learning materials*. Bristol: Intellect.

Moskovsky, C., Alrabai, F., Paolini, S., & Ratcheva, S. (2012). The effects of teachers' motivational strategies on learners' motivation: A controlled investigation of second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 63*(1), 34–62.

Murdock, T. B., & Miller, A. (2003). Teachers as sources of middle school students' motivational identity: Variable-centered and person-centered analytic approaches. *The Elementary School Journal, 103*(4), 383–399.

Nakata, Y. (2006). *Motivation and experience in foreign language learning*. Oxford: Peter Lang.

Nevid, J. S. (2013). *Psychology: Concepts and applications*. New York, NY: Cengage Learning.

Okazaki, M. (2011). *An investigation into the relationship between learner autonomy support and student motivation in the Japanese university setting*. Retrieved from http://etheses.bham.ac.uk/3261/1/Okazaki11PhD.pdf

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

Padurean, A. & Margan, M. (2009). *Foreign language teaching via ICT*. Retrieved from http://www.ris.uvt.ro/wp-content/uploads/ 2010/01/apadurean.pdf

Pavlidou, T-S. (2001). Politeness in the classroom? Evidence from a Greek high school. In A. Bayraktaroglu & M. Sifianou (Eds.), *Linguistic politeness across boundaries: The case of Greek and Turkish*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Rahman, A., & Cotter, T. (2014). English language learning through mobile phones. In S. Garton & K. Graves (Eds.), *International perspectives on English language teaching* (pp. 159–177). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Sanchez, B., Colon, Y., & Esparza, P. (2005). The role of sense of school belonging and gender in the academic adjustment of Latino adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 34*, 619–628.

Schunk, D. H., Meece, J. L., & Pintrich, P. R. (2013). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (4th ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education.

Sugita McEown, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2010). What can teachers do to motivate their students? A classroom research on motivational strategy use in the Japanese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 4*(1), 21–35.

Sugita McEown, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2014). Motivational strategies in EFL classrooms: How do teachers impact students' motivation? *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 8*(1), 20–38.

Tomlinson, B. (2011). *Materials development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ushioda, E. (2006). Motivation, autonomy and sociocultural theory. In P. Benson (Ed.), *Learner autonomy 8: Insider perspectives on autonomy in language learning and teaching* (pp. 5–24). Dublin: Authentik.

Ushioda, E. (Ed.). (2013). *International perspectives on motivation: Language learning and professional challenges*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wang, Y-C. (2015). Promoting collaborative writing through wikis: A new approach for advancing innovative and active learning in an ESP context. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 28*(6), 499–512.

Wentzel, K. R., & Brophy, J. (2014). *Motivating students to learn* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Widiadnya, I. G. N. B. Y., Seken, K., & Santosa, M. (2018). The implications of politeness strategies among teachers and students in the classroom. *SHS Web of Conferences, 42*, 1–6.

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

Wong, R. M. H. (2014). An investigation of strategies for student motivation in the Chinese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 8*(2), 132–154.

Wu, M-L., Wu, P-L., & Tasi, P-V. (2014). The relationship between classroom climate and learning satisfaction on senior high school students. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences and Education, 3*(1), 58–68.