



## The Motivation of Adult Second Language Learners of English in Classroom at a United Kingdom University (Britain)

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### Abstract

This study explores the motivation of adult second language learners of English. It reports on a three month study of forty participants who are at intermediate and upper intermediate levels in second language learning. It was conducted in International Study Centre at a UK University in the classroom environment. Mixed methods of research: quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in order to triangulate data. Multiple techniques were also used to collect data: questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and observation. There were three main aims: (1) to highlight types of motivation that influence second language learners, (2) to explore how a teacher might enhance students' motivation, and (3) to analyse the impact of motivation on second language students. The findings are organised into four themes: reasons for learning English; teaching and learning in the classroom; assessment and feedback, and, finally, socio-cultural context. The results show that a significant percentage 55% out of 40 students indicated that they learn English for communication purposes and because they are interested in English culture. Approximately 25% of participants study English to get a job, or to pass exam. A small number of respondents mentioned that they study English because English is a global language while over 7% of students have more than one reason for learning English. Further, evidence suggests teachers can motivate their students by putting them in pairs or small groups, raising discussion activity. By acting as

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a monitor, giving rewards and constructive feedback, and teachers can reward and concentrate on the socio-cultural context. The results of this study are offering teachers and syllabus designers a more optimistic way of dealing with students who appear to be lack of motivation.

Key words: motivation, second language learning, international students, pedagogy, and socio-cultural context.

### **1.1 Introduction**

Motivation is an essential factor that has an influence on second language students in the classroom and its a combination of effort, desire, and positive attitudes towards learning a second language can be expressed in students' behaviour. Demotivation may be due to lack of desire to learn, poor concentration, lack of interest in compulsory curriculum, and difficulty in learning (Dornyei, 2001). Thus, understanding motivational factors of students can help teachers and syllabus designers to develop the learning process. This research aims to highlight the types of motivation that influence second language students, to explore how a teacher might enhance students' motivation, and to evaluate the impact of motivation on second language students.

Ho (1998); Brown et al (1998) indicated that there are two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation reflects the experiences in the target language that encourage students to have positive attitudes towards the society and its people in a country. Students who have intrinsic motivation study English to communicate with people from different parts of the world because English is a global language and to engage in the culture of the country; whereas students with extrinsic motivation learn English primarily to get the tangible benefits such as a job, a qualification, or to pass a test.

Dornyei (2001); Norton (2002); and Brophy (2004) mentioned that socio-cultural context can be regarded as a force in students' motivation and attitudes towards learning a second language. There is a strong relationship between students' desire to learn about the culture of the target language and their motivation. Pedagogy can have an effect on motivation, this might include for example, putting



students in pairs or small groups, and socio-cultural context is part of the kind of pedagogy and curriculum environment.

In this research, three questions serve as a framework for the study: (1) What types of motivation influence second language learners? (2) How can a teacher enhance students' motivation? (3) What is the impact of motivation on second language students? This introductory section is divided into five parts: context, rationale, aims, summary, and conclusion.

## 1.2 Context

The research was conducted in the International Study Centre of a UK University in West Yorkshire within two classes of international students from different parts of the world. Each class consisted of 20 students who were at intermediate and upper intermediate levels. The classes were specifically chosen because they included a wide range of nationalities. A survey strategy was employed and questionnaires were filled in by forty respondents; three interviews were then conducted, and finally one class was also observed during a lesson given by a teacher in the classroom.

The International Study Centre has a good reputation for teaching English to international students. Every year the Centre welcomes more than a hundred international students who enjoy studying in a safe environment. The Centre at this University provides students from many different nationalities with English as a second Language (ESOL) programmes and University Foundation programmes to prepare students for entry to higher education in the UK. Teachers at the Centre also provide students with one-to-one tutorials about their progress and advice about their studies.

The significant of this research might be among others, advising second language teachers and learners on achieving success in the learning process. In order to achieve the success, second language (SL) teachers should work harder and consider motivation in a way which allows them to think about it from students' prospects so that any problems can be addressed.



### **1.3 Rationale**

The researcher had previously been a student in IELTS course at this Centre and she is now at another University. This study focuses on adult second language students' motivation in the social setting, so it was conducted in the classroom and with students for whom motivation was an issue. As a second language learner, I am interested in motivation particularly because as part of my study I had heard students expressed different levels of motivation and I want to explore that further.

Dornyei (2001) points out that the biggest problem is that some students lack motivation as they have no desire to learn a second language and this is quite likely to be the case when students are enrolled in an International Study Centre. Demotivated students will lack interest and engagement in classroom activities; they will neither write notes nor ask for explanation if they do not understand. Moreover, they will not do homework nor follow teacher's instructions. Surely the point is that students in this context may not be so obviously demotivated, but a number of factors might elicit a lack of interest or commitment. Those students are more likely to have difficulty in learning a second language. The key question is why and this may be due to teacher's pedagogy, negative attitudes towards the target language community and its people despite living in the country, and lessons considered boring as the curriculum is compulsory.

Harmer (2007) has found that teachers can motivate students by starter exercises, by using challenging and meaningful activities, by organising students into co-operative groups, by encouraging students to take the responsibility for their own learning, and, finally, by devising activities that encourage students to speak fluently. Therefore, the current study specifically seeks to concentrate on reasons that students have to learn a second language, the process of teaching and learning in the classroom, assessment and feedback, and the socio-culture context in which learning takes place.

### **1.4 Aims**

During this research, three major aims serve as a framework for this study, they are as follows: (1) to highlight types of motivation that influence second language



students, (2) to explore how a teacher might enhance students' motivation, and (3) to analyse the impact of motivation on second language students.

## 2 Review of Literature

### 2.1 Definitions of Motivation

The word "motivation" may be described as a process that we do not observe directly, but it can be inferred from students' behaviour in activities, their effort, and their desire to solve problems (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Sometimes one does observe enthusiasm. Pintrich and Schunk defined motivation as follows: "*Motivation is derived from Latin verb "mover" (to move)...it is something that gets us going, keeps us moving and helps us to complete tasks*" (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p 5). For the purpose of the study, motivation is fundamental to completion or success. Urdan and Schoenfelder say that:

*Motivation is a complex part of human psychology and behaviour that influences how individuals choose to invest their time, how much energy they exert in any given task, how they think or feel about the task, and how long they persist at the task.*

(Urdan and Schoenfelder, 2006, p 332)

This definition highlights the complex nature of motivation in that each student is unique and some methodologies do not meet the needs of all students. According to Ho (1998) motivation can be described as an effort that has been exerted by students to achieve their goals which include the desire to learn. Similarly, Harmer (2007) defined motivation as an internal desire that pushes students to do things to achieve their goals. McLean says that:

*Motivation is an umbrella term that describes questions like why we think and behave as we do...motivation often deals with why of behaviour. In addition, it is the desire to learn and to overcome any difficulties.*

(McLean, 2003, p 7)



Cook (2008) defined motivation as an interest that can be generated in students by specific topics and activities that may interest them in the classroom. However, Brophy theorizes that:

*Motivation is a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, persistence and quality of behaviour, especially goal-directed behaviour. However, motives are hypothetical construct used to explain why people are doing what they are doing. Further, motives are general needs or desires that energise students to initiate purposeful action consequences.*

(Brophy, 2004, p 3)

However, according to Lightbown and Spada (2006) motivation in second language learning can be defined with regard to two factors: students' needs and their attitudes towards a second language community. While, according to Alderman (2000), motivation can be defined in terms of three psychological functions: activating behaviour, directing behaviour and regulating persistence of behaviour. This illustrates that defining motivation is complex as there is no consensus on a single definition, but for the purpose of the study, its definition is flexible.

## **2.2 Types of Motivation**

Throughout recent years, there has been an increase in the number of studies that concern students' motivation in the classroom (Clark and Christopher, 2009). Following the research conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1985) about the motivation, a number of more recent researches have indicated that motivation has two types "*Integrative or intrinsic motivation*" and "*Instrumental or extrinsic motivation*" (Ho, 1998, p 169, Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Ho (1998); Brown et al. (1998) indicated that intrinsic motivation reflects experiences in a target language that may enable students to communicate with native speakers and to engage in the culture of a country. In contrast, extrinsic motivation relates to the advantages that students can get from learning a second language, which will allow them to get a better job or pass the examination. Moreover, it focuses on completion of a course, and it is likely to be influenced by rewards.



However, Deci and Ryan (2000) have labelled three types of motivation: extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation and lack of motivation. Other researchers such as Dornyei (2001), Pintrich and Schunk (2002) have been influenced by Deci and Ryan's labelling as they divide motivation into three types: (1) intrinsic motivation whereby the students may participate in activities for their own sake and enjoyment; (2) extrinsic motivation in which learners may engage in activities to get a qualification or a better job. The third type of motivation is identified by the notion of a lack of motivation in which students may have low capacity for learning possibly due to low self-esteem or learning difficulties. It is questionable whether a lack of motivation is a type of motivation or an absence of it. Cook (2008) suggested that students might have difficulty in learning a second language in the classroom, because they have neither intrinsic nor extrinsic motivation. It is an important area for consideration, however, as students who are not motivated do not progress. However, this need not be a fixed state since motivation changes over time and individuals are complex. Gilbert (2002); Riggs and Gholar (2009) have found that every student may have the potential for motivation, but some of them have more focused attitude towards learning than others.

Dornyei (2001) investigated the motivation and demotivation of learning English as a second language for students in the UK. He has found that there were four factors that may influence students' motivation: teachers' pedagogy, compulsory curriculum, decreased self-confidence and negative attitude towards the community of the target language. It is an important area to consider because the pedagogy used in the classroom plays a vital influence on motivation. For instance, if the teacher employs communicative language teaching strategies in which students are responsible for their own learning, this is likely to increase confidence and motivation as they develop their fluency and engage in co-operative groups. However, students who have negative attitudes towards a country and its people are quite likely to face difficulty in learning.

Ho suggested that: "*Students who learn English for extrinsic motivation are more effective than those who have intrinsic motivation*" (Ho, 1998, p 70). In addition, Brophy states that:



*Intrinsically motivated students will not be consistently motivated, certain aspects of the curriculum will interest them, while others will not; at times they will study and at times will not. Thus, students who rely exclusively on intrinsic motivation are likely to neglect a large number of their schoolwork.*

(Brophy, 2004, p 249)

However, Deci and Ryan (2000); Vansteenkiste et al. (2004); and Waterman (2005) suggest that intrinsic motivation is more successful than extrinsic motivation in the classroom as it is concerned with persistence, effort and enjoyment. Moreover, Cook (2008) found that intrinsic motivation reflects whether students could cope with the target culture and native speakers or not. He also states that: *“The more students admire the target language and look for the opportunity to practise the language... the more successful they will be in the second language classrooms”* (Cook, 2008, p 137). What is more, according to Brown et al. extrinsic motivation is known as a *“negative satisfier”* in which poor circumstances can lead to de-motivation, whereas intrinsic motivation is called a *“positive intensifier”* (Brown et al. 1998, p 94). For instance, Brown et al. conducted a survey and he found that students, who have extrinsic motivation and study as means to an end, are more likely to cheat in comparison with those who have intrinsic motivation and study for their own sake. It is a significant area to consider although not all of students with extrinsic motivation cheat.

On the top of that, Lepper and Henderlong (2000); Sandstone and Harackiewicz (2000); Pintrich and Schunk (2002); Dornyei (2002); and Ellis (2004) have found that intrinsic motivation is more powerful than extrinsic on learning a second language. This may possibly be because intrinsic motivation relies heavily on personal traits and may develop over a period of time, so students who enjoy their study are more likely to continue in their effort in comparison with extrinsic motivation which can have an end when the study is complete.

Sandstone and Harackiewicz (2000); Lepper and Henderlong (2000); and McLean (2003) argued that intrinsic motivation occurs when students learn a second language for its own sake, enjoyment, and interest. Moreover, they are quite likely to feel satisfied during the activity. In contrast, extrinsic motivation is a desire to act in order to achieve something or to stop something as it acts *“as means to an end”*





(McLean, 2003, p 9). However, Lightbown and Spada (2006) claimed that it is difficult to differentiate between the two types of motivation, because success in second language may be accountable to both types. Motivation may comprise different types, but both might be present at the same time.

Deci and Ryan (2000), Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) identified three needs that should be fulfilled to achieve the integration between the two types of motivation: the first need is that of a feeling of being comfortable with the teacher “*relatedness*” which may motivate students to follow the instructions; the second need is “*competence in the language*” which may lead to self-confidence, and the third need is that of “*autonomy*” in which students control their own learning (Urdan and Schoenfelder, 2006, p 336). These three needs relate to each other, for example, feelings of relatedness lead to autonomy; the feeling of autonomy promotes competence, which in turn, encourages confidence. However, Deci and Ryan (2000); Hardre and Reeve (2003); Gest et al. (2005); and Kaufman and Dodge (2008) reported that students who control their learning are more likely to have intrinsic motivation, self-esteem and competence. Further, they stated that students who have intrinsic motivation are excited to learn and expand their knowledge as they have a desire to complete an activity for their own sake and not just to get a reward. It is a significant area for teachers and learners to take into their consideration as students’ feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness can be associated with positive consequences and integration of the two types of motivation.

## **2.3 Pedagogy of a Teacher in the Social Setting:**

### **2.3.1 Students’ Motivation**

Dornyei (2001) and Michelle (2008) investigated the relationship between learners and social context. They found that the social context such as interaction has an influence on students’ motivation. However, Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) have emphasised that cognition of the students such as beliefs about their ability is also affected by the social context. In fact, the beliefs of the students about their success and their competence can have an influence on students’ effort and desire



to get involved in activities. Indeed, factors like the ability of classmates, characteristics of the teacher and rewards have an impact on these beliefs. It is an important area to consider because when a student has the confidence in his or her ability, this may possibly motivate him or her and increase desire to participate in various activities.

Ryan and Deci (2000); Pintrich and Schunk (2002); McLean (2003); and Clark and Christopher (2009) argue for self-determination theory (SDT) where by each type of motivation can be divided into sub-factors in terms of the characteristics of learners and socio-cultural context. Further, extrinsic motivation consists of “*external regulation*” in which students may have no particular desire to work, but they do so in order to earn reward or avoid punishment. “*Introjected regulation*” in which students participate in the activities they believe will please the teacher; “*identified regulation*” in which the students engage in activities, because they feel that activities are essential to get the level they want to achieve, and “*integrated regulation*” in which learners have both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and this may give rise to autonomy in which a teacher may provide learners with a chance to be responsible for their own learning, competence and relatedness (Clark and Christopher, 2009, p 20).

However, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) indicated that intrinsic motivation (IM) has two sub-factors: IM to know about the culture of the second language and to explore new ideas and IM to experience stimulation by performing the task. Intrinsic motivation has three sources: “*challenge, curiosity, and control*”. “Challenge” is the use of activities which are not too easy or difficult, but which do challenge individuals (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p 268). However, Alderman (2000) states that in order to motivate students, tasks should be reasonable and give a chance for students to participate in the learning process. This is an important area to consider as difficult activities may cause anxiety. “Curiosity” is the activities that may stimulate learners and give them different ideas from their current knowledge. “Control” is tasks that promote students’ control of their own learning and may enhance motivation. Moreover, Harmer (2007), Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) say that effective learning is more likely to occur when



students are responsible for their own learning, so teachers need to build the confidence in their students by encouraging them to exert their efforts.

McLean (2003) and Brophy (2004) have shown that, when students are aware of feedback, it is likely that they experience “flow”. For example, when the task is easy and the skill level is high, students might experience “boredom,” whereas when tasks and skills are low, students may experience “apathy”. Further, when students face difficult tasks and have low skills, they are quite likely to experience anxiety. As a result, many students may prefer to be safe.

Dweck (2000), Dornyei (2001), and McLean (2003) all categorise three main groups of students:(1) responsive students who are likely to be enthusiastic, persistent and exert efforts to please the teacher to earn reward or praise; (2) interested students who may seek to increase their knowledge and develop skills for enjoyment; and (3) those students who have positive or negative attitudes towards the target language culture and community.

Pintrich (2000); MacGrath (2000); and Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) have found that reward has two aspects: a controlling aspect and an informational aspect. Controlling rewards when students do any action in order to earn the reward, they are likely to get some autonomy; however, informational rewards which might convey information about students’ performance or progress, may enable students to feel a degree of self-determination. However, Cameron and Pierce (1994) cited by Pintrich and Schunk (2002), have shown that when rewards are given where learners work on tasks regardless of their performance or creativity, these are likely to decrease motivation, a view which is supported by Pintrich and Schunk: “A reward given simply for working on a task conveys nothing about skills and competence and is unlikely to raise self- efficacy or motivation” (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p 266)

### **2.3.2 Teachers Enhance Students’ Motivation in the Classroom**

Ho (1998) has concluded that the culture of the target language may enhance students’ motivation in the classroom. What is more, a survey conducted in Taiwan indicated that the use of the socio-culture context approach such as incorporating



topics about the culture of the target community is almost certain to lead to increase motivation for learning in the language in second language classrooms. Students will feel that the course is interesting and appropriate to their needs. However, Dornyei (2001) says that teachers can include socio-cultural context in the curriculum by showing films, TV recordings, or organising trips and giving extra emphasis on similarities across cultures rather than differences, and this immerses students in the target language as well as the culture. In addition, Gardner (2000); Norton (2000); Spolsky (2000); Dornyei (2002); Macaro (2003); and Fairclough (2003) have made efforts to investigate socio-cultural and post structural approaches and they found that motivation can be understood in terms of learners' identity and socio-cultural context.

Studies conducted by Dornyei (2001) and Lightbown and Spada (2006) have found that teachers might be able to motivate their students if the class is enjoyable for students to attend and the curriculum is interesting and appropriate to their own needs and abilities. Further, teachers can create a supportive atmosphere by organising co-operative group learning rather than emphasising working individually or competitively. Moreover, Harmer (2007) has found that increased levels of motivation in relation to second language pedagogy may include: motivating students in the lesson by "lead-in" in which students are shown a picture in order to activate schemata and arouse them; by using variety of activities that increase students' attention and enhance levels of interest on the part of students, by using co-operative group rather than competitive strategies, and finally by encouraging responsibility for their own learning to participate in activities and to be fluent as possible.

Brophy (2004) has shown that teachers can motivate their students by finding out topics and activities that appeal to them and integrating these within the curriculum. However, McLean (2003) suggested that teachers cannot make students motivated, but they can only help to create an appropriate atmosphere, a view supported by McLean, who indicates that:

*Teachers can best influence how students motivate themselves by setting up optimal conditions that help shape their own beliefs about ability, how they*



*approach learning, how they make sense of their progress and how competent they feel.*

(McLean, 2003, p 8)

Urdu and Schoenfelder (2006) suggested that teachers can guide their students to challenging activities and offer opportunities to control their learning in the classroom in order to get high grades. However, Urdu and Midgley (2003) and Linnenbrink (2005) reported that when teachers give emphasis to the value of learning and understanding, students become more motivated. Furthermore, they indicate that by encouraging learning for understanding, teachers convey a message that every student is able to learn and the process of learning and development of skills are more important than getting high grades.

Assor and Kaplan (2001) and Black and Deci (2002) explore the role of autonomy in motivation involves listening to students' input, providing informative feedback and challenging activities, and offering choices about what to work. By contrast, Deci and Ryan (2008) investigated controlling practices such as imposing deadlines for work, making controlling statements such as you need this for the examination and giving unconstructive feedback. Surely some deadlines are necessary, but unconstructive feedback is obviously not helpful. Urdu and Schoenfelder state that:

*Practices that help students fulfilling their needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness enhance intrinsic motivation, whereas those that controlling the fulfilling of these needs undermines intrinsic motivation.*

(Urdu and Schoenfelder, 2006, p 337)

The activities such as discussion that allow students to speak in the target language and to be responsible for their own learning, they are quite likely to increase motivation as the focus is on fluency. However, Dweck (2000) suggested that these practices cannot improve students' performance, since students have confidence about themselves even if they work poorly.

Brophy (2004) suggested that motivation in the classroom should be the aim of second language teachers and he indicates this can be achieved by the promotion



of autonomy in which the learning is student-centred. However, Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) claimed that it is difficult to create that appropriate motivational atmosphere for many reasons. Curriculum content and activities are compulsory to meet the needs of the society. In addition, teachers may teach a class of 20 or more, therefore; it cannot be easy to meet individual students' needs. Accordingly, many students may be frustrated. Furthermore, students' work is likely to be evaluated, so this may adversely affect enjoyment of an activity, a view supported by Brophy, who states that:

*It is hard to enjoy an activity when it is compulsory and your performance is evaluated, especially if you fear that your efforts will not be successful.*

(Brophy, 2004, p 14)

Brophy (2004) has found that students can be motivated to learn from lessons and activities in the classroom if they find them interesting. However, Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) indicated that students who are motivated to learn may not find classroom activities exciting, but they are likely to find them beneficial a view further supported by Brophy, who says that:

*Students do not need to enjoy school activities in order to be motivated to learn from them, but they do need to perceive these activities as meaningful and worthwhile. To develop such perceptions in your student's engagement in learning activities in ways that enables them to see and appreciate their value.*

(Brophy, 2004, p 256)

Pintrich and Schunk (2002) have shown that teacher's feedback can be regarded as one of the most important factors that may affect students' motivation. Feedback can give information about students' performance. Moreover, positive feedback may quite likely increase students' motivation as they might become more competent and self-confident. Indeed, feedback can be divided into two types: performance feedback and motivational feedback. Performance feedback: provide students with corrective information on the accuracy, for example "*The first part is correct, but you need to bring down the next number*"; while motivational feedback may give information about students' progress and performance and it is likely to include comparisons, for example, "*You have got much better at this, but see how*



*well Mark is doing*" (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002, p 318). Such comparison may not be public, but it can occur. On the other hand, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) and Brophy (2004) found that the teacher might praise or criticise their students to encourage progress in their learning. The praise and criticism may convey information to students about teacher's views of their abilities and about student's progress by saying that, s/he could perform better by using a specific strategy or exerting effort.

#### **2.4 Success Encourages Motivation and Promotes Activity**

Alderman (2000) has explained that teachers who may aim to increase their students' motivation are likely to set goals, identify difficulties, monitor students and give constructive feedback to develop learners' skills. However, Howe (2000) says that students who are able to cope with difficulties and are willing to take risks can be considered as high achievers as they are likely to work hard and believe in their own abilities. Accordingly, they are likely to be highly motivated (Howe, 2000, cited by McLean, 2003).

According to Brophy (2004), students can enhance success and motivation by promoting feelings of competence and autonomy; and by avoiding any area that may cause failure. Students will enhance self-confidence as well as take credit for their success, treating any failure as an experience to learn. However, McLean (2003) and Lightbown and Spada (2006) have carried out research about the relationship between learners' attitudes towards learning a second language and success in second language learning. They have found that it is difficult to decide whether positive attitudes may lead to successful learning or vice versa, or whether each has an influence on the other. Although there may not be research, which clearly proves that positive attitudes lead to success in second language learning, evidence suggests that motivation enhances success.

### **3 Methodology**

The research was conducted in International Study Centre at a UK university in West Yorkshire with two classes of international students from mixed backgrounds. Forty students completed the questionnaires, three students from the questionnaire



sample volunteered to be interviewed and then, one class of twenty students was observed. The data from questionnaires, interview transcripts and observation comprise the results. Ethical issues, pilot study, triangulation, validity and reliability were taken into consideration. The research was conducted in English language during a three-month period.

The following research questions were addressed: What are types of motivation influence second language learners? How can students' motivation be enhanced? What is the impact of motivation on second language students? The research aims were also addressed: (1) to highlight types of motivation that influence second language learners, (2) to explore how teachers might enhance students' motivation, and (3) to analyse the impact of the motivation on second language students. This section is divided into eight sections: mixed method research, ethical issues, validity, reliability, and triangulation, questionnaire, semi-structured interview, observation, research analysis method, and conclusion.

### **3.1 Mixed Method Research**

This research was both qualitative and quantitative. A qualitative approach may be defined as:

*Qualitative methods produce detailed and non-quantitative accounts of small groups, seeking to interpret the meanings people make of their lives in natural settings, on the assumption that social interactions form an integrated set of relationships best understood by inductive procedures.*

(Payne and Payne, 2005, p 175)

Qualitative approach was used since the focus of the research was on students' opinions and attitudes towards motivation and on the social setting of the classroom. It was also used to investigate the interaction between a teacher and students as well as the teacher's pedagogy. Denscombe states that: "*One major feature is that qualitative approach focuses on naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings, so that we have a strong handle on what real life is like*" (Denscombe, 1998, p 221). Further, by using a qualitative approach, the researcher has the potential to gather in-depth data.





However, a quantitative approach may be identified as:

*It seeks regularities in human lives, by separating the social world into empirical components called variables which can be represented numerically as frequencies or rate, whose associations with each other can be explored by statistical techniques.*

(Payne and Payne, 2004, p 180)

The quantitative approach was employed because some of the results from the questionnaires generated quantitative data and gives some opportunity for statistical analysis. Elsewhere the data from the questionnaires was qualitative in the responses to open-ended questions. The quantitative approach was also used in the classroom, while I observed the amount of time of teacher's talk and students' talk.

The used of mixed methods research can be defined as:

*A methodology; it involves the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phrases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing and mixing both qualitative and quantitative in a single study.*

(Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007, p 5)

The use of mixed methods approach provided comprehensive evidence for studying and understanding the topic "The Motivation of Adult Second Language Students of English". Also, it addressed the research questions which might have been difficult to answer by one approach. In addition, it was appropriate and practical as it allowed the generation of different types of data both quantitative "statistical data" as well as qualitative "comments from students".

### **3.2 Ethical Issues**

The ethical issues that were taken into consideration were permission, informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy. Permission was gained from the manager and the teachers of an International Study Centre at a UK University and this is called "*democratic approaches*" in the ethics as it was part of the process of negotiation with respondents and the organization involved in the process of



research (Scott and Morrison, 2005, p 88). In fact, it took some time to be negotiated because people were concerned that the research process should not impact on students and data should be used legitimately and ethically. Another ethical issue was that of informed consent in which the participants were fully informed about the research process before they agreed to take part. Also, the participants were told that they had the right to withdraw at any time if they felt uncomfortable during the research. In addition, it was important that participants should trust that the researcher would respect the opinions and information gathered about them.

Furthermore, the names of the participants and the University were anonymised to protect them and to encourage objectivity. Therefore, when the participants asked about their attitudes and opinions, it was hoped that participants would feel free to express themselves as Oliver says: *“If the respondents are protected through anonymity, the researcher will feel more justified in being able to explore about sensitive issues”* (Oliver, 2003, p 78).

The ethical issue, which was of most concern here, was the privacy of the participants. Thus, the questions about people’s backgrounds and circumstances were dealt with sensitively and considerately.

### **3.3 Validity, Reliability, and Triangulation**

In order to achieve reliability and validity, many techniques were followed during the research process. The term reliability means consistency. Scott and Morrison say that: *“A measure is reliable if it provides the same results on two or more separate occasions...reliability is that the object being measured remains stable”* (Scott and Morrison, 2005, p 208). Further, Cohen et al. say that: *“A reliability instrument for a piece of research will yield similar data from similar respondents over time”* (Cohen et al, 2000, p 117). Reliability means that findings should be similar if repeated, but this research was with a relatively small sample. However, validity is that the research measures what it intends to measure, is fit for purpose and answers research questions. Validity and reliability are both enhanced by a mixed method approach.



More than one method (questionnaire, interview and observation) was used in this study to investigate “students’ motivation” and to triangulate results. Cohen et al. state that: “*Triangulation within methods concerns the replication of a study as a check on reliability and theory confirmation*” (Cohen et al. 2000, p 112). In addition, Scott and Morrison say that: “*Cross-checking the evidence by collecting different kinds of data about the same phenomena makes validation through triangulation*” (Scott and Morrison, 2005, p 251). What is more, the use of the two approaches, qualitative and quantitative, helped to give reliable and credible data through triangulation. This belief is supported by Denscombe, who believes that: “*The use of statistics can give researchers additional credibility in terms of the interpretations they make and the confidence they have in their findings*” (Denscombe, 1998, p 192). In fact, the use of multiple methods in this study allowed rich data to emerge and comparisons to be made between data. When the results of the questionnaire corresponded to those of interview and observation, this gave confidence.

Moreover, instructions were given and the data was collected in the English language in order to avoid problems of translation during the coding stage where the meaning might be lost, while the researcher shifted and selected data. Moreover, English was the common language for the participants across the various nationalities and different ethnic and linguistic backgrounds. All of them speak English as a second language. However, care was taken in writing the questionnaire that the language chosen was appropriate to their level of English.

Care was also taken to avoid bias in the process of research and the interpretation of the findings. Personal relationships with the participants were avoided. Efforts were made to be neutral in order to encourage the right climate for the interviewees to feel comfortable and give thoughts and useful responses. However, Bell suggests that: “*It is difficult to see how bias can be avoided completely, but awareness of the problem and self-control can help*” (Bell, 2005, p 139). The collected data is not necessarily representative because it is difficult to generalise the findings from a small sample; however, generalisability was not the aim rather the views and opinions of the selected group of participants.

### 3.4 Questionnaire



According to Payne and Payne:

*Questionnaires are printed sets of questions to be answered by respondents, either through face to face or self-completion, as a tested, structured, clearly presented and systematic means of collecting data (mainly in the quantitative methods tradition).*

(Payne and Payne, 2005, p 186)

The questionnaires were used to collect initial data, because they tend to be reliable, are anonymous and might encourage greater honesty. Questionnaires were distributed to two classes who were at intermediate and upper intermediate levels of second language learning. The sample was forty participants; twenty in each class: 15 males and 25 females. They comprised different nationalities: Libyan, Syrian, Jordanian, Polish, Pakistan, Romanian, Chinese and Japanese. Non-probability sampling was followed as the cases were hand-picked for purpose, because they were easy to access and convenient, and this type of purposive sampling is known as “*convenience sampling*” (Cohen et al. 2000, p 102). In non-probability sampling, the cases were selected in the full knowledge that they were unrepresentative and not generalisable. This view is supported by Cohen et al. who indicate that:

*In non-probability sampling no attempt to generalize is desirable...the researcher targeting a particular group in the full knowledge that it does not represent the wider population, it simply represents itself... this is frequently the case in small- scale research.*

(Cohen et al. 2000, p 102)

A small-scale sampling of forty respondents was used on the basis some statistical analysis could be conducted and “*The small is beautiful*” (Denscombe, 1998, p 175). The size of the sample relied on the time and the goal of the study as Punch says that: “*The minimum number seems to be between twenty and thirty... what is important is that to justify rigorously any sample size*” (Punch, 2009, p 99).

The questionnaires were given to the participants in the classroom face-face, and, as an international student, I was available in order to give the participants clarification or, if necessary, to simplify the questions and to collect the



questionnaires back. Since it was completed in class, there was 100% response rate. The questionnaires included an introduction on the cover sheet, which explained the researcher's role and the aims of the research. The questions used were open-ended and were designed to meet the aims of the research and to elicit data to answer the research questions (appendix1). Cohen et al. say that: "*It is open-ended questions that might contain gems of information*" (Cohen et al. 2000, p 255). The participants were given a space to express about their own opinions and attitudes about motivation in their own words rather than constraining them to select options as in closed questions (Robson, 2002). The questions seemed to be clear since only a few students asked for clarification or explanation, and this may be due to the fact that the questions were framed appropriately to the participants' levels. The participants appeared to enjoy answering the questions as evidenced by their facial expressions. A pilot study of the questionnaire had also been conducted with two acquaintances who were second language learners in order to check the clarity of items, substitute any ambiguous words and in order to check how much time it would take to fill it.

### 3.5 Semi-Structured Interview

Cohen et al. defined interview as:

*A two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information and focused on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation.*

(Cohen et al. 2000, p 269)

Three students from the questionnaire sample volunteered to participate in one-one interview which lasted fifteen minutes each. The interviewees were two females and one male all of whom were between eighteen and twenty years old. They were given alternative names. Six questions were asked to each interviewee in order to develop and extend those from the questionnaire (appendix 2). These semi-structured interviews were conducted in a classroom setting and arrangements were made to set up the location in order to allow comfortable interaction between interviewees and the interviewer. The interviews were private, and they allowed respondents to express ideas freely in response to questions



about motivation. The interviews were used in order to expand on the questionnaire and supply more explanation. So, the interviews were regarded as a complement to the questionnaire. Semi-structured interviews allowed greater flexibility to probe, expand, develop and clarify interviewees' responses.

Moreover, face to face interviews helped to obtain first-hand data from the interviewees, to get insight into human behavior and they added detail and depth to the data collected by the questionnaire. The interviews assisted triangulation, but were not only used as a complement to the questionnaire, they were also used in a combination with other methods. The one-one interview started with relatively straightforward question in order to make the interviewee feel relaxed and comfortable. The interviewees were all asked the same questions in the same order. The interviews were recorded to store data and in order to maintain eye contact with the interviewees who had agreed to be recorded. However, the recording did not capture non-verbal expressions such as facial expression. Consequently, notes were taken during the interview in order to fill in any missing details. The recording device was placed unobtrusively, and tapes were changed to avoid any interruption to the flow of the interview. The interview questions were:

- 1- Why do you learn English?
- 2-Do you feel that you are responsible for your own learning? In what ways?
- 3-Do you feel comfortable in your classroom and with your teacher? If so, does this have positive impact? If not, why not?
- 4-Does your teacher try to create a motivational atmosphere for learning? How?
- 5-Explain your attitude towards learning English in the UK and about English people living in the country?
- 6-What impact does that have on your learning?

### **3.6 Observation**

Only one class was observed once at the beginning of the week during the lesson which lasted one hour and a half. The participants were observed in the classroom



with their teacher. The observation included interaction between the teacher and students, students' participation in activities, the teacher's pedagogy, examination of the amount of time taken for teacher's talk and students' talk and what opportunities that students had to practise their own English. Notes were written up directly after the end of the lesson to avoid being forgotten. The reason for undertaking observation was that it allowed watching, listening and recording real-life data in the social setting of the classroom. In addition, the data which was collected by observation was used to complement the interview data in order to add substance and detail.

However, the participants might change their behavior as they were being observed and a view supported by Scott and Morrison: "*Informants consciously change their behavior when they are being observed*" (Scott and Morrison, 2005, p 169). In addition, Nunan suggests that: "*When humans become aware that they are the focus of attention for research, there is real possibility that they will act differently from normal*" (Nunan, 1992, p 48). In order to undermine this, the participants were unknown to me, notes were taken at the end of the lesson and I sat at the end of the class behind them. On the top of that, observation contributed some data on the whole classroom environment, the socio-cultural interactions and triangulation.

### **3.7 Research Analysis**

The gathered data will be analysed by coding in which the data will be organized into themes that emerge from categories. During the process of analysis the categories were identified and coded accordingly.

### **4 Analysis of the Findings**

The data collected from questionnaires, interviews and observation are presented and summarised. The data is examined and analysed in relation to literature review and research questions: What are types of motivation influence second language learners? How can students' motivation be enhanced? What is the impact of motivation on second language students? Four themes emerge from categories and the findings will be explored in relation to: (1) reasons for studying English, (2)



teaching and learning in the classrooms, (3) assessment and feedback, and (4) the socio-cultural context.

#### 4.1 Reasons for Studying English

The findings from the questionnaires revealed that a significant proportion 55% out of 40 respondents decided to study English because they were interested in British culture and English was important for communication. For example, *“I study English to communicate with people as I currently live in the UK”* (S 11 questionnaire), *“English is a powerful language that has an impact on all communities and we cannot communicate with people from other countries without it”* (S 8 questionnaire). Another reason was that 25% out of 40 respondents indicated that they had a desire to learn English to get a better job or a qualification, and to pass a test. For example, *“I study English for my future career and academic study”* (S 2 questionnaire), *“I study English to pass an exam”* (S 31 questionnaire). Furthermore, findings from the questionnaires also showed that a small proportion, 7.5%, mentioned that they had more than one reason for learning English as confirmed evidence in the literature review, e.g. Lightbown and Spada (2006) indicated that motivation have different types, but both could present together. For example, *“I study English for communication and to get a masters degree”* (S 7 questionnaire). Findings from interviews also indicated that interviewees study English for various reasons. For example,

*I study English to be able to communicate with people because most people speak English as a second language... English culture, heritage, and civilisation such as museums, theatres, and castles are incredible...I wonder how they build it... I want to study history in order to understand English history and get a qualification.*

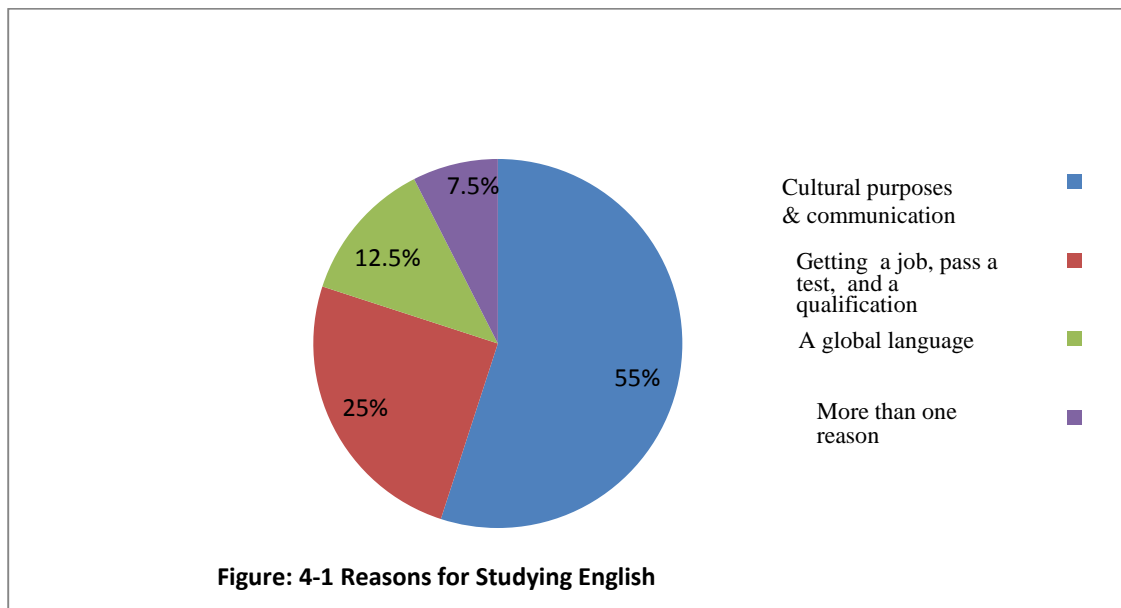
(Nana interview)

According to Rohmah (2005) English become a global language because people in many parts of the world give English a special status in terms of using it as a second language. Crystal (1997) says that English has been identified as a world language for over 150 years, and about 1.5 billion people now speak English either as first or second language. Further, English has a special status in technology and around





85% of websites are written in English. However, in response to the question which was about reasons for studying English, relatively a small proportion 12.5% showed awareness of the importance of studying English because it is a dominant global language. *"I learn English because it is an international language"* (S 34 questionnaire). Although 12.5 % mentioned that they learn English because it is a global language, clearly for those students it was quite powerful motivational factor.

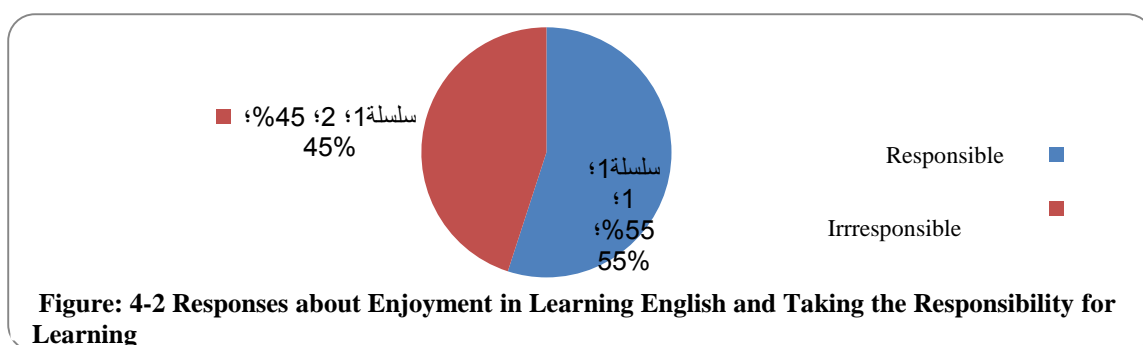


Within questionnaires, 55% of respondents, who said that they were studying English for communicative and cultural purposes, also indicated that they participated in the classroom activities and they enjoyed learning English, citing many reasons: English helped them to communicate with people and to increase their knowledge about the people who speak English as a second language; learning English made their life easier; and helped them to achieve their aims. For example: *"It is interesting to speak a second language"* (S 16 questionnaire). Although English is not referred to specifically here, it is the second language of choice for most people. *"I really enjoy learning English language because I find it not just words and sentences that are used in communication, but the meaning of words and sentences differ according to the context"* (S1 questionnaire). It is an important area because sometimes the meaning of words cannot be interpreted literally, but it depends on: the context in which they occur, what a speaker or writer intends to convey, and when. This is known pragmatics.



However, 45% of respondents expressed more negative comments about learning English including, for example, that English was difficult to learn, particularly grammar and spelling, and dissatisfaction that the curriculum was compulsory. For example, *“No, I do not enjoy learning English because it is sometimes complicated and confused me as it is difficult to learn spelling and grammar”* (S 15 questionnaire). It is a significant area to consider because English grammar can be challenging for some international students and that teachers need to seek to develop ways of facilitating such as assimilation of complex grammar, talking to students, and giving additional support. Some students have more problems with grammar than others because their linguistic backgrounds, their first language, and may be grammatical structures are very different. Teachers cannot necessarily do that in class, but they might develop online resources that Arabic speakers could work through and they might be different slightly from Chinese speakers because they might have different needs in terms of assimilating some of complexity grammar.

Within questionnaires a slight majority 55% of respondents, who said that they enjoyed learning English and they engaged in classroom activities, also indicated that they had responsibility for their own learning such as: *“I feel that I am responsible for my own learning because my teacher in the classroom makes learning as a co-operative process”* (S 3 questionnaire). Almost half 45%, however, said that they did not have this responsibility. This suggests that sessions are not meeting the needs of all students in terms of encouraging them to view themselves as participating in the learning process.





Findings from the questionnaires indicated a large percentage 97.5% out of 40 respondents said that they felt comfortable with their teacher. For example,

*I feel quite comfortable with my teacher in the classroom and this has positive impact on my learning because I feel free in speaking to him and I do not hesitate in asking a question or giving suggestion and this gives me the confidence.*

(S 1 questionnaire)

*Yes I am comfortable with my teacher as he is friendly and my classmates are sociable and most of them from my country...this has positive impact on my learning since we share interests and we help each other in a cooperative atmosphere. This encourages me and makes me have a strong desire to attend the class and increase my knowledge.*

(S 6 questionnaire)

Evidence suggests that the sense of belonging and being comfortable with the teacher is the extent to which the participants feel that they are accepted, respected, and supported by the teacher and their peers in the classroom. The feelings of being responsible, competent, and part of the learning environment are important in creating a conducive learning atmosphere and are quite likely to increase students' motivation and this reinforces Deci and Ryan (2000) comments about relatedness, competence, and autonomy, and supports what is met by Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) in the literature review.

Only one respondent out of 40 said that she did not feel relaxed within the teacher. For example,

*No, I do not feel comfortable either to my teacher or to my classmates because my teacher is racist and has discrimination among students and this has negative effect on my progress...I have no desire to learn... I will take my certificate and never study English in this place.*

(S 22 questionnaire)



#### 4-1 Responses about the Sense of Comfortable within the Teacher

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	39	97.5%
No	1	2.5%

Since only one individual student had what was perceived to be a very negative experience, this might be a matter of interpretation. Although this one student obviously felt uncomfortable because of perceived discrimination, other students did not. Individual perceptions can be very powerfully different, and individuals might have an experience, which they interpret as being discriminatory or they perceive as being as a result of race or ethnicity and feel wholly negative because of that. It is a matter of interpretation or perception.

#### 4.2 Teaching and Learning in the Classrooms

Classroom observation indicated that the teacher in the classroom settled students into learning and motivated students by “lead-in” or starter exercises in which students were shown a wall picture connected with the current topic. The teacher tried to introduce the topic in a way that gave students the chance to acclimatise to the learning process. This helped students to brainstorm vocabulary about the topic, to get involved in the lesson, and to activate schemata relating to previous knowledge about the subject and the world. Students wrote down any words that related to the topic. Then every student said his or her words, and the teacher wrote down the vocabulary. This reinforces Harmer (2007) comments about motivating students in the classroom in the literature review.

During the course of the class, students were put in pairs or small groups and given an activity to discuss in order to encourage speaking. The majority of students participated in the activity, and they used English as their language interaction. Working in pairs or small groups gave students opportunities to be collaborative and share responsibilities since they were working together without intervention of the



teacher. The interaction also enabled students to talk and negotiate meaning. Indeed, the teacher enhanced students' motivation by encouraging a relaxed atmosphere and a supportive relationship with his students. During the observation session, the teacher gave students time for watching a film and then he gave them questions about the film to be discussed in pairs or small groups. He gave time to rehearse, prepare and process their answers before speaking. In the observed session, participants used scaffolding to support each other, and students learnt from another student's attempts. It appears that scaffolding aimed to engage students in a way that could help them to motivate themselves and create a sense of a cooperative atmosphere to complete the activity. This develops the point made by Lightbown and Spada (2006) and Harmer (2007) in the literature review.

Findings from the questionnaires indicated that respondents who answered the question about a teacher tried to create a motivational atmosphere, almost all of them 97.5% said "Yes". For example, "*My teacher brings some equipment such as pictures, video, film, cards for playing games, and computer to learn the language*" (S 28 questionnaire). Findings from the interviews also revealed that the teacher can create a motivational atmosphere by putting students in pairs or small groups and encouraging a cooperative work. For example,

*The teacher divides the class into pairs and small groups and he gives each group questions to answer. After answering the questions, we swap the papers in order to be corrected by other group. The winner group is given a prize.*  
(Sara interview)

#### 4-2 Responses about Creating a Motivational Atmosphere by the Teacher

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	39	97.5%
No	1	2.5%

In the observation session, the amount of time during which both the teacher and students talk was also observed. Scrivener says that:



*Teachers know more of the target language and that by listening to the teacher; the learner is somehow absorbing a correct picture of the language; that by interacting with the teacher, the learner is learning to interact with a competent user of the language... that is more useful time than talking to a poor user. Thus, time spent talking to another learner is not particular useful time.*

(Scrivener, 2005, p 84)

It is a significant area to consider because if the teacher talks most of the time, there will be fewer opportunities for students to speak. However, during the observed session, most students got time to practise speaking, while the teacher evaluated their progress, wrote notes, and monitored errors in order to assist and correct them at the end of the lesson. The teacher did not give immediate feedback, but gave students the opportunity to correct themselves since the focus seemed to be on fluency. For example, the teacher wrote an inaccurate sentence “*She drink a cup of tea every morning*” on the board and then he repeated the sentence several times, asking respondents to concentrate on agreement of the verb “*drink*” until a student corrected it “*drinks*”. This is known as echoing which was one of the common techniques used in correction.

Teacher talking time (TTT) is a time when learners listen and do not get involved in the lesson. During the observed session, the teacher talked when he gave instructions or explanation and when he reminded students about the time. For instance, the teacher said that: “*10 minutes to write down the vocabulary*”, “*The time is over*”, “*One minute is left*”. The teacher also offered some interpretation and support to small groups, when he felt that the communication broken down completely. The teacher spoke only for about 30 minutes, whereas students were given the opportunity to speak and engage in the activities for an hour, 60 minutes, so it seems that the learning was student-centred.

In response to the question about the activities which were used in the classroom. The findings from the questionnaires indicated that the majority 62.5% of respondents said that the activities were appropriate to their English level as they felt happy and confident while participating in the activities. For example: “*Some of them are suitable to my level because I feel comfortable and confident through*

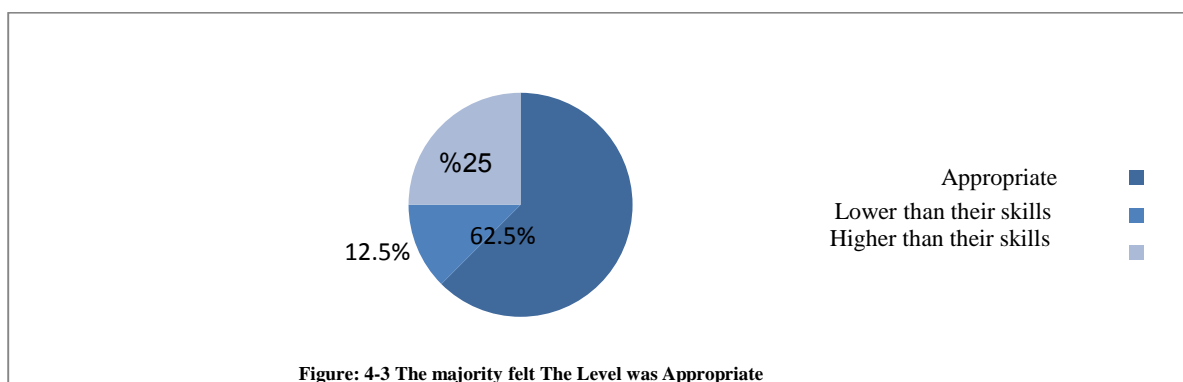


answering them, however, some of them are higher than my level and this gives me energy to challenge myself” (S 10 questionnaire). However, a small proportion 12.5% mentioned that some of the activities were lower than their skills as they were too easy and did not challenge them, and this gave rise to boredom. For example, “The activities are too easy and I do need the activity that makes me challenge” (S2, questionnaire). Further, about 25% of respondents indicated that:

*We are second language learners and the activities are higher than our skills. The activities are difficult to answer, so I prefer not to participate on them... because if my answers are wrong, my classmates will laugh at me and the teacher will evaluate me negatively*

(S 5 questionnaire)

It is obvious that the majority felt the level was appropriate. However, fear of negative evaluation and classmates laughing at students are the most common sources for anxiety. When a student is afraid of public speaking or when s/he faces difficult activities, then s/he is unable to participate and this may possibly lead to a sense of anxiety. This develops the point made by McLean (2003) and Brophy (2004) about classroom activities in the literature review. In order to overcome this problem, the teacher could encourage students by offering praise and constructive feedback. The teacher in this research was observed to do this and also showed a feeling of sympathy if anyone has difficulty. Getting an appropriate level for every student can be quite difficult. Personalised or differentiated learning is challenging in a classroom situation.



Findings from the questionnaires revealed that general English course enhanced students' skills and knowledge rather than performance which relied on results and



grades. In response to the question about the extent to which students feel the course met their needs, 100% of respondents indicated that the course helped them to develop their skills of speaking, reading, writing and listening, and this is pleasing. For example, *“The course that I am studying now enables me to develop and improve my four skills because my teacher focuses on understanding rather than getting high grade in a test”* (S 13 questionnaire).

By promoting learning for understanding, the teacher managed to convey a message that everyone can learn and that the process of learning and developing skills is more important than getting high marks. What is more, when students are encouraged to be responsible for their own learning in a classroom, where they feel that they are supported, in a learning environment in which they feel comfortable and when they are given activities which are suitable to their level, evidence suggests that this is quite likely to enhance motivation and this view confirms the findings of Urdan and Midgley (2003) and Linnenbrink (2005). **4.3 Assessment and Feedback**

In the observed session, the teacher’s constructive feedback such as: *“Right”*, *“That is correct”*, *“I know you can do this”* seems to have an important role in the influence of the students’ motivation because it was observed from students’ responses that it appeared to increase motivation, and to enhance performance and engagement in activities. Whereas feedback which provided comparative information such as *“You have got much better at this, but see how well Ali is doing”* was rarely used during the session as it may lead to de-motivation. Although comparative feedback is used in some classes to motivate students, but it does not seem to be effective as many students do not like to put in comparison with their classmates.

In the questionnaire, responses to the question about receiving a constructive feedback on performance from the teacher indicated that all students believed this to be positive. For example, *“By constructive feedback, I know my weak points and work to improve them”* (S 20, questionnaire). Another example,

*I often receive constructive feedback on my performance from my teacher such as “well done”, “your writing is improved”, “excellent”... this encourages me to*





*exert the effort to increase my knowledge and improve my skills... sometimes I receive criticism and this also motivates me to work harder .*

(S 21, questionnaire)

Constructive feedback is the feedback that contributes to learning and feedback that praises performance and indicates areas for improvement. Within the questionnaires, respondents, who answered the question about receiving constructive feedback from their teacher, also indicated that, in response to the question about evaluation of performance, they had regular assessment on their learning, and this also had a positive effect on their learning. For example, “*Yes, I do presentation every week and this improves my speaking skill*” (S 9 questionnaire). Another example,

*Yes, I often have evaluation on my performance by examination and test that I take regularly. This assists my learning because I know how my level progresses and it also helps me to know my weak points that I should work on in order to improve.*

(S1 questionnaire)

#### **4-3 Respondents Who Receive Constructive Feedback and Evaluation on their Performance**

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	40	100%
No	-	-

So, this suggests that tutors are meeting students' needs in this aspect. This seemed to help in building up student's confidence and to convey the teacher's beliefs in the students' progress as confirmed evidence in the literature review, e.g. Brophy (2004).

During the course of this research, criticism seemed to motivate students when it conveyed that a student was a competent learner, but could perform better by exerting more effort. For example, when the teacher said that, “*I am disappointed in you. I know you can perform better*”, this demonstrates a critical feedback “*I am disappointed in you*” + positive motivational feature “*I know you can perform better*”.



It is critical and encouraging at the same time and for the students concerned appeared to motivate them to work harder. This reinforces Pintrich and Schunk (2002) comments about constructive feedback, criticism, and praise in the literature review and supports what is met by Brophy (2004).

Within the questionnaires in responding to the question about receiving a reward from a teacher, 62.5% of respondents indicated “No” they had not received a reward and about 37.5% respondents said “Yes”. For example, *“I have received a prize from my teacher when I got the highest mark in the test and this encourages me to increase my knowledge and read more”* (S 16 questionnaire). *“I enjoy in answering the activity and when the teacher offers a prize, this encourages me to engage in the activity in order to get the prize”* (S 33 questionnaire), *“I receive a prize from my teacher every week when I complete the activity. I do not care about the rewards as they are meaningless, particularly when the activities are interesting”* (S 23 questionnaire).

It is an important area to consider since evidence suggests that rewards convey information about students’ skills and progresses such as when a teacher gives rewards to students for learning a new knowledge or skill. When students work on activity to obtain a prize, they are more likely to view their actions as means to an end and this is known as *“external regulation”* in the literature review (Clark and Christopher, 2009, p 20). However, when students engage in the activity in the absence of rewards, their participation reflects their interests as they participate in the activity because they want to. This develops the point made by Pintrich and Schunk (2002), and Urdan and Schoenfelder (2006) about rewards in the literature review.

#### 4-4 Responses about Receiving a Reward from the Teacher

Response	Respondents	Percentage
Yes	15	37.5%
No	25	62.5%



Within the questionnaires a very significant proportion 90% of respondents who said they had the opportunity to practise their English in the classroom, also mentioned that they participated actively in the class. Relatively a small percentage 10% said that they neither got the chance to practise their English nor to participate in the activities. For example,

*I have the opportunities to practise my English through discussion and raising controversial issues such as euthanasia and capital punishment. Such these topics encourage every student to speak as they have grey areas and this happens when my teacher puts the class in pairs or small groups.*

(S 25 questionnaire)

*I participate in the classroom to get a reward and to please my teacher. This gives me confidence to talk” (S 28 questionnaire), “I participate to improve my level of English because participation is a way to learn” (S 27 questionnaire). “No I do not have the opportunity to practise my English language because the teacher speaks the entire lesson and he allows me to speak only when I have a question.*

(S 30 questionnaire)

Evidence suggests that giving time to students to practise their language and to engage in activities can help them to be responsible for their own learning and to develop their skills and confidence. However, this suggests that some students are inhibited or view lack of motivation as the same as participation not having the chance.

#### 4-5 Respondents Who Get the Opportunity to Practise their Language and Participate in Activity

Response	Respondents	percentage
Yes	36	90%
No	4	10%

#### 4.5 The Socio-Cultural Context

From both the questionnaires and interviews, it appears that teachers use films and trips in order to show English culture, to create a motivational atmosphere to learn



English, to develop awareness of English culture, and to extend opportunities to experience English language. In response to the questions about trips and the positive and negative attitudes towards learning English in the UK and English people, a large percentage 97.5% of respondents said “Yes” they had positive attitudes towards learning English in the UK and English people. For example, “*I have been to Manchester museum, Buckingham Palace and Bradford Cinema*” (S 3 questionnaire).

*English people repeat slowly if you do not understand. They use drawings or signs to explain the meaning of a word. Even when I commit a mistake, they do not say you are wrong, but they are polite as they say “sorry” “could you repeat, please?” and then they reformulate the sentence in the correct way.*

(S 4, Questionnaire)

*Learning English in the UK is the best way to learn fast because every day I have the chance to improve my English level by listening to my teacher in the classroom or English people outside...English people are very kind, polite, and friendly and they give you a support whenever you need it.*

(Khalid interview 2)

Only one student out of 40 said that she had a negative attitude towards English culture and people, and this clearly had an adverse effect on the student’s learning. For example,

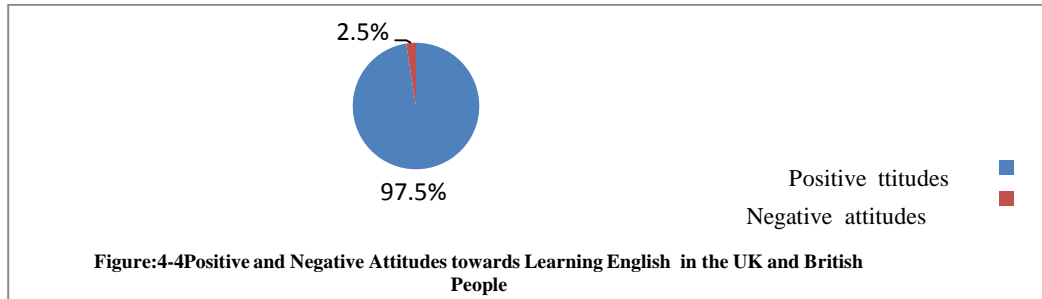
*I have a negative attitude towards learning English in the UK because one of my teachers hates Arabic and Muslim students and he does not give me the chance to practise my English...but some people in the UK are kind and I like their punctuality.*

(S22, questionnaire)

It is a significant area to consider because learning English in the UK has a positive influence on students’ learning because they learn rapidly and as a result feel motivated to learn in order to improve their English. Students with positive attitudes towards the English culture and people can be considered as more successful in learning English than those who have negative attitudes. This may be due to the fact that language is an essential part of the culture and learning a second language may depend on students’ willingness to identify aspects of the culture. However, only one



student has a negative attitude because of discrimination, so it is a matter of perception. This develops the point made by Dornyei (2001) and McLean (2003).



Good classroom conditions play an important role in enabling students and emphasising the motivating aspects of teaching and learning. In this study, the teacher and students could hear each other without noise or shouting. These conditions might not obviously increase students' motivation, but their negative impact would likely to lead to dissatisfaction.

## Conclusion

Findings from the questionnaires, interviews, and observation in this study illustrate that motivation can be understood in the learning environment of second language learning. Motivational teaching may be described as the ability to respond to students' needs and to invite each student to give his/her best. Students study English for different reasons: for communication and cultural interest, for functional purposes, and because English is an international language. Students who learn English to interact with people and for cultural purposes are more likely to enjoy and participate in the activities, and to cope with difficulty.

Students are motivated by working in cooperative groups, discussion activity, experiencing the English culture through films and trips, having the opportunity to talk in the target language fluently, constructive feedback, and student-centred learning. Positive attitudes towards the English culture and its people in the country can play a significant role in motivating students to learn the language. In contrast, those with negative attitudes may have difficulty in learning and they do not enjoy the activity.



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