Motivational Strategies in an Online Learning Environment: L2 Teacher Cognitions and Practices

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Motivational Strategies in an Online Learning Environment: L2 Teacher Cognitions and Practices

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Author Declaration

1. This author has not been registered for any academic award during the period of registration for this study.
2. The material included in this dissertation has not been submitted wholly or in part for any other academic award.
3. The program of advanced study of which this dissertation is part has included completion of the following units:

- Research Methods for Second Language Education 1 (ED 50492)
- Second Language Acquisition (ED 50327)
- Language Awareness (ED 50479)
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4. Where any material has been previously submitted as part of assignment within any of these units, it is clearly identified.

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Abstract

Although language teachers' motivational teaching practices have received increasing research attention in recent years, there is currently little empirical evidence on teachers' mental lives behind their choice and use of motivational strategies. Furthermore, very little attention has been paid to online learning environments, which are becoming crucial leaning sites under COVID-19. This qualitative case study therefore examines language teachers' cognitions and motivational practices in an online learning environment. Multiple methods including classroom observation, stimulated-recall interview and semi-structured interview were used to collect data from two IELTS teachers from a private language school in mainland China. The results reveal that, while there is a close correspondence between the strategy choices made by the two teachers in this study and the micro- and macro-strategies catalogued by Dörnyei (2001), there are also many individual variations and adaptations. Furthermore, the data shows that the teachers' motivational teaching practices were shaped by the situated interaction of cognitive, experiential, socio-emotional and contextual factors. These findings contribute to a more holistic and realistic understanding of motivational teaching techniques, and might carry a number of implications for teacher education.

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Abbreviations

ARCS: Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction

BI(s): Background Interview(s)

CO(s): Classroom Observation(s)

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FI(s): Follow-up Interview(s)

IELTS: International English Language Testing System

L2: Foreign/second language

MOLT: Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching

MotS: Motivational Strategies

OLE(s): Online Learning Environment(s)

RQ(s): Research Question(s)

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

SRI(s): Stimulated-Recall Interview(s)

SSI(s): Semi-Structured Interview(s)

CHAPTER1. Introduction

1.1 Aims and rationale

In the field of foreign/second language (L2) learning, motivation is usually understood to be the drive that initiate L2 learning and sustain L2 learning efforts (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007). Previous studies have shown that L2 motivation is associated with a variety of important learning consequences such as persistence (Kim and Kim, 2017), achievement (Bernaus, Wilson and Gardner, 2009), and course satisfaction (Bodnar et al., 2016).

Recognising that motivation plays such a crucial role in L2 learning, a growing body of literature has shifted attention from motivation itself to Motivational Strategies (MotS), defined as instructional techniques that teachers can deploy to generate and enhance student motivation and maintain their motivated behaviours (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Multiple lists of MotS have been created by researchers (e.g. Keller, 2010; Dörnyei, 2001), and a considerable body of empirical studies have also been devoted to testing the applicability and effectiveness of these lists in diverse contexts.

However, as a novice teacher, I found the practicality of these lists limited: they told me little in terms of how to choose and realise the strategies in particular classroom contexts. The problem that I encountered has been well-summarised by Lamb (2017): most of existing MotS research has focused on identifying and classifying observable motivational teaching behaviours. Teachers' thoughts and decision making processes behind their MotS practices, however, were largely missing from existing literature. Yet addressing this gap could be of potential value to research and practice. As argued by Hennebry-Leung (2020, p.195), such attempts would allow MotS frameworks and teacher development programmes for motivational teaching to be 'firmly rooted in and scrutinised by front-line experience'.

Furthermore, most of existing MotS studies were conducted in face-to-face classroom contexts. There was little information on what and how MotS can be realised in online learning environments (OLEs), where teaching and learning happen asynchronously or synchronously through the use of computers and the Internet (Farr and Murray, 2016). Addressing this gap seems particularly timely, given that under the COVID-19 Pandemic, moving teaching and

learning practices online has been the choice of many institutions across different nations (Reimers and Schleicher, 2020).

Considering the rationale above, this study aimed to explore MotS used by L2 teachers in an OLE and teachers' rationales behind these practices.

1.2. Research questions

In particular, the present study was guided by the following research questions (RQs):

RQ1: What motivational strategies do teachers use in an online learning environment?
RQ2: How do internal and external factors influence teachers' choice and use of motivational strategies?

The terms 'internal factors' and 'external factors' refer to influential factors emerged from teachers' rationales that are either internal to the teacher (i.e. psychological constructs) or external in the 'social, institutional, instructional and physical settings' (Borg, 2006, p.324). 'choice' and 'use' are used to distinguish the types of MotS chosen by teachers, and the realisation of these choices in classroom practices.

1.3. Overview of the dissertation

Following the introduction, the subsequent parts of the dissertation are divided into six chapters. Chapter 2 provides the contextual background of this study and Chapter 3 reviews the literature on MotS and teacher cognition. The methodological rational for this study is outlined in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 and 6 present main research findings and discuss the relevance of these findings in relation to previous literature, respectively. This dissertation ends with Chapter 7, a conclusion chapter which highlights implications for practitioners, acknowledges limitations and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2. Research Context

The RQs were explored at a commercial language school in Anhui province, China, with a particular focus on its online IELTS (International English Language Testing System) preparation course. This chapter provides a detailed description of the research context, moving from describing IELTS and IELTS preparation in China (2.1), to the online IELTS preparation course at the particular institution (2.2), and then to the teachers and students on this course (2.3).

2.1 IELTS and IELTS preparation in China

IELTS is a high-stake examination on English language proficiency and is widely used by universities and other institutions worldwide to grant admissions to non-native speakers of English (British Council, 2020). It assesses four language skills, including speaking, listening, reading and writing (ibid). Perhaps because of the wide range of educational, social and economic opportunities that IELTS can lead to, there is a steady increase in the number of IELTS candidates in China, reaching 300,000 in 2018 (China Education and Research Network, 2019).

According to British Council (2020), IELTS preparations courses are considered helpful but not a necessity. For institutions that do offer preparation courses, Cambridge Assessment (2020) makes recommendations for skill-based teaching (i.e. organised into the same four skills as assessed in the test), communicative approaches, and the Cambridge Practice Tests for IELTS Series being used as the exam practice material.

Berry (2011, p.199) described that there is an 'examination-oriented culture' in China wherein the social expectations of high scores give rise to huge market demands on test-preparation programmes. Indeed, according to Deloitte China (2018), in 2017 approximately one-third of the 141,100 English training schools in roughly 700 cities offered IELTS, ranging from large chains such as the New Oriental School, to small independent businesses.

2.2. City Lights and its online IELTS preparation course

City Lights Language School (pseudonym) is one of these private schools. Based on a single learning site in Anhui province, it has been offering test preparation courses, including those for IELTS, for 20 years. I studied with this institution in 2013 when I was preparing for IELTS. At the time of data collection (June, 2020), there were 23 English teachers at this school, who worked alongside other teams, including a supervisory board, a supporting team (teaching assistants and office assistants), and educational consultants who were responsible for providing customised school and visa application supports.

All the test preparation courses offered by City Lights are personalised, meaning that their duration, timetable and content are adaptable to each individual student's needs. At the beginning of the course each student is assigned teachers based on their entrance exam scores. However, recognising that students may have different preferences, during the course students could switch teachers if they do not think the originally allocated teacher is the right match. The classes are 2-hours long, and delivered one-to-one. The four skills are usually taught separately in each class. In addition to one-to-one classes taught by teachers, students also participate in seminars where they do homework, dictation, and mock tests in small groups with teaching assistants.

The director of the English teaching department at City Lights explained that they have two types of curriculum: an official curriculum which broadly sets out the teaching content for learners at beginner (IELTS band 1-3.5/4), intermediate (IELTS band 3.5/4-6/6.5) and advanced (6/6.5-9) levels, and a personalised curriculum which each teacher develops based on student needs. The teachers are free to choose their teaching materials, including Cambridge Practice Tests, handouts designed by City Lights, and other resources provided by the school. No particular teaching method is specified and the teachers are free to choose their preferred ways of teaching.

According to the director, City Lights first started providing online classes in 2015 in order to accommodate the needs of students who lived remotely. However, at the time of data collection in the COVID-19 pandemic, all students took classes online. The way that the online classes operate are not much different to those offline, other than being mediated by Tencent QQ, an instant messaging software. During the class, the teacher shows the student class materials on

PPT slides through screen share, and communicates to the student mainly via audio. The director explained that although video chatting is enabled by QQ, it is often not used because students may feel awkward in front of the camera or have internet connection problems.

2.3. The teachers and students

Most teachers at City Lights hold degrees in English-related subjects and many of them have experiences of studying abroad. An undergraduate degree is a pre-requisite in teacher recruitment but many teachers are educated to masters level. Another pre-requisite in teacher recruitment is at least 3 years of teaching experiences. The director explained that teaching experience is a priority in recruitment as he believes that it is the extensive teaching experience that equips teachers the skills to develop personalised classes for students.

Most teachers specialise for teaching one skill or two. At the time of data collection because of COVID-19 and cancellation of IELTS examinations, there was a drop in student numbers and teacher participants in this study taught for less than 10 hours per week. In addition to teaching, the teachers also engage in weekly meetings to discuss student progress and make lesson plans. They also participate in biweekly teacher development workshops where one or more teacher are asked to give demo teaching sessions with others observing and giving comments afterwards.

City Lights accepts all students who need help with achieving their desired IELTS scores. It is then not surprising that the student population is very diverse. For example, among the 8 classes observed in this study, most of the learners were local high school and university/college students who needed IELTS for further study, but there was also a music teacher who needed IELTS for work. According to the director, the student population is also highly diverse in terms of their existing English proficiency level, their personal preferences for learning and time commitment for test preparation. It is the need to accommodate for all these diversities that drives the institution to provide personalised test-preparation courses.

CHAPTER 3. Literature review

This chapter reviews previous literature that is relevant to the present study. In 3.1, theoretical and empirical literature on MotS is critically discussed in order to justify the focus of this study on an OLE from teachers' perspectives. Section 3.2 discusses relevant literature on teacher cognition, giving grounds for the holistic perspective that this study adopted, and highlighting the particular gaps this study aimed to fulfil.

3.1 MotS

A review of literature revealed multiple strands of empirical studies that applied and/or evaluated several researcher-developed frameworks of MotS. The following section will discuss those studies that focused on theory-based MotS frameworks (3.1.1), and those that drew upon Dörnyei's (2001) process-based MotS framework (3.1.2). All the literature reviewed in this section will be summarised in 3.1.3.

3.1.1 Theory-based MotS frameworks

One theory-based MotS framework is the ARCS model, which includes 63 instructional techniques grouped under the categories of Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction (ARCS) (Keller, 2010, 1987). The model was developed based on Tolman and Lewin's (1932, cited in Keller, 2010) expectancy-value theory of motivation, which suggests that people are motivated to learn when they perceive value in the knowledge that is to be learnt and have expectation of success. Results from studies that empirically tested this model, however, were mixed. Kurt and Keçik (2017), for example, found that after integrating the ARCS model to an online university prep class, students showed an increased level of course satisfaction and motivation, indicated by questionnaire data. By contrast, a randomised control trail conducted by Wu et al. (2012) reported no significant differences in motivation as well as all the four components in ARCS between the experiment and control group. As summarised by Li and Keller (2018) in their systematic review on the classroom applications of ARCS, the inconsistencies in previous literature may be attributed to differences in research design, measurement of variables, research contexts and learners' psychological traits.

Similar inconsistencies were also reported by studies on the needs-supportive MotS framework, which is a group of instructional techniques that are designed to promote learners' autonomy,

competence and relatedness – the three universal psychological needs for motivated behaviour specified in Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Ryan and Deci, 2000). As summarised by Stroet, Opdenakker and Minnaert (2013) in their systematic review, there seem to be a general pattern that these strategies can only promote students' academic motivation when they are perceived as needs-fulfilling from students' perspectives. This pattern is also evident in more recent literature. Domen et al. (2020), for example, found that it was students' perception of need supports, rather than teachers' reported use of needs-supportive strategies, that positively associated with students' autonomous motivation. Overall, it seems that neither ARCS nor needs-support frameworks can guarantee desirable learning outcomes for all learners across all contexts.

Another critique on these theory-based frameworks was made by Dörnyei (2001), who argued that being based on one single theoretical perspective on motivation or another, 'pure' (p.13) MotS frameworks largely ignored theories and research that followed different lines and therefore cannot provide a comprehensive knowledge base of MotS. In particular, Dornyei (2001) claimed that being based on general psychological theories of motivation, both ARCS and the needs-supportive model failed to recognise motivational constructs that are particular to L2 learning, for example, integrative motivation (i.e. motivation related to a positive attitude towards the L2 group) and instrumental motivation (i.e. motivation related to the pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency) (Gardner, 2001).

3.1.2. Dornyei's (2001) process-based MotS framework

Dörnyei's (2001) process-based model of MotS seems to provide a more comprehensive framework that is particularly relevant to L2 teachers. As shown in Figure 1, this model is organised according to where in the teaching process the MotS could be deployed. The four stages encompass 35 macro-strategies in total, which are further specified as 102 micro-strategies.

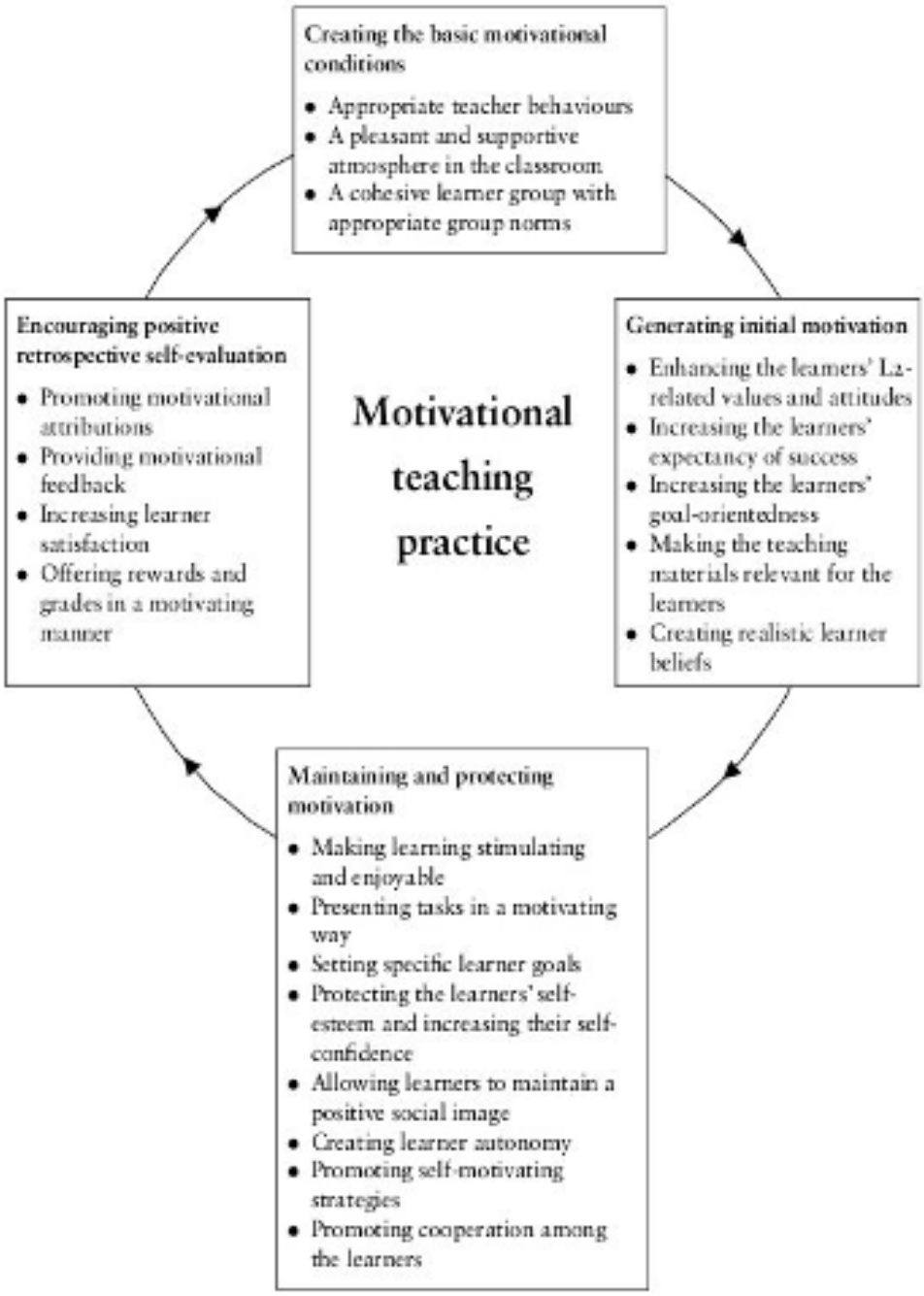

Figure 1. Dörnyei's (2001, p. 29) process-based MotS framework

Theoretically, this taxonomy drew upon Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model of motivation, which contains two dimensions: *Action sequence*, which represents the temporal dimension of motivation during the execution of an activity (pre-actional, actional and post-actional); and *Motivational influences*, which includes motivational constructs from a wide range of psychological theories (including but not limited to SDT, expectancy-value theory and Gardner's socio-educational theory).

Empirically, this framework was first developed based on findings regarding Hungarian EFL teachers' motivating teaching practices (Dörnyei and Csizer, 1998). And as summarised by Lamb (2017), it has also been tested by an extensive body of research in recent years.

On the positive side, there is a promising body of evidence supporting the positive effects of applying this framework in practice. For example, correlational studies conducted in South Korea (Guilloteaux and Dornyei, 2008) and Iran (Papi and Abdollahzadeh, 2012) reported that teachers' motivational practices measured by the observation scheme 'Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching' (MOLT) were associated with students' motivated behaviours in the class, as well as attitudes towards L2 learning. While correlation does not necessarily show causation, the benefits of these strategies were further supported by quasi-experimental studies which showed that when teachers were specifically trained in using MotS, they were able to produce positive changes in their learners' level of motivation (Moskovsky et al. 2012) and better L2 achievement (Alrabai, 2016). All these findings seem to show that when properly applied, MotS in Dörnyei's (2001) framework can benefit L2 learners.

However, there is also evidence showing that not all MotS in Dornyei's (2001) framework were effective in all situations. Wong (2014), for example, found that among the 25 MotS from Dörnyei's (2001) that were frequently used in secondary classrooms in China, only 6 of them were recognised by both teachers and students as being effective. Sugita and Takeuchi (2014) showed that even within the same Japanese University, the effectiveness of MotS reported by students varied depending on the timing of them being used during the academic semester, and students' pre-existing level of motivation and proficiency.

Furthermore, the comprehensiveness of Dörnyei's (2001) framework has also been questioned in recent years. Henry et al. (2018), for example, asked over 200 secondary school teachers in Sweden to describe a motivating classroom activity. While a close correspondence with MotS in Dörnyei's taxonomy was reported, the study also reported the motivating value of using mobile phones in class – an affordance that was not widely available when Döneyei's (2001) list was developed. Similarly, strong similarities between observed MotS practices and MotS in Dörnyei's (2001) list were reported by Lamb, Astui and Hadisantosa (2017) in Indonesia. Yet this study also reported one additional strategy: strategic use of L1/L2 being frequently used.

3.1.3. Section Summary

Taking together all the literature reviewed above, one research gap that can be identified concerns the research context. Within the large body of studies systematically reviewed by Li and Keller (2018), Stroet, Opdenakker and Minnaert (2013), and Lamb (2017), little attention has been paid to online L2 classrooms. The only exception (Kurt and Keçik, 2017) was an intervention study. What remained unknown was teachers' MotS in naturally occurring online L2 classes. As indicated in RQ1, this was one particular gap this study intended to address,.

Moreover, as illustrated throughout the discussion above, none of the MotS lists were universally effective across all contexts. Yet as the research focus has been on classifying and evaluating teachers' motivating behaviours, little was known about teachers' thinking processes behind their MotS practices. As repeatedly argued by researchers in recent years, research on MotS from teachers' perspectives was urgently needed to understand how MotS lists are translated into effective classroom practices (e.g. Lamb, 2017, 2019; Ushioda, 2016; Hennebry-Leung, 2020). This study therefore made an attempt to respond to these calls. Lamb (2017) argued that in order to recognise the complexities of teachers' mental lives, this line of studies would need to engage with literature on teacher cognition, The following section, therefore, will provide a review on relevant teacher cognition literature.

3.2. Teacher cognition

Teacher cognition research is defined as 'inquiry which seeks, with reference to their personal, professional, social, cultural and historical contexts, to understand teachers' minds and emotions and the role these play in the process of becoming, being and developing as a teacher' (Borg, 2019, p.1153). The following section will first briefly outline in general, how language teacher cognition has been studied ontologically (3.2.1). It will then narrow the focus to literature that has shed lights on influential factors of teachers' MotS decisions (3.2.2). Finally, 3.2.3 summarises all the literature discussed in this section.

3.2.1 The ontological positions in teacher cognition research

According to Burns, Freeman and Edwards (2015), recent years have witnessed a shift from cognitive perspectives to holistic social positions in studying the minds of language teachers. Borg (2019) explained that some early research informed by a cognitivist paradigm has focused

solely on identifying cognitive structures that are isolated from the context of teachers' practices. Holistic social perspectives, on the other hand, study teacher cognition as 'emergent sense making in action' that happens in 'the contexts of participation in practice' (Kubanyiova and Feryok, 2015, p.436).

Based on such holistic social perspectives, it is now recognised that teachers' inner lives encompass not only previously widely studied mental constructs such as beliefs (e.g. Phipp and Borg, 2009; Skott, 2015), knowledge (e.g. Abdelhafez, 2014; Goodwin, 2010), experiences (e.g. Mansfield and Volet, 2010), but also socio-emotional factors such as identity (e.g. Burri, Chen and Baker, 2017; Hogg, 2006; Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop, 2004) and emotion (e.g. Miller and Gkonou, 2018). Studies drawing upon sociocultural theories illustrated that teachers' minds are shaped not only by the immediate classroom environment, but also wider social, cultural, and historical contexts (e.g. Ngo, 2018). Furthermore, Drawing upon a complex dynamic theoretic perspective (Larsen-Freeman, 2007), a number of studies have also revealed how that language teaching practices incorporate dynamic relationships among fluid psychological states and changing external contextual conditions (e.g. Burns and Knox, 2011; Kiss, 2012; Karimi and Nazari, 2019).

The present study also attempted to explore teacher cognition on MotS from a holistic social perspective that is compatible with current trends in language teacher cognition scholarship. In particular, Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) recommended that the conceptual scope of language teacher cognition research should not to be fully pre-determined, but be allowed to emerge from the research process. Following this recommendation, RQ2 used broad terms 'internal factors' and 'external factors' to frame the research focus, allowing the complexity of teachers' mental lives to be captured through the research process.

3.2.2 Internal and external factors

A search for teacher cognition research on MotS generated limited results, echoing Lamb's (2017, 2019) claim that this was an under-researched topic. Several studies did shed lights on potential internal and external factors that may influence teachers' MotS practices, although many of them did not acknowledge adopting a teacher cognition perspective. The following section will critically review these studies in detail.

Teacher beliefs, broadly defined as consciously or unconsciously held evaluative propositions that are accepted as true (Borg, 2001), seem to be the focus of existing research. Several quantitative studies examined teacher beliefs about the importance/effectiveness of MotS by asking them to rate strategies on Dornyei's (2001) list (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007 in Taiwan; Guilloteaux, 2013 in South Korea; Ruesch, Brown and Dewey, 2012 in America; Alrabai, 2014 in Saudi Arabia). Differences in teachers' MotS rankings across countries were assumed to be the results of culture differences. For example, Cheng and Dornyei (2007) found that compared to teachers in Hungary (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998), teachers in Taiwan believed appreciating students' efforts to be more crucial, and creating interesting classes to be less important. Such differences were attributed to the Confucian culture which emphasises learning being serious and hard work (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007). Overall, the cross-cultural differences revealed in these studies show that not all MotS seem to be of the same value to all teachers in all contexts.

In addition to showing culture influences, the studies above also found that teacher-reported beliefs were not always in congruence with their self-reported frequencies of using Dörnyei's (2001) strategies. Several discrepancies were reported, and they were speculated to be the results of external constraints. For example, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) suspected pressure from high-stake testing and exhausting institutional administrative demands as explanations for the underutilisation of strategies related to personal care in Taiwan, while Guilloteaux (2013) cited the prevalence of multiple choice questions as a possible cause for the underuse of the strategies to neutralise student mistakes in South Korea.

These findings signify the importance of examining the internal and external domains in a holistic manner in order to fully understand teachers' MotS practices. However, one obvious limitation is that in these studies, contextual influences were speculated by the researchers rather than being perceived by the teachers. This issue might be especially problematic considering teacher cognition literature has shown that even the same external factor may be perceived differently by individual teachers and consequently result in different practices (Sanchez and Borg, 2014). Furthermore, as argued by Lamb (2017), since the items in these surveys were based on researchers' conceptualisations of MotS, it is unknown whether they represent teachers' own understandings.

A few studies on teacher beliefs about motivation itself (as opposed to MotS) throw lights on teachers' own understandings (e.g. Cowie and Sakui, 2012; Lee, 2015; Chen and Vibulphol,

2019). Cowie and Sakui (2011) explored Japanese University EFL teachers' beliefs about motivation and their MotS practices based on data from an open-ended survey and follow-up interviews. It was found that the teachers believed motivation to be related to diverse types of interests, goals, attitudes and effort, and their MotS practices corresponded closely with these beliefs. Although not being the focus of Cowie and Sakui's (2011) study, it was also reported that the teachers justified their beliefs in relation to their own L2 learning experiences and their professional learning about motivational theories. These findings echo Borg's (2003, 2006) conceptualisation of prior experiences being sources of teacher cognition, highlighting that experiential factors may also influence teachers' MotS.

Lee (2015) and Chen and Vibulphol (2019) also explored teacher beliefs about motivation in interviews, yet both studies found teacher beliefs to be a somewhat insignificant factor in determining their self-reported or observed MotS. Teachers from both studies referred to a range of common external factors as constraints, including, for example, large class size, prescribed curriculum, limited preparation time, students' preference for a teacher-centred style, and students' poor academic performance (Lee, 2015; Chen and Vibulphol, 2019). On the positive side, these two studies offered more concrete data on influential external factors that were recognised by teachers. However, it is worth noting that in these two studies, as well as the large scale quantitative studies mentioned before, the external context was always described negatively as constraints. It remains unclear whether and what external factors may facilitate teachers' adoption of MotS.

The limited focus on constraining factors was also evident in Sakui and Cowie's (2012) study, where an open-ended questionnaire was administrated to teachers from over 100 universities in Japan to explore all possible constraining factors on teachers' MotS. In addition to beliefs (e.g. the belief that motivation is static; it is not teachers' responsibility to motivate) and contextual constraints (e.g. large class sizes), the teacher participants also reported their own perceived lack of knowledge to intervene for motivation as a crucial limiting factor. This finding highlights that cognitive factors other than belief may also shape MotS, although the study itself is limited in showing what and how teacher knowledge may support MotS.

Two correlational studies in Iran (Nosratinia and Moradi, 2017; Karimi and Nikbakht, 2019) reported a significant and positive correlation between teachers' self-reported frequencies of using Dörnyei's (2001) MotS and their self-efficacy, defined in social cognitive theory as

'people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances' (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). These studies highlight that how teachers regulate the multiple influential factors of MotS, and whether they judge themselves as capable of doing it also worth exploration.

Kubanyiova's (2009, 2012) longitudinal mixed methods study evaluated the impact of a teacher development programme based on Dornyei's (2001) framework. This study contributes two interesting insights about the influential factors of MotS. First, it introduced two socio-emotional factors that were unmentioned by the other studies reviewed in this section: (1) possible selves/identities, defined as the individual's 'conceptions of the self in future states' (Markus and Nurius, 1986), and (2) emotions. Second, it illustrated that whether a teacher implemented the reform message (i.e. implementing MotS) was determined by the interaction of a range of factors. For example, it was illustrated that for some teachers, negative emotions arose from the dissonance between their ideal identities and those promoted in the training course, when in interplay with internal (existing knowledge, beliefs and self-efficacy) and contextual factors (students' expectations and unsupportive system), hindered their conceptual change and MotS adoption (Kubanyiova, 2012). These findings provide a more holistic understanding on the mechanisms of how multiple factors may shape MotS. However, as Kubanyiova's (2009, 2012) study focused on teacher change, it remained unclear how multiple factors may work jointly to shape MotS in naturalistic settings.

3.2.3. Section Summary

Albeit rather limited, existing literature has revealed a range of potential influential factors of MotS, including beliefs, knowledge, self-efficacy, identity and emotion. However, several gaps remained:

First, previous research's interests in external factors seem to be restricted to their constraining effects. As a result, little is known about what other roles external factors may play and how they may be filtered by teacher cognition. Second, given that general language teacher cognition literature has indicated the significant role of knowledge in teachers' adoption of teaching techniques (e.g. Abdelhafez, 2014), it seems striking that little to no effort has been made to systematically understand teachers' knowledge related to MotS. Finally, the impacts of the interaction among multiple influential factors have been hinted at by research on teacher

change (e.g. Kubanyiova, 2012). However, existing research on MotS in naturalistic settings has either focused on the interaction between two categories of factors (e.g. Lee, 2015 on beliefs and external factors); or listing multiple factors without exploring the interaction among them (e.g. Sakui and Cowie, 2012). A holistic and situated understanding on the interaction among multiple factors seem to be missing. These are the particular gaps that the present study aimed to fulfil.

CHAPTER 4. Methodology

In order to address the gaps identified in previous literature, this study adopted a qualitative case study design, drawing upon multiple sources of data from Class Observations (COs), Stimulated-Recall Interviews (SRIs) and Semi-Structured Interviews (SSIs). In this chapter, the qualitative research approach and the case study design will first be justified in section 4.1 and 4.2 respectively. This is followed by a description of the sampling method and the profiles of the two teacher participants (4.3). The bulk of the chapter then justifies the specific data collection (4.4) and data analysis methods (4.5). This chapter ends with a discussion on the techniques that were deployed to address trustworthiness issues (4.6) and potential ethical risks (4.7).

4.1 Research approach

The study adopted a qualitative approach where non-numerical data were collected and analysed in an interpretative manner (Heigham and Croker, 2009). The research aims played a key role in guiding this choice. As discussed before, this study aimed to understand the complexities involved in teachers' decision making processes behind their use of MotS, rather than providing statistical representations of phenomena.

This choice was also influenced by my own ontological and epistemological stances. I echo ontological positions which suggest that 'truth' is not objective but is 'socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world' (Merriam, 2002, p. 3). I also adhere to the epistemological position that knowledge is co-constructed in social interactions between the researcher and the participants (Creswell, 2013). Both positions are associated with qualitative research traditions (ibid).

4.2. Research Design

Case study is generally defined as an intensive investigation into one or multiple relatively bounded units (Gerring, 2007). In this study, two L2 teachers constituted the two bounded cases. These two cases were situated within the same research site: City Lights. Such a design was referred to by Creswell (2013) as a within-site, multiple-cases design.

As argued by Yin (2017), case studies are well-suited for research that aims to generate rich data from multiple sources to understand phenomena in their natural context of occurrence. Such a rationale aligns well with the aims of this study to provide an in-depth understanding of teachers' use of MotS and the factors that influence their decisions in a naturally occurring OLE.

Richards (2011) distinguishes different types of case studies in terms of their orientation, case type and number of cases. In terms of orientation, this study was *instrumental* (p. 209), meaning that by focusing on the two cases, I hoped to shed lights on teachers' cognition on MotS in general. In terms of case type, the study was both *descriptive* and *explanatory* (p. 211). RQ1 was mainly descriptive as it aimed to describe MotS in an OLE, while RQ2 was mainly explanatory as it aimed to explain how factors may explain teachers' choice and use of MotS. In terms of number of cases, this study chose to have *multiple cases* in order to allow for 'a logic of replication' (Yin, 2017, p.56) where similarities and differences between cases can be explored.

4.3 Sampling and participants

4.3.1. Sampling

Convenience sampling strategy, where a sample is drawn based on its accessibility to the researcher (Bryman, 2016), was adopted in selecting the research site and the participants. At the site level, City Lights was chosen not only because of its relevance to the RQs (i.e. they had a group of L2 teachers who taught in an OLE), but also because I had personal connections with the institution. At the participant level, the two teacher participants were recruited because they responded timely to the research request and indicated consent.

One obvious drawback of convenience sampling is that this sample might not be representative of all L2 teachers who work in an OLE. However, as stated by Heigham and Croker (2009, p.38), qualitative researchers often move from 'representative sample' to 'generalisable findings'. By providing thick descriptions of the research context (Chapter 2) and the research participants (4.3.2 and 4.3.3), it was hoped that generalisation of findings to similar contexts can be made. For example, to other language schools that provide IELTS preparation courses in China.

4.3.2 Participant 1 - Lydia

The first participant, Lydia, was a teacher of beginner level IELTS listening and speaking classes at City Lights. She has been teaching at City Lights for just over a year.

According to Lydia, she has been living, studying and teaching in Anhui ever since she was born in 1991. Being a native speaker of Mandarin, Lydia began to learn English at primary school. Lydia recalled that encouragements from her primary school English teacher gave her a strong motivation for learning English and even for becoming an English teacher herself. With this strong passion, Lydia then majored in English Education at a local university, where she learnt about English teaching and learning. During her study she also obtained Teacher's Qualification Certificate (TQC), a qualification that is a pre-requisite for teaching at public schools in mainland China. After completing her undergraduate degree, Lydia taught English at a local junior high school for three years, and then joined City Lights because she considered it as providing a better work-life balance than public schools.

4.3.3 Participant 2 - Susan

The second participant, Susan, was responsible for teaching beginner and intermediate level IELTS classes at City Lights. She specialised for teaching writing, but also taught reading classes when required.

Susan was born in Anhui in the 1980s and she began learning English at junior high school. Susan recalled that she was not good at English at the beginning, but her strong desire to make her parents proud of her achievements sustained her motivation. Susan completed her undergraduate degree at the same local university as Lydia, but she majored in Journalism. Following her family's suggestion, after graduation Susan perused a Master's degree in Media Practice at a university in Australia, and then worked as a TV channel director in Australia for two years.

Susan first developed her interests in English teaching when she was informally invited to tutor English learners known to her family during holidays. Susan suggested that she enjoyed the teaching experience throughout, which motivated her to have a career change. Susan came

back to Anhui seven years ago. She gained her TQC by self-study and then worked at a local college for six years before joining City Lights last year. Susan suggested she gained her knowledge about English teaching mainly through reading relevant books and observing other teachers' practices.

4.4 Data collection

Following the convention in case study research (Yin, 2017), multiple sources of data were collected. The following sub-sections will justify each data collection method in detail, including COs and SRIs, which were the primary data collection tools in this study; and different types of SSIs, which provided additional information for triangulation. Table 1 below presents a summary of the data collection process in chronological order. The observation and interview protocols can be found in Appendix 1.

Data collection instrument & timing	Description
Semi-structured background interviews (BIs) 1st and 2nd June, 2020	• 2 BIs were conducted with Lydia and Susan individually via Wechat, each BI lasted for about 40 minutes. BIs were mainly in Mandarin but the participants also used some English expressions. • **Aims**: (1) building rapport with the participants; (2) understanding participants' personal history and their perceptions of the current context (RQ2); and (3) eliciting teachers' general reflections on the motivational dimension of teaching (RQ1 & 2). • Prior to BIs, participants were given an activity called 'Tree of Life' (Merryfield, 1993), where they were invited to describe their personal, educational and professional history using the diagram of a tree. Such a procedure was chosen in order to discuss what were really relevant to the teachers in the BI. • BIs were audio recorded for analysis.
Class Observations (COs) Between 5th and 22th June, 2020	• 8 classes, 4 from Lydia and 4 from Susan were observed. Each class lasted for 2 hours, with a 10-15 minutes break in the middle. COs happened on Tencent QQ. • **Aims:** (1) observing MotS practices in naturally occurring situations (RQ1), (2) providing critical incidents for teacher cognitions to be further explored in SRI (RQ2).

	• Two of the observed classes of Lydia were on listening, one was on speaking. One class involved teaching on listening in the first hour and reading in the second. All classes were beginner level. • Three of the observed classes of Susan were on writing, one class was on reading. Three classes were beginner level and one was inter-mediate level • All classes were delivered in an audio-only manner except for one of Susan's class– the student preferred video chatting. • COs were recorded by (1) me taking notes during the observations and (2) audio recordings, which was later used for SRI and for data analysis
Stimulated-recall interviews (SRIs) Between 5th and 22th June, 2020	• 4 individual interviews with each teacher, 8 interviews in total. Interview length ranged from 30 to 60 minutes. SRIs were conducted via Wechat. SRIs were mainly in Mandarin but the participants also used some English expressions. • **Aim**: eliciting teachers' introspective and retrospective reflections (RQ2) • The teachers were invited to first identify time-slots where they can do SRIs, and the CO sessions were then arranged on the same day prior to SRIs. This procedure was used to allow the teachers' schedules to be appreciated, and also to ensure the gaps between COs and SRIs were no longer than a day. • SRIs were audio recorded for analysis
Semi-structured follow-up interviews (FIs) 18th June and 24th June, 2020	• 2 FIs were conducted with Lydia and Susan individually via Wechat, each FI lasted for about 20 minutes. SRIs were mainly in Mandarin but the participants also used some English expressions. • **Aims**: (1) allowing the teachers to add on any MotS that they used in their current context, but did not appear in the limited number of COs made (RQ1); (2) discussing further issues generated from initial analysis (RQ1 & 2); and (3) gaining insights into the influences of this research project on teachers' thoughts and practices (RQ2) • SRIs were audio recorded for analysis
Semi-structured interview 26th June, 2020	• One semi-structured interview with the director of the English teaching department was conducted. The interview lasted for about 20 minutes. • **Aim:** gaining insights into the institutional context in order to triangulate with data provided by the two participants (RQ2) • The interview was audio recorded for analysis

Table 1. Overview of data collection

4.4.1 COs

COs are considered central to the study because they can generate data describing teachers' use of MotS in naturally occurring situations (i.e. answers to RQ1), and providing 'a concrete descriptive basis' (Borg, 2006, p. 231) that can be used in SRI to further explore teacher cognition (i.e. answers to RQ2).

I adopted the role of a non-participant observer (Curdt-Christiansen, 2019), which means during the online classes I switched off my camera and microphone, and did not participate in class interactions. This choice was made to minimise my influences on teachers' naturally occurring MotS practices. My role in COs was overt, meaning that both the teacher and the student were aware of my existence and my intention for collecting data for research. Bryman (2016) suggested that overt observation might create social desirability bias, meaning that the participants might behave in a socially desirable way and therefore making the observed behaviours less authentic. I tried to minimise this problem by openly disclose to the teachers and the students that the purpose of this study was not to judge their behaviours, and that data collected from them would be kept confidential.

The COs were semi-structured (Cohen Manion and Morrison, 2013). To elaborate, while the COs were guided by the MOLT scheme (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008), I also paid attention to other potentially motivating teaching acts, especially those related to teachers' comments made in BIs. This design was chosen because it (1) allowed the observation to have a concrete focus on the motivational dimension of teaching, and (2) allowed the freedom for additional MotS to emerge. The second point was considered desirable because previous research has reported MotS outside Dörnyei's (2001) framework (e.g. Henry et al., 2018).

4.4.2 SRIs

SRI is a method where audio or video stimuli are used to prompt participants' commentaries on their interactive thoughts at the time of action and/or their reflections on the factors that influenced their thoughts retrospectively (Sanchez and Grimshaw, 2020). In this study, in order to provide a holistic perspective on all potentially influential factors of MotS, SRIs were used to explore both introspective and retrospective reflections.

Several key features of the SRIs in this study are justified here. First, following Gass and Mackey's (2017) suggestion, audio recordings of the classes and class materials were used in combination to strengthen the stimuli. Second, in this study main critical incidents were selected by the teachers. Incidents identified by MOLT (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008) were only presented at the end of SRI when no more motivational episodes can be identified by the teachers. The decision to mainly use teacher-identified critical incidents was made mainly because this study aimed to explore teachers' conceptualisations of MotS. Furthermore, as argued by Sanchez and Grimshaw (2020), involving participants in the selection of critical incidents could also promote participant agency and satisfaction. Third, in order to generate rich qualitative data on the participants' sense-making process, the SRIs followed a semi-structured format, with the specific follow-up questions being formed based on each episode and teachers' particular responses. Finally, Gass and Mackey (2017) argued that prolonged time gaps between COs and SRIs might result in memory decay and therefore threat the validity of data collected. In this study the time gaps between COs and SRIs were no longer than a day (see procedure in Table 1).

4.4.3. SSIs

As shown in Table 1, in addition to the two primary data collection instruments, several semi-structured interviews were also conducted to achieve various aims. All of these interviews were conducted in a semi-structured format so that they were fairly focused, but also allowed interesting aspects emerged from the discussion to be further explored (Borg, 2006). The practical guidance provided by Bryman (2016) was followed in conducting these interviews, which includes, for example, avoiding leading questions and being an active listener during interviews.

4.5 Data analysis

Thematic analysis is generally defined as a method for 'identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within data' (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 79). While there are many different approaches to conduct thematic analysis, this study chose an abductive approach, which means moving back and forth between inductive and deductive logics in searching for the most plausible answers for the RQs (Tavory and Timmermans, 2014). In particular, the steps described by Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) were followed and the details of these steps are summarised in Table 2 below.

Analysis steps	Description
Transcribing	• The critical incidents in COs and all interviews were transcribed verbatim. A sample transcription can be found in Appendix 2. • The main language used in the COs and interviews was Mandarin. Throughout the analysis process data were kept in Mandarin in order to avoid the potential loss of meanings in translation.
Developing the code manual	• Two templates were developed according to the RQs and previous literature: • The first is Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy of MotS, which was chosen for its comprehensiveness and clarity of presentation. This template is related to RQ1. • The second is a collection of concepts based on previous teacher cognition literature (see section 3.2). This template is related to RQ2.
Summarising data and identifying initial codes	• This step involved reading, re-reading and summarising the raw data that appeared to be relevant to the RQs. • Memo was also written to collect my interpretations of each code as well as the relationships among codes.
Applying the code manual and additional coding	• Codes from the manual were compared to my own initial codes for refinements to be made. • Analysis at this stage was guided, but not confined by the code manual. Some codes from the manual appeared to provide a good representation of my data and they were adopted. But I also identified additional codes that were either separated from the predetermined ones or they expanded a code from the manuals. These data-driven codes were kept alongside the pre-determined ones. Existing literature on MotS and teacher cognition was referred to in order to refine these codes.
Connecting the codes and identifying themes	• This stage involved connecting codes and discovering themes and patterns in the data. • Similarities and differences between different groups of data and different cases were examined at this stage. • Tables and diagrams were also made at this stage to help make the connections and relationships between codes clearer.
Corroborating and legitimating coded themes	• At this stage the primarily identified themes were further clustered and also scrutinised to ensure that the finalised themes are representative of the initial analysis, and are relevant to the RQs. • The analysis included iterative processes, as I went back to previous stages and revisited the texts, codes, themes.

Table 2. Overview of data analysis (adapted from Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006, with the stage 'transcribing' being added)

An exclusively deductive analysis was rejected considering that Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) have argued for not fully determining the conceptual scope of teacher cognition in advance. The limitation of an exclusively inductive logic, however, is that it can only provide incomplete support for a general rule, due to a limited number of observations that can be made in one case study (Tavory and Timmermans, 2014). It would also go against Borg's (2006, 2019)

advocation for clear psychological concepts to be used in teacher cognition research. Therefore, the abductive analysis approach was considered to be the most suitable solution to address the RQs.

4.6 Research Quality

The quality of this study was examined according to Lincoln and Guba's (1985) concept of trustworthiness, which has been commonly used for qualitative studies (Heigham and Croker, 2009). There are four components of trustworthiness and each of them were addressed in this study using various tactics.

The first component, credibility, establishes whether the research findings represent participants' original data and is a reasonable interpretation of the data (Cho and Trent, 2006). One tactic advocated by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) to ensure credibility is member checking, which was realised in this study by returning the transcripts and my translations of CO scenarios and interview extracts to the participants, so that any possible misreports could be identified and addressed. Another tactic was triangulation. As illustrated in earlier sections in this chapter, the design of this study allowed for both methodological (across different methods) and data (across the two teacher participants and the director) triangulation. Triangulation helps ensure credibility because the final interpretations can be supported by convergent lines of evidences (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2007).

Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts (Cho and Trent, 2006). As discussed in 4.3.1, thick description was one strategy used to facilitate generalisations to similar contexts. In addition, according to Yin (2017), using theoretical concepts in data analysis (as it has been done in the abductive thematic analysis) also facilitates transferability, because the abstract theoretical concepts developed from the data might be applicable to a wider population beyond the particular study.

The third component, dependability, refers to the stability of data over time (Heigham and Croker, 2009). One tactic that can be used to achieve dependability is keeping an audit trail where the research steps are described adequately, therefore an independent reviewer can check or replicate the research inquiry (ibid). In this study, the use of this tactic is indicated by the transparent descriptions of the research decisions and activities in this chapter, and the use of

critical incidents and participants quotations to support my interpretations in the Findings chapter.

Finally, confirmability is concerned with establishing that interpretations of the findings are derived from the data rather than imagined by the researcher (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In addition to using an audit trail which allows my subjective interpretations to be checked, Bryman (2016) suggests that peer examination also strengthens confirmability because it helps the researcher to be honest about the findings and to further scrutinise his/her own assumptions. Following this suggestion, the research process and summaries of findings were openly shared and discussed with my supervisor in supervision meetings.

4.7 Ethical considerations

While a full description on the ethical procedures can be found in Appendix 3, this section discusses three sets of issues that seem particularly crucial: informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, and benefits and risks.

4.7.1. Informed consent

BERA (2018) refers to gaining informed consents from participants as a normal expectation in any research involving human. In this study informed consent was first gained from the director who was the 'gatekeeper' of the research site (Bryman, 2017, p. 452). All potential participants were then invited to an online meeting where I explained the research purpose and procedure, the voluntary nature of participation, the rights to withdraw and data protection procedures in detail. Written information sheets and consent forms were also sent to them (Appendix 4). Lydia and Susan indicated their consents verbally at the end of the meeting and also digitally signed the consent form.

4.7.2. Confidentiality and anonymity

The confidential and anonymous treatment of participants' data is considered the norm for the conduct of research (BERA, 2018). Following BERA's (2018) recommendations, pseudonyms were given to the institution and the teachers so that they are not identifiable in this dissertation.

Furthermore, Hammersley and Traianou (2012) suggest that the concern with protecting confidentiality also extends to the storage of data, as confidentiality can be breached if data are not securely stored. A number of strategies recommended by Bryman (2016) were used in order to avoid this potential issue, including encrypting data files on a password-protected laptop, not including participants' real names on transcripts, and storing interview records, transcripts, and participants' contact details separately.

4.7.3. Benefits and risks

BERA (2018) emphasises that all social research should aim to maximise benefit and minimise harm. In terms of benefits, considering previous research has acknowledged SRI as a powerful means of promoting reflective practices (e.g. Walsh and Mann, 2015), the participants in this study might benefit from participating in such practices.

In terms of risks, it was recognised that some interview questions might probe some sensitive or private issues that would cause psychological distress for the participants. To address this issue, The participants were informed that they were free to refuse to respond to questions during the interviews without giving a reason. Another potential harm was that the time commitment required in the study might intervene with the participants' teaching schedule and causing inconvenience. To counter these undesirable effects, participants were given chances to choose the time-slots for interviews themselves, and to make modifications on the research plan if necessary. Finally, all data was collected online to minimise potential harm to both the researcher and the participants under the pandemic at the time of data collection.

CHAPTER 5. Findings

This chapter presents findings generated from all data sources. Section 5.1 and 5.2 discuss findings from Lydia's and Susan's case in turn. In each section, the teacher' practices of MotS are presented in groups according to their shared pedagogical implications for student motivation, as recognised by Lydia and Susan. Due to the limited space, teachers' rationale for only one critical incident from each group will be discussed in detail in order to illustrate how multiple factors may interact to shape practices in a situated manner. Section 5.3 presents a brief summary of findings from the two cases.

5.1. Lydia

5.1.1. Making learning stimulating

> 'motivation comes from interesting classes. In the classroom – which is teachers' territory, it's without doubt teachers' responsibility to make learning stimulating.' (BI)

Lydia's statement above clearly shows her belief about stimulating classes being a source of motivation, and her belief that it is teachers' responsibility to motivate. References to interestingness were also frequently made by Lydia in justifying the following three MotS:

MotS	Description
Social chatting	Having informal chats with the student on matters unrelated to the lesson. Lydia was observed to discuss everyday lives, future plans and the student's particular interests. All chats were initiated by Lydia. • Example: (chatting about student interests) After explaining the synonyms and collocations of 'heat', Lydia initiated a conversation about 'Miami Heat' (an American basketball team). The conversation lasted for 2'27'' and the student responded actively. (CO1)
Using humour	Teasing the student, herself, or the others (e.g. the character in the listening task, other students); using sarcasm, presenting funny hypothetical examples related to the scenarios in the listening task. • Example: (teasing + sarcasm) In a warm-up activity before listening, Lydia was observed to have the following conversation with the student: L: You need to imagine what she was trying to do. What was her job?

	St: Saleswoman L: Yes! So what she was trying to do? [...] Essentially, making the differences between advertisement and reality on Taobao [a popular online shopping site, known for having large, often funny differences between advertisement and reality]! [The student laughed] L: so do we trust her? St: [...] L: Of course, totally! [The student laughed] (CO3, L=Lydia, St=Student)
Using authentic materials	Using cultural artefacts that were produced for a purpose other than teaching • Example: At the beginning of her speaking class on the topic of food, Lydia presented the student with a fast food restaurant brochure (in English) to illustrate possible vocabulary for describing a favourite dish. The brochure was also used when Lydia modelled how to answer the question 'what's your favourite restaurant', and to prompt the students' thinking about healthy and unhealthy food. (CO4)

Table 3. Description of Lydia's MotS (5.1.1)

While recognising all three strategies as adding interestingness to the class, Lydia's rationale also revealed a range of other influential factors. Her justification for the use of social chatting in the critical incident shown in Table3 above seems to display a particularly rich array of factors.

To begin with, this incident appeared to be initiated by the interaction among Lydia's belief that class disengagement is indicative of low motivation level, her perception that the student was not paying attention, her self-efficacy at identifying student motivation (indicated by 'clear', 'apparently'), and her knowledge that 'spice up' the lesson can maintain student engagement and motivation:

> Usually I 'spice up' my lesson when the student is not engaging, which is a clear sign of lacking motivation […]. I'm not sure if you noticed but he has been really quiet for a while.

> Even when he occasionally responded, it was meaningless ‘en, en’. Apparently his mind was not with me. So I had to do something to ‘pull him back’ to my class. (SRI1)

Lydia’ justification further depicts a number of inter-related factors:

> Chatting comes handy because […] ‘heat’ reminded me he likes basketball […]. We had chatted a lot in previous classes, so... [laughs] I always think I’m more than a teacher to my students. to older students like him, I’m like their big sister; and to younger ones, I’m like their mother. […]. […], I know chatting is not really teaching but I personally think, […] when […] we used the word in context, I can help him better memorise the word - ‘heat’ is a high frequency word in IELTS so it’s worthwhile spending time emphasising it […] But I did make sure the chat did not last for too long, because it would had interrupted my teaching on other things. (SRI1)

This rationale shows that Lydia’s choice and use of chatting was further influenced by (1) three types of knowledge: knowledge about the student’s interests (informed by her prior experience with the student), her knowledge that ‘heat’ is a high frequency IELTS word, and her knowledge that chatting can help with memorisation (which is intertwined with her belief about learning that contextualisation helps with memorisation); (2) two types of perceptions on external factors: high frequency IELTS words were perceived to be worth emphasising, and time was perceived to be a constrain on the conversation length; and (4) her self-perceived identity as being more than a teacher to her students.

When being asked about how effective the use of chatting was in this incident, Lydia suggested that it was ‘quite effective’ (SRI1) because the student showed more engagements afterwards. This again indicates the influence of her belief that engagement is a sign of motivation.

Overall, the interaction among multiple factors in this incident is summarised in Figure2 below:

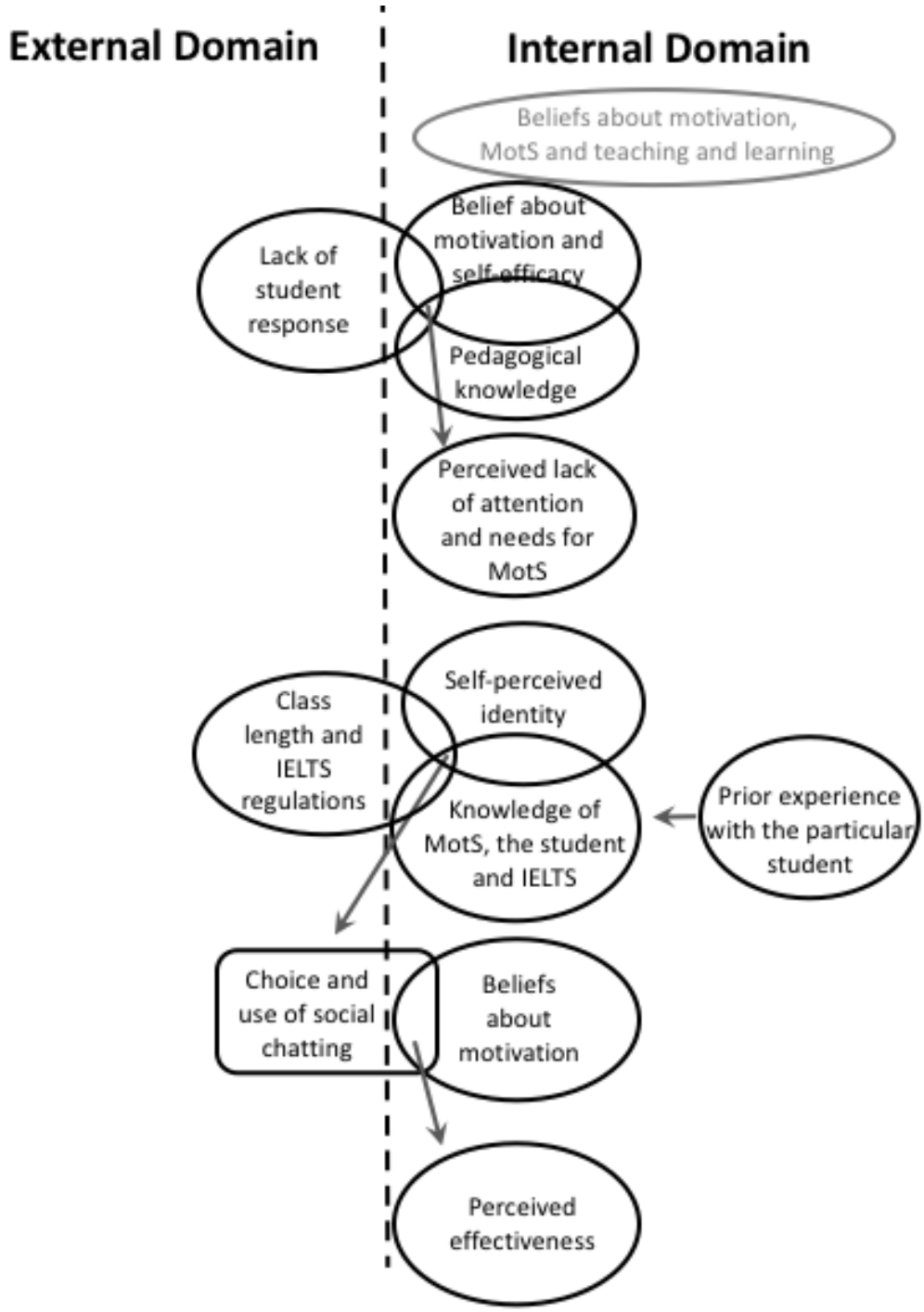

Figure 2. The interaction among multiple factors in Lydia's critical incident of *social chatting*

5.1.2. Enhancing English-related values and attitudes

Lydia described a positive attitude towards English as 'the stepping stone to motivation' (BI). She also perceived that many students at City Lights lack such positive attitudes, based on her prior teaching experiences:

> One might assume that because all students came here to improve their IETLS scores, to go abroad, […], they must love English, love foreign countries. But no. I have had students, so many of them, forced by their parents to go abroad to get 'gold-plated' while not seeing the value [of English/going abroad] themselves. Students who failed their college entrance exam, […] had no place to go but to seek opportunities abroad. […] It's for students like these that promoting a positive attitude [towards English] becomes especially important. (BI)

Lydia's verbal commentaries indicated the following three strategies as having implications for promoting English-related values and attitudes:

MotS	Description
Using an enthusiastic voice	Varying pitch, tone and volume during teaching to demonstrate passion and enthusiasm (All COs)
Giving examples of using English in real-life situations	Giving examples of how particular language items can be used in the student's everyday lives and his/her future study/work. • Example: When teaching the word 'deposit', Lydia explained how this word can be used when the student goes abroad and needs to open new bank accounts. Lydia described it as 'survival English'. (CO3)
Sharing positive English-related experiences	Using other students' experiences and own experiences to highlight the values related to English. • Example: In a speaking class about travel and holidays, Lydia first briefly mentioned how English helped her with her holiday in Thailand. She then talked about her former students' positive culture experiences when travelling in the UK. (CO2)

Table 4. Description of Lydia's MotS (5.1.2)

The first two strategies were observed in all COs and Lydia justified them in a confident manner. Taking using an *enthusiastic voice* as an example, Lydia gave the following justification:

> I personally think enthusiasm is contagious. I can instil a positive feeling for English in my students by demonstrating that enthusiasm myself. I can't really explain how I did that. I just have a very strong passion about English myself and that passion inevitably showed itself in my voice all the time. […] In those online classes I always vary my volume and

tone particularly obviously, because it's already very easy to be distracted when the teacher is not physically present, and we all know a flat voice makes it worse. (SRI1)

In this justification, Lydia's use of an enthusiastic voice appeared to be initiated by her emotion (i.e. 'strong passion'), and her pedagogical knowledge that showing this passion in her voice can promote positive attitudes towards English and maintain student attention in class. In particular, the online medium of the class, as an objective external factor, was subjectively perceived to be a threat to student's concentration level, which, together with her knowledge about the implications of using a flat voice, further shaped how she varied her voice particularly obviously online. In SRI1, Lydia further commented that in her free time, she routinely watched public online lectures to learn how other teachers teach, and she found the flat voice in some lectures especially disengaging. Therefore, her knowledge about a flat voice was probably influenced by her own professional learning experience. Overall, the interaction of multiple factors in Lydia's use of an enthusiastic voice is summarised in Figure3.

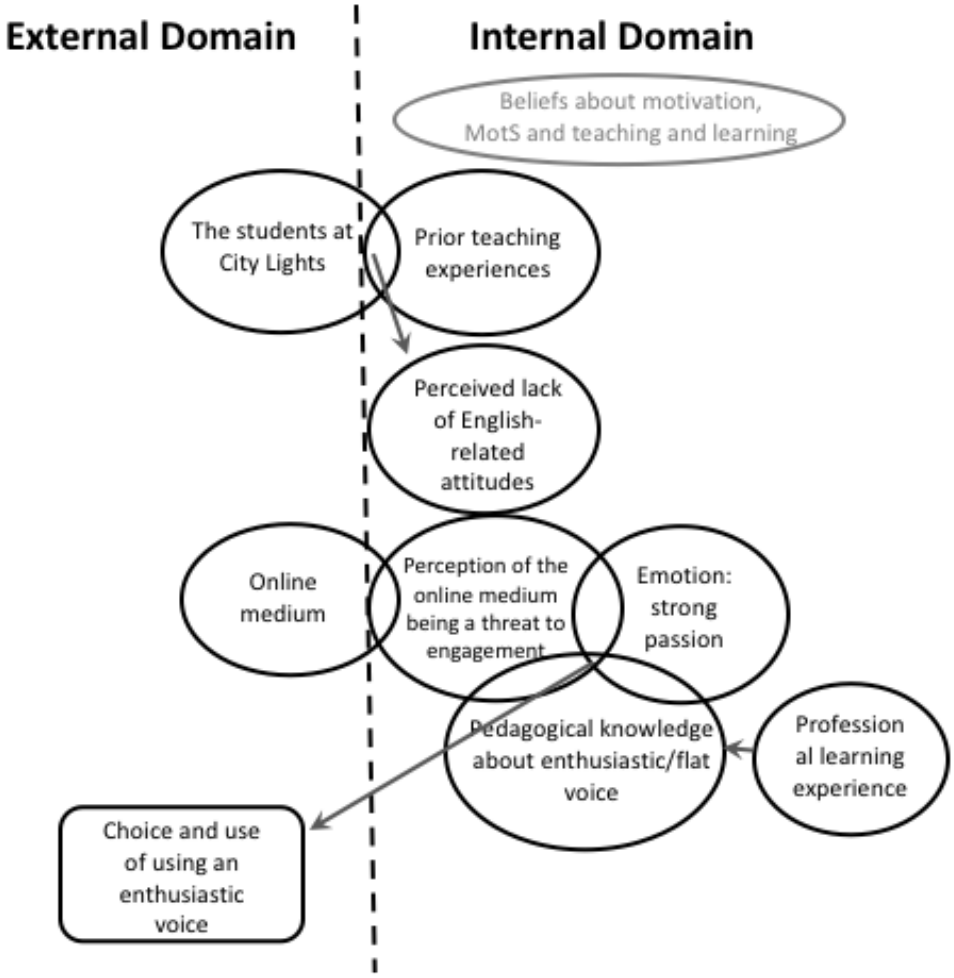

Figure 3. The interaction among multiple factors in Lydia's critical incident of *using an enthusiastic voice*

It was interesting to notice that the final strategy in Table4, *sharing positive English-related experiences*, was only used once in CO2, where Lydia explained that the student had shared negative views about English with her in their previous classes. Yet in FI, Lydia gave another reason for the overall low frequency of using this strategy: "it's probably my 'weak spot'. I'm the minority at this institution who has never studied abroad. Other teachers are in a better position to share more relevant experiences." This comment seems to indicate that Lydia's prior experience, when in interaction with her self-perceived identity at the particular institution, resulted in her relatively low efficacy at using this strategy. It was probably the combination of her perception of the student and her self-efficacy that explain the overall low frequency of using this strategy.

5.1.3. Maintaining a positive evaluation of the self

Lydia suggested that 'people are motivated to do things that make them feel good about themselves' (BI) and justified this belief by referring to her own L2 learning experience - Lydia vividly recalled how praising from her primary school English teacher built her positive sense of the self, and motivated her own English learning.

In SRIs, Lydia identified two strategies as having implications for student's senses of the self: praising can facilitate positive self-evaluation; and softening corrective feedback can avoid students' positive self-evaluation being threatened:

MotS	Description
Praising	Using both verbal and non-verbal (applause and emoji) approaches to praise the student. Verbal praises range from simple phrases like 'good job', to detailed complements to specific student behaviours. • Example: (detailed complements) Lydia made the following comments when she observed that the student did not make any spelling mistakes in a listening exercise: L: you are a little 'spelling expert' now aren't you? You see, if you make an effort, you can get what you want. XX [name of a teaching assistant] told me you were working really hard on the vocabulary list. Well done and keep going! (CO4)
	Informing the student that an answer is incorrect without direct error correction by using recasts, repetitions and jokes.

Softening corrective feedback	• Example: (joke – in combination with using humour) The student mistakenly mixed up 'kitchen' and 'chicken' in a conversation for several times. Lydia did not correct her directly but made a joke about 'kitchen' and 'chicken'. The student giggled and corrected herself. (CO2)

Table 5. Description of Lydia's MotS (5.1.3)

As shown in Table5, both strategies were realised in practice in several different ways. Lydia's justifications in SRIs showed that these different ways to enact MotS were related to her perceptions of the student.

Taking praising as an example, in CO3 Lydia was observed to use short phrases to praise the student for nearly every correct response, while in CO4 she provided less but more detailed complements. The scenario of praising in Table4 is an example of Lydia's detailed complements given in CO4. Lydia spontaneously referred back to her praising practices in CO3 when explaining why she gave the detailed complements in this particularly incident:

> What you witnessed in the previous class [CO3] was my bad habit. I always feel really happy whenever I see my student progress and… let's call it my instinct, to praise […] [name of the student in CO3] was a music teacher herself and she understood why I praised her. So it was fine simply praising her a lot. […] But he [the student in CO4] doesn't understand. If I hadn't made my purpose clear to him, it would make him […] feel too good about himself. […] Last time his teaching assistant told me he refused to do after-class dictation. […] he said: 'Lydia said I was already doing so well! […]' […] If he doesn't revise these words, he would forget them quickly! […] So […], I tried not to praise him too much. […] For him, explicitly explaining that I praised him for his effort is *very* important. (SRI4)

In this justification, Lydia's rationale seems to reflect a situated belief about the importance of a specific kind of praising for this particular student (as opposed to a general belief about the effectiveness of praising). Such a situated belief and the subsequent practices were shaped by the interaction among multiple factors, including Lydia's (1) perception that the student did not understand her purpose of praising, which was informed by her prior negative experience using praising; (2) beliefs that revision is needed for memorisation and that lack of effort is a

sign of demotivation, which informed how she evaluated her prior experience as being negative; and (3) pedagogical knowledge of using different types of praising. It seems to be the interaction among these factors that overweighted her initial happy emotion, driving her to use less frequent but more detailed praising for the particular student. The interaction among multiple factors in this incident is presented in Figure4.

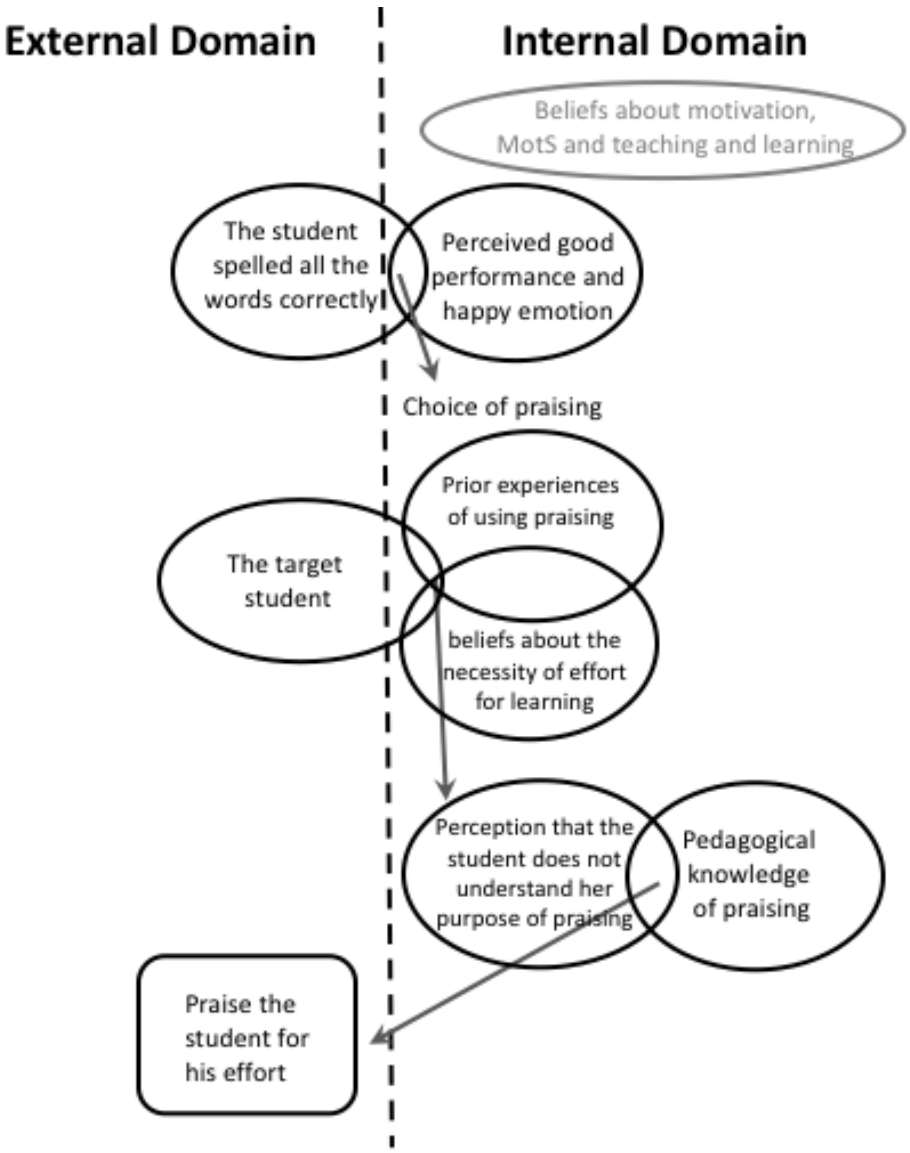

Figure 4. The interaction among multiple factors in Lydia's critical incident of *praising*

5.1.4. Facilitating feelings of being respected

While all the critical incidents discussed above were identified by Lydia in SRIs, one MotS listed on MOLT (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008) was observed in CO2 but was nonetheless not mentioned by Lydia in SRI:

MotS	Description
Involving the student in organising learning processes	Offering the student opportunities to make choices of class activities and determine the sequence of class activities. • Example: At the beginning of CO3 Lydia was observed to ask the student whether the student wants to do '2+1' for IELTS listening task1 or vocabulary exercises ['2+1' means the listening material is played twice with the transcript and teachers' explanations, and then once without transcript]. Lydia and the student had a short discussion, and together they decided to do the vocabulary exercise first, then only listen to task1 without transcript once, and then do '2+1' for task2.

Table 6. Description of Lydia's MotS (5.1.4)

When Lydia was asked to comment on this MotS, one immediately intriguing finding was her initial unawareness of its motivational implications:

L: You mean this is a motivational strategy?

IR: What do you think?

L: Um, No, I think it's not.

IR: Why not?

L: Because, she is a very motivated student. She always makes her own learning plans and takes control of her own learning. […] I let her decide because she might not find '2+1' necessary for IELTS listening task1. […] [2+1] is something teachers at this institution are set out to do for beginners but we can modify it based on students' learning preferences. […] I was just trying to use class time more efficiently. So you mean this was motivating for her?

Part 1

IR: Do you think it was motivating for her? It can be yes or no.

L: Um, I think, actually, yes. In a sense that she feels the teacher's respect on her choices and that builds up her motivation.

Part 2

(SRI3, L=Lydia; IR=Interviewer)

In the first part of the conversation, it seems that when Lydia initially made the decision to use this strategy, she was driven by her perception that the student was a motivated autonomous learner (possibly because of Lydia's prior experiences with the student, indicated by 'always'), her perceived freedom to arrange class activities, supported by institutional regulations, her perceived time constrain, and her pedagogical knowledge that involving the student in organising the learning process can meet the student's preferences. Yet motivating does not appear be part of her concerns, indicated clearly by her answer 'no, I think it's not'. The factors that influenced her decision is summarised in Figure5.

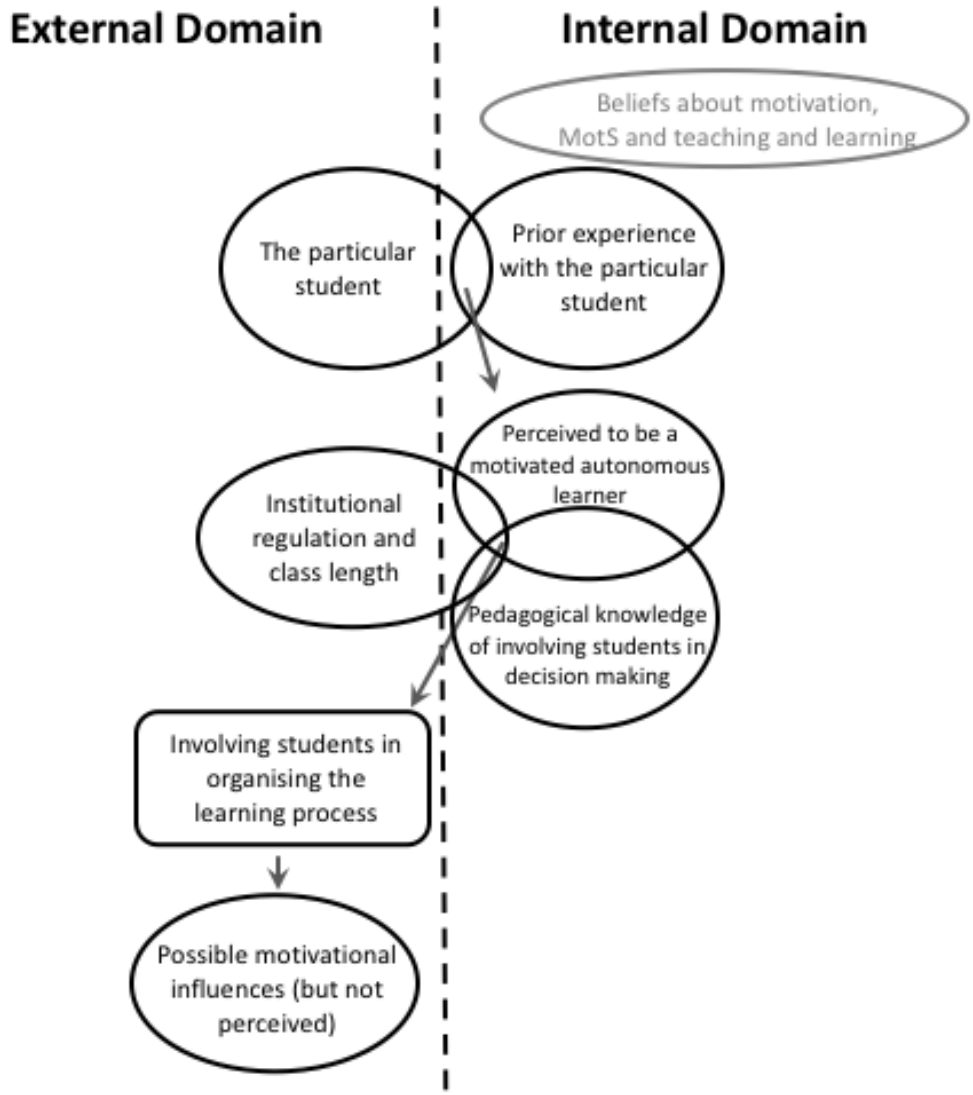

Figure 5. The interaction among multiple factors in Lydia's critical incident of *involving students in organising the learning process*

However, in the second part of the conversation, a new implication of this strategy was mentioned by Lydia, that is, teachers' respect reflected in this strategy can be motivating. This contrasting view to her previous 'no' answer seems to show that SRI, as an external factor,

exerted some influences on Lydia's cognition, allowed her to either realise tacitly held knowledge that she was not conscious of, or construct new knowledge about the implication of this strategy. Later in SRI3 Lydia spontaneously commented that she would consider using this strategy to motivate students in the future, but she would only use it with students who she perceived as having good self-regulation skills. This comment shows that even in the anticipated scenarios, Lydia combined her perception of the student and her pedagogical knowledge in implementing MotS. Interestingly in SRI3, Lydia also spontaneously commented that she found SRIs beneficial for 'better understand my teaching', and explained that when she first started to teach she actually used to record her lessons and reflect upon her decisions. Yet she stopped doing it when she gained more teaching experience. Lydia commented that SRIs made her want to re-engage with reflection because 'learning never ends' (SRI3).

5.2. Susan

5.2.1. Facilitating a sense of achievement

> 'motivation is the drive that keeps students learning. In my eyes, nothing drives students better than the feeling that they are achieving – even small progresses, they all keep the students going.' (BI).

Susan's definition of motivation appears to have a strong emphasis on senses of achievement. Aligning with this belief, Susan identified the following four strategies as motivating because of their implications for achievement feelings (Table7). For example, Susan stated that she selected materials of an appropriate level of difficulty because 'for sure the student is not going to achieve well if the material is too difficult' (BI); she used signposting in classes to 'indicate clearly to the student what he/she is going to achieve, and what he/she has achieved in class' (SRI1).

MotS	Description
Selecting materials of an appropriate level of difficulty	Selecting materials that are challenging but within the learner's reach based on the student's entrance exam results as well as his/her performance in previous classes. Example: Susan suggested that she deliberately chose a piece of high school reading material for an intermediate level student because she considered that IELTS Cambridge Practices (which are the institution's recommended materials for intermediate level learners) were too difficult for the student,

	based on her perception of the students' poor performance in previous classes. (CO1, SRI1)
Sequencing class activities from easy to hard	Sequencing class activities/tasks/exercises from easy to hard. Example: Susan suggested that she deliberately chose to present three IELTS writing line graph exercises from easy to hard in a class so that the student can more easily achieve. She suggested that she knew which exercise students are more likely to struggle with based on her prior experiences of teaching them. (CO4, SRI4)
Setting clear goals and revisiting them regularly	Using clear signposting to make the lesson objectives explicit and giving retrospective summaries of progress regularly. Revise the goals based on student performance. • Example: (in combination with praising) Susan was observed to give a clear overview of a writing class by presenting its main aims on a ppt slide, and by talking through the aims with the student. She also referred back to the slide when an aim was achieved, and praised the student for what he has achieved. (CO2)
Eliciting student responses	Using prompts, associations and reminders to get the students to provide information rather than giving it to them. • Example: (elicitation + praising) Susan was observed to elicit the vocabulary 'debate' from the student: S: It's something you see in American elections, […] it's something candidates do… St: Election? I'm not sure… S: It's also common in universities, you know those university societies? There are two groups of people, each group holds opposite opinions and they… St: That… that is… debate [in English]! S: Good, Well done [in English] (CO2, S=Susan, St=Student)

Table 7. Description of Susan's MotS (5.2.1)

In BI, Susan repeatedly referred to these strategies as her 'teaching routines', 'teaching habits', 'something that it's natural to do' or 'something I have always been doing without much thinking'. These comments seem to suggest that her previously accumulated teaching experiences might have automated her choice and use of these strategies. However, when being prompted by recordings of her own teachings in SRIs (especially from SRI2 onwards), Susan was able to articulate rich rationales for her decisions. In fact, Susan commented that she found

the research process helpful because 'they reminded me of details in teaching that I rarely consciously thought about.' (FI).

Susan's justification for the incident of *eliciting student responses* in Table7 above, for example, illustrated some detailed thoughts:

> Elicitation is an approach that I always favour. It gives students chances for 'small achievements' in classes and keeps their minds going. […] It also keeps the class interaction between the teacher and the student going, which is especially nice in a virtual environment. By 'virtual' I'm not saying it's not real, […] but it feels… distant. […] The only drawback with elicitation though, is that it takes time. The limited class time clearly doesn't allow me to elicit everything from the student so I had to be selective. (SRI2)

Three types of factors appear to be at play in this rationale, including (1) Susan's pedagogical knowledge that elicitation can facilitate feelings of achievement and maintain students' attention and engagement in class, and (2) her perception of external factors (i.e. the online medium creates feelings of 'distant', limited class time restricted her use of elicitation for everything) and (3) her belief about the importance of having class interactions

Later in SRI Susan further elaborated how her *selective* use of elicitation was influenced by her knowledge about the student (informed by her prior experience), about IELTS, and her knowledge about another implication of elicitation – it allows the teacher to monitor the student's progress. It seems to be the combination of all these knowledge areas that shaped how Susan elicited student responses in this particular incident:

> Usually I try to elicit things that I know is within the student's knowledge range, so he/she has a higher chance of success. […] We just talked about 'debate' in IELTS task2 last week, […] it's such a crucial word in IELTS so I thought it's a good chance to check whether he remembers. […] Talking about things like university debates, things that the student is familiar with [the particular learner is an university student], that's important too, for the student to be able to give the answer. (SRI2)

When being asked about how effective this strategy was in motivating the student, Susan suggested that it was effective in this particular incident because the student did succeed.

Interestingly, Susan also commented that even if the student failed to get the correct answer (which was indeed observed in other incidents), she thought it was still worthwhile using elicitation because 'you don't want a lesson full of motivation but without the student learning anything, do you? I think it's nice to use elicitation anyway, it probes the student to think deeper and remember better.' (SRI2). This comment further shows Susan's knowledge about the implication of elicitation, and also highlights that sometimes the implication for motivation was not even the primary reason that drove her to use this strategy. Overall, the interplays of abovementioned factors are summarised in Figure6 below:

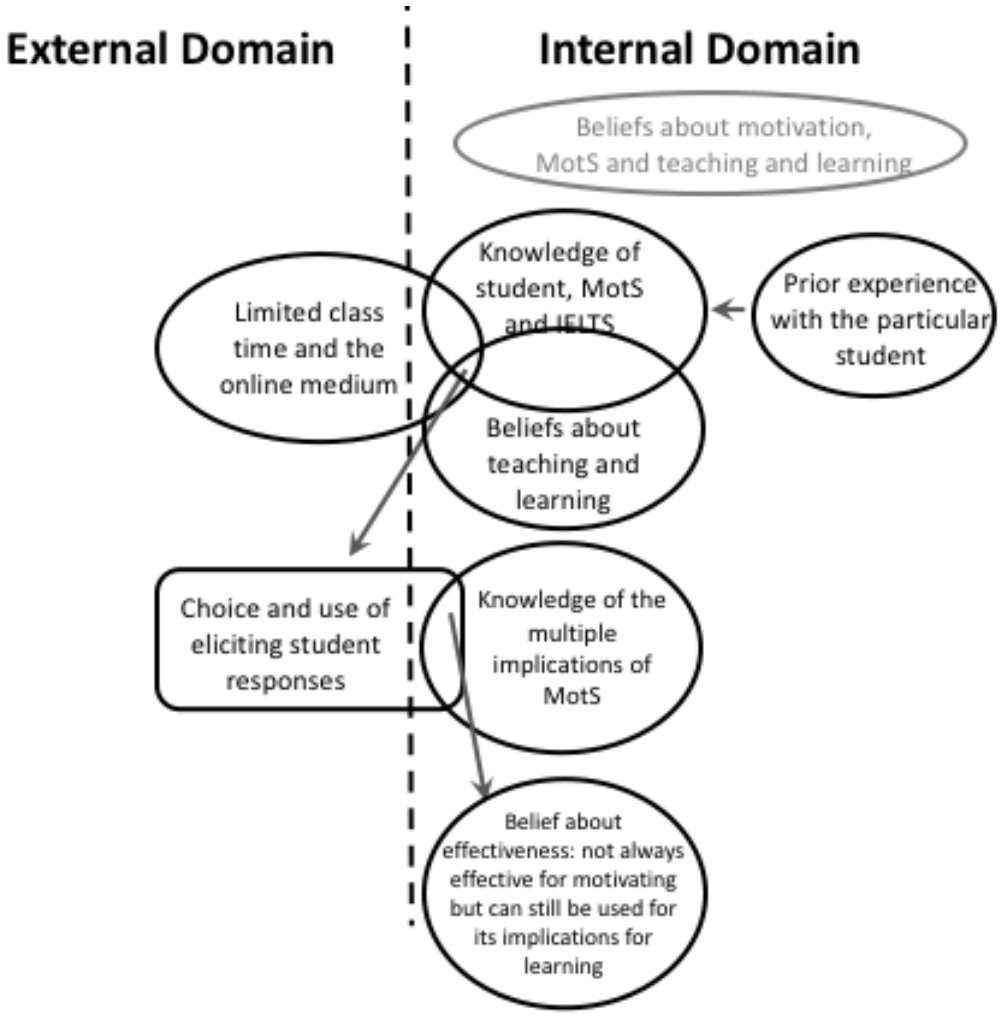

Figure 6. The interaction among multiple factors in Susan's critical incident of *eliciting student responses*

5.2.2. Building a positive student-teacher relationship

In BI, Susan expressed her belief that 'students are motivated to learn from teachers that they like'. She also perceived students at City Lights as having preferences for different types of teachers, and that it was her responsibility to accommodate for these differences:

‘They [the students] are paying money to improve their IELTS scores here. They want the teacher to be the competent knowledge giver in the class – otherwise they would have chosen to study at home on their own. […] But sometimes there are […] some … extrovert students, they prefer a more casual and personal relationship. […] I always try to accommodate for their needs in order to motivate.’ (SRI3)

In accordance with these perceptions and beliefs, Susan was observed to use the following two strategies:

MotS	Description
Demonstrating professional competence	Explaining to the student why a particular exercise/topic is chosen. Teaching students learning strategies, test strategies. Being able to answer unexpected questions from students. • Example: (explaining pedagogical rationale) In a writing class, Susan explained to the student that she chose to focus on the topic ‘technology’ because although it has been a popular topic in IELTS writing topic bank in recent years, it hasn’t appeared in recent IELTS exams for several months. She deliberate chose it because it is likely to appear in upcoming IELTS examinations. (CO2)
Social Chatting	Having informal chats with the student on matters unrelated to the lesson. All chats were initiated by the students • Example: When Susan was explaining how to use ‘emergency’ in a sentence, the student brought up an American TV show ‘9-1-1’, and chatted to Susan about its plot for 3’32’’. (CO3)

Table 8. Description of Susan’s MotS (5.2.2)

Demonstrating professional competence was frequently observed in all 4 COs and Susan did demonstrate a wealth of knowledge about English and IELTS. Susan suggested that in her own time she constantly tried to accumulate her knowledge about English and IELTS because ‘as a teacher, I must have sufficient professional knowledge myself’ (SRI3). This quote seems to show that Susan perceived her professional identity as being closely related to her knowledge. Additionally, it was interesting to notice that much knowledge Susan demonstrated, like the example presented in Table9, related closely to IELTS test features rather than general English language skills. This emphasis seems to reflect influences of the exam-oriented culture,

although Susan did not explicitly make comments on this culture throughout the research process.

Social chatting, on the other hand, was only observed twice in CO3 with a student who Susan perceived as being 'one of those extrovert students' (SRI3). Both chatting conversations were initiated by the student. Susan's justification for the particular incident described in Table8 provides some explanations for the passive use of this strategy:

> He brough up that TV series really randomly… apparently he is one of those extrovert students […] I have to admit, it doesn't go with my introvert personality. […] I think I'm more comfortable with those who see me as *the teacher* and just want to learn in the class. […] But it would be so awkward if I just ignore what he said. So I decided to make it a chance for personal relationship, a chance for motivation […] If I don't have a good relationship with him, he might ask the institution to change the teacher. That wouldn't look good on me as a teacher, would it? (SRI3)

This rationale demonstrates the complex interplays of a range of factors. First, Susan perceived the particular student behaviour of bringing up the TV show as an indication of him 'being one of those extrovert students'. Yet when interacting with her self-perceived introvert personality and her professional identity of being 'the teacher' (which she probably means the teacher as the knowledge transmitter), this external stimuli seems to generate some emotional dissonance (i.e. 'more comfortable with…', 'awkward'). Susan chose to resolve this dissonance by acting in accordance with the student's preference. This decision was made not only because of her knowledge that social chatting can be motivating, but also because of Susan's identities. As indicated in the last two sentences in the extract, Susan seems to be driven by the motive to protect her ideal identity of a good teacher at the institution. In particular, the perceived threat to her ideal identity came from the possibility that 'he might ask the institution to change the teacher', which is related to the institutional regulation that the student can switch teachers freely (Chapter 2). Figure 7 summarises all these interactions.

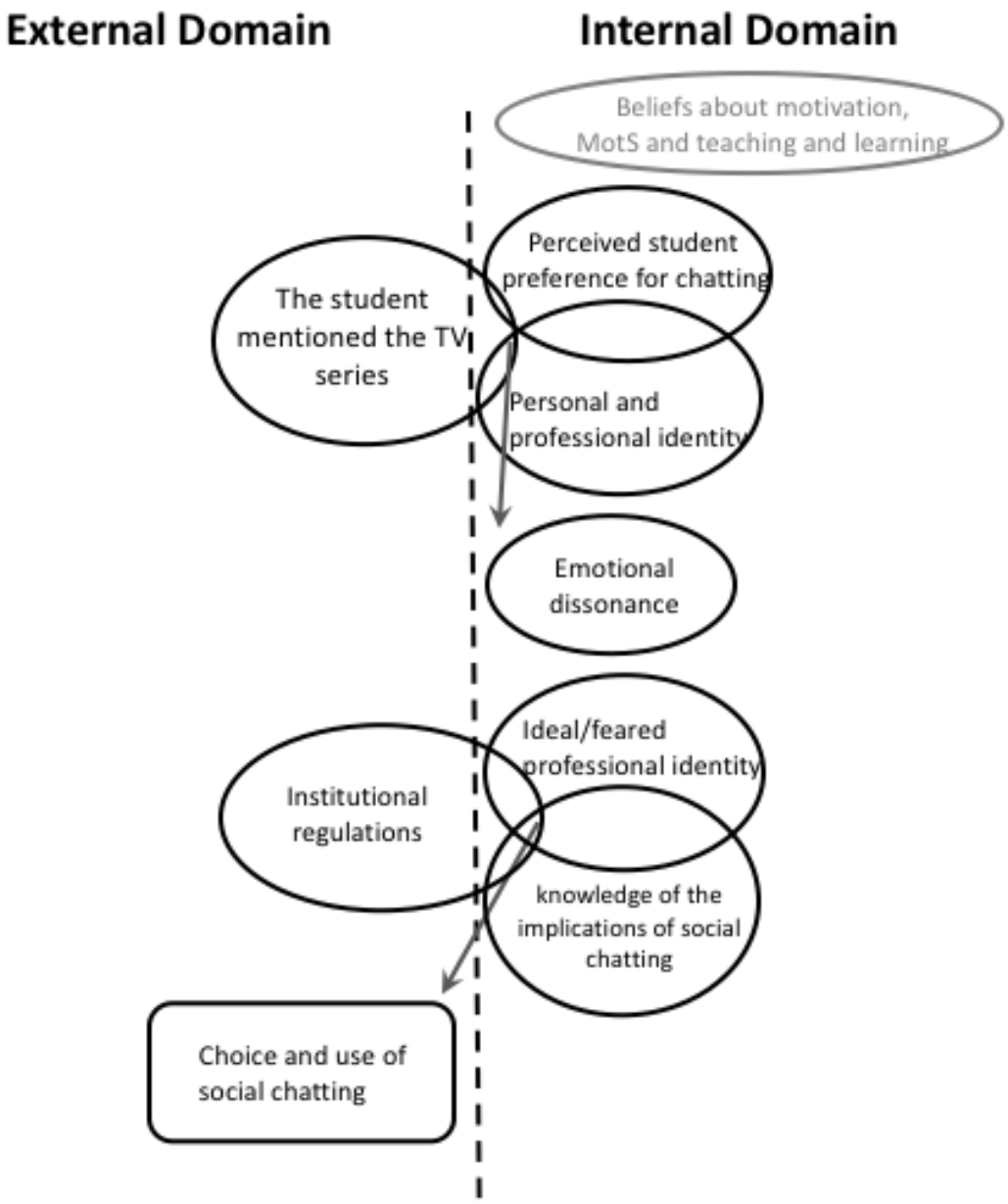

Figure 7. The interaction among multiple factors in Susan's critical incident of *social chatting*

5.2.3. Maintaining a positive evaluation of the self

Similar to Lydia, Susan also recognised praising and softening corrective feedback as having implications for students' positive self-evaluation. Table9 describes how these strategies were used by Susan.

MotS	Description
Praising	Offering verbal praises for student effort, progress and achievements • Example: (praising for achievement) Susan read out loud a sentence that the student just made, and said 'oh that sounded so good! Perfect, well done [in English]' (CO2)
Softening corrective feedback	Explaining to students that mistake is a natural part of learning and teaching students about how mistakes can help them improve when the student shows signs of frustration. • Example: (in combination with teaching learning strategies) Susan was observed to devote the first half an hour of her class elaborating on the written feedback provided for the students' 250 words writing exercise, in which she highlighted 17 places of mistakes. Towards the end of this half an hour, the student sighed and asked 'are there still more [mistakes]?' These behaviours were noticed by Susan, and Susan explained to the student that (1) 'mistake is a natural part of learning', (2) she had to highlight all mistakes because 'you can learn from your mistakes' and (3) the student can keep a list of common mistakes for avoiding similar mistakes in the future. (CO4)

Table 9. Description of Susan's MotS (5.2.3)

While these two MotS categories are the same as Lydia, one noticeable difference between Lydia's and Susan's case is how softening corrective feedback was realised in practice. As shown in Table5 before, Lydia tried to modify the corrective message itself and avoid direct error correction. In contrast, as shown in Table9, Susan tried to naturalise mistakes retrospectively after direct error correction. In fact, in justifying how she softened her feedback in the incident in Table9, the first thing Susan mentioned was her belief about direct error correction:

> Mistakes are mistakes, I have to make them very clear to my students. I can't just hide them. That would do no good to their learning. Frequent correction does mean feelings of frustration appear to be a typical problem among my new students. You see [name of the student] did show frustration. […] but I think it's just natural to have ups and downs in learning. As long as I make that point clear to my students, I can keep them motivated, and also help them learn from mistakes. Most of my old students do understand that point after I explained. (SRI4)

In this rationale, Susan seems to attach great value to direct error correction as a teaching strategy, based on her beliefs about its implications for students' learning, and her belief about mistake being an integral part of learning. It was such beliefs that motivated her use of direct correction despite knowing its demotivating effects. Her use of remedial strategies was elicited by Susan's perception of the students' sign of frustration - a 'typical problem' among students who are new to IELTS, and her knowledge that such strategies have implications for both motivation and learning. Susan also appeared to have high self-efficacy in using these strategies – 'I can keep them motivated', which might result from her prior positive experience of using this strategy – 'most of my old students do understand that point'. Overall, the interplay of internal and external factors in this case can be seen in Figure 8.

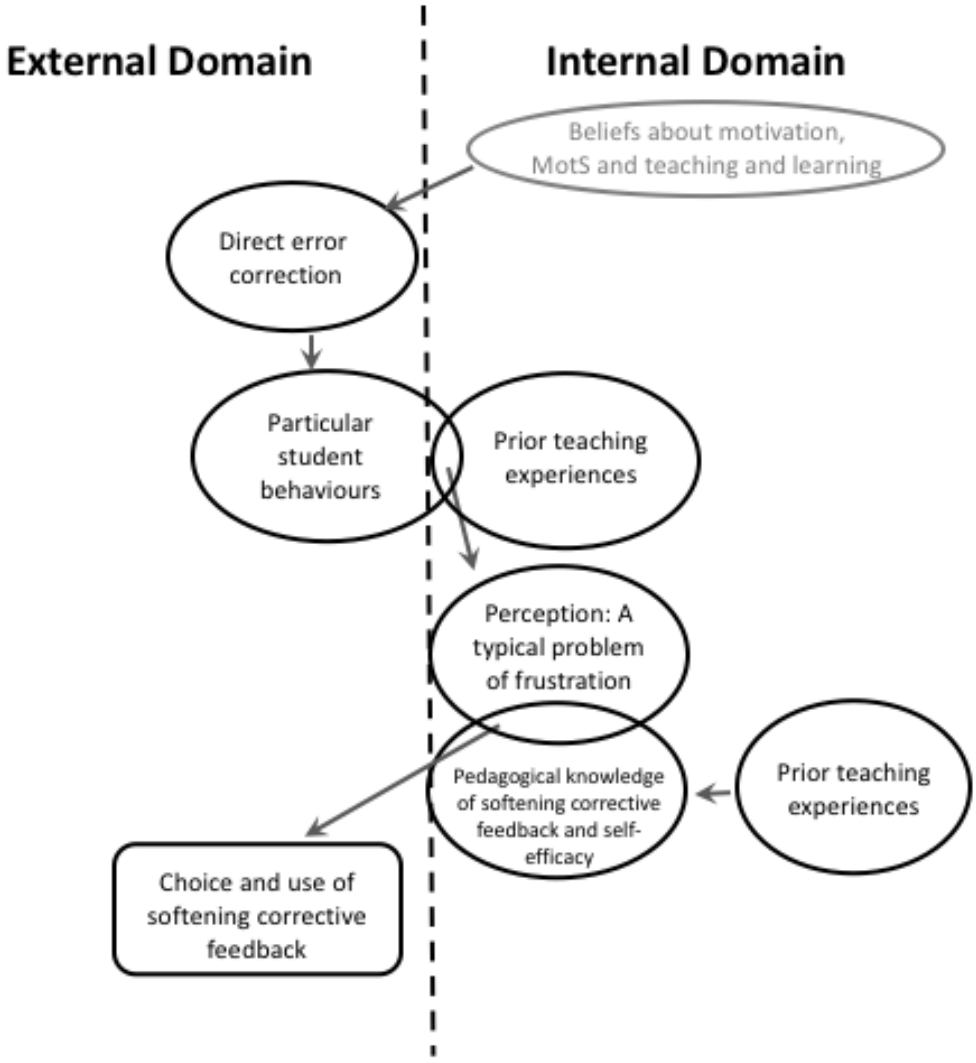

Figure 8. The interaction among multiple factors in Susan's critical incident of *softening corrective feedback*

5.3. Chapter Summary

Taking together findings presented in the preceding two sections, Lydia and Susan used 14 types of MotS in total, and recognised many of them as having multiple pedagogical implications. Although in the limited space above it was not possible to discuss the multiple implications of every strategy in detail, Table10 provides an overview of MotS and their multiple pedagogical implications for students.

MotS	Teacher recognised implications for motivation		Teacher recognised implications for learning
	The socio-emotional aspect of motivation	The behavioural aspect of motivation	
Social chatting	Making learning stimulating; Building a positive student-teacher relationship	Maintaining in-class attention and engagement	Maximising the possibility of retention in memory
Using humour	Making learning stimulating	Maintain in-class attention and engagement	Facilitating language comprehension; maximising the possibility of retention in memory
Using authentic materials	Making learning stimulating; Enhancing English-related values and attitudes	Maintain in-class attention and engagement	Facilitating language comprehension
Giving examples of using English in real-life situations	Enhancing English-related values and attitudes	N/A	Facilitating language comprehension; maximising the possibility of retention in memory
Sharing positive English-related experiences	Enhancing English-related values and attitudes	N/A	N/A
Using an enthusiastic voice	Enhancing English-related values and attitudes	Maintain in-class attention and engagement	N/A
Praising	Maintaining a positive evaluation of the self	Sustaining future efforts	N/A

Softening corrective feedback	Maintaining a positive evaluation of the self	Sustaining future efforts	Helping the student notice mistakes; maximising the possibility of retention in memory
Involving students in organising the learning process	Facilitating feelings of being respected	N/A	Meeting the student's learning preferences
Selecting materials of an appropriate level of difficulty	Facilitating feelings of achievement	N/A	Facilitating language comprehension
Sequencing class activities from easy to hard	Facilitating feelings of achievement	N/A	Facilitating language comprehension
Setting clear goals and revisiting them regularly	Facilitating feelings of achievement	Facilitating goal-oriented in-class behaviours	Facilitating language comprehension
Eliciting student responses	Facilitating feelings of achievement	Maintain in-class attention and engagement	Promoting deeper processing; maximising the possibility of retention in memory
Demonstrating professional competence	Building a positive student-teacher relationship	Facilitating goal-oriented in-class behaviours	Facilitating comprehension; encouraging adoption of cognitive learning strategies and test strategies

Table 10. Overview of MotS and their multiple pedagogical implications

Throughout the written analysis and visual representations, it was shown repeatedly that both Lydia's and Susan's practices of MotS were shaped by interactions among multiple internal and external factors. While in teachers' rationales these factors were intertwined, for analytical clarity, Table11 presents categories of influential factors separately. More examples of these factors in Lydia's and Susan's case can be found in Appendix 5 and 6, respectively.

Domains	Factors		Sub-categories
External factors	Macro-level context		• IELTS testing regulations and the test-driven teaching culture
	Meso-level context		• Institutional regulations
	Micro-level context		• Student characteristics and behaviours • The online medium • Class length
Internal factors	Cognitive factors	Perceptions	• Perceptions of the abovementioned external factors
		Beliefs	• Beliefs about motivation (sources of motivation, signs of motivation, teachers' responsibility of motivating) • Beliefs about MotS (their importance and effectiveness) • Beliefs about teaching and learning
		Knowledge	• Knowledge about MotS/pedagogical knowledge • Knowledge about students • Knowledge about English and IELTS
	Experiential factors		• L2 learning experiences • Professional learning experiences • Prior teaching experiences
	Socio-emotional factors	Self-efficacy	• Self-efficacy for identifying student motivation • Self-efficacy for intervening for motivation
		Identities	• (Actual/possible) Teacher identity (in relation to professional knowledge, to students, to the institution) • Personal identity (e.g. personality)
		Emotions	• Positive emotions • Negative emotions

Table 11. Overview of external and internal factors

CHAPTER 6. Cross-case Analysis and Discussion

While the previous chapter presented findings from each case separately, this chapter discusses recurrent cross-case themes in relation to existing literature. These themes are organised in a way as to address RQ1(6.1) and RQ2 (6.2). 6.3 provides a summary of this chapter and highlights the contributions of this study to previous literature.

6.1. RQ1

One aim of this study was to explore teachers' use of MotS in an OLE, which was an under-researched context. The following sections address this aim from two aspects, namely teachers' choices of MotS, and their enactment of MotS. It is worth noting that the discussion will focus on comparing findings from this study to Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy, which, as discussed in Chapter 3, is perhaps the most comprehensive and relevant one to L2 teachers.

6.1.1. The choices of MotS

As summarised in Table12 below, the 14 MotS choices made by the two teachers are highly similar to Dörnyei's (2001) description of micro-strategies or broader categories of macro-strategies. Many of these MotS choices are also similar to the ones that were found to be highly valued by L2 teachers in offline east Asian contexts. For example, two macro-strategy groups, facilitating student confidence (which includes *praising* and *softening corrective feedback*) and building rapports with students (which includes *social chatting*) have been ranked near the top in teachers polls from Korea (ranked 1st and 2nd respectively in Guilloteaux, 2013) and Taiwan (ranked 3rd and 1st respectively in Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007). The frequent use of humour and authentic material was also reported by teachers in Hongkong (Wong, 2014). The alignment of findings from this study with previous literature seem to show that the online medium did not make fundamental changes to the types of MotS that teachers value. Dörnyei's (2001) framework of MotS seems to provide a comprehensive knowledge base of broad MotS types that are applicable to the OLE explored in this study.

MotS in this study	MotS in Dörnyei's (2001) framework
Using humour	Bring in and encourage humour (Strategy 18)
Social chatting	Develop a personal relationship with your students (Strategy 3) *in the explanation of this strategy: 'Ask them about their lives outside school' 'Show interest in their hobbies' (p. 38)
Using authentic materials	Supplement the coursebook with authentic materials (Strategy 11)
Giving examples of using English in real-life situations	Encourage the learners to apply their L2 proficiency in real-life situations (Strategy 12)
Sharing positive English-related experiences	Share your own positive L2-related experiences in class (Strategy 9)
Using an enthusiastic voice	Show your enthusiasm for teaching (Macro-strategy)
Involving students in organising the learning process	Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy (Strategy 29) *in the explanation of this strategy: 'Allow learners real choices about as many aspects of the learning process as possible.' (p. 108)
Selecting materials of an appropriate level of difficulty	Make sure that there are no serious obstacles to success. (Strategy 13)
Sequencing class activities from easy to hard	Make sure that there are no serious obstacles to success. (Strategy 13)
Setting clear goals and revisit them regularly	Draw attention from time to time to the class goals and how particular activities help to attain them. (Strategy 14)
Eliciting student responses	Provide learners with regular experiences of success (Macro-strategy)
Demonstrating professional competence	Explain the purpose and utility of a task. Provide appropriate strategies to carry out the task (Strategy 20)
Praising	Monitor student accomplishments and progress, and take time to celebrate any victory (Strategy 33)
Softening corrective feedback	Avoid face-threatening acts such as humiliating criticism (Strategy 27)

Table 12. Comparison between MotS in the current study and MotS in Dörnyei's (2001) framework

A comparison of the MotS choices made by the two teachers, however, revealed rather large differences. Among the nine MotS choices made by Lydia and the eight MotS choices made by Susan, only three (i.e. social chatting, praising and softening corrective feedback) overlap. In previous literature, the universality of MotS lists has been criticised by large scale survey studies showing cross-nation differences in terms of MotS choices (e.g. Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007). While being insightful, the unique features of each individual teacher and their MotS

practices were swiped out. The individual-level differences highlighted by this study, therefore, provide further evidence showing that even within the same country, the same institution, each teacher has unique characteristics and they do not necessarily favour the same types of MotS.

6.1.2. The enactment of MotS

As it has been summarised in Table 3-6 and Table 7-9, both teachers realised MotS in diverse ways. The complexities involved in their enactment of MotS will be discussed from three aspects in relation to previous literature:

First, two strategies did not appear in Dörnyei's (2001) original framework or any subsequent published studies on this framework, yet they can be seen as enactment of Dörnyei's (2001) broad macro-strategies, To elaborate, no reference was given to *eliciting student responses* in the literature reviewed. However, as Susan justified that she used this strategy to let students experience 'small achievements' in class (SRI2), this strategy seems to be an application of the macro-strategy 'provide learners with regular experiences of success' (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 90). Similarly, strategic use of teacher voice was not found in previous literature. However, as Lydia used her voice to show her enthusiasm, this strategy can be seen as realising Dörnyei's (2001, p.33) macro-strategy 'Show your enthusiasm for teaching'. Consider that previous literature has also reported additional ways of realising Dörnyei's (2001) MotS suggestions (e.g. Henry et al., 2018), such findings seem to show that although Dörnyei's (2001) framework might be comprehensive in terms of describing the broad MotS categories, it is unlikely to fully capture how each recommendation can be realised in practice.

Second, there is evidence of both teachers using one single teaching act to realise more than one of Dörnyei's (2001) recommendations. To give one example, Lydia used humour when softening corrective feedback (5.1.3). This act combines *using humour* and *giving motivational feedback*, which are two separate strategies listed by Dörnyei (2001) at the initial stage of 'creating the basic motivational conditions' and the final stage of 'rounding off the learning experience'. Findings like this example highlight that although being itemised in time-sequence in the framework, in enactment these strategies may be combined in more complex ways.

Finally, the findings show that even the same strategy can be realised in different ways. For example, Lydia took a proactive approach (5.1.3) to soften corrective feedback while Susan took an reactive approach (5.2.3). Details like this were not always captured in previous MotS

research, as even qualitative observational studies seem to focus on categorising broad strategy types (e.g. Lamb, Astuti and Hadisantosa, 2017). Yet arguably this degree of discrimination underscores the complexities of teachers' everyday MotS practices, which, as it will be shown in the next section, were shaped by situated interactions among multiple psychological and contextual factors.

6.2. RQ2

In response to the calls in previous literature to research how teachers translate MotS into practices (e.g. Lamb, 2017), another aim of this study was to explore how external and internal factors influence teachers' choice and use of MotS. One overarching theme emerged from this study was that external and internal factors influence teachers' MotS practices through situated interactions. In order to illustrate this theme, the following section will first discuss some interaction patterns concerns the external (6.2.1) and internal domains (6.2.2) in turn. It will then discuss the overarching theme that joins the two domains together (6.2.3).

6.2.1. External factors and perception

Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) argued that both the immediate classroom context and the larger ecologies in which the classroom is embedded shape teacher cognition and practices. In line with this argument, findings from this study show that both teachers' rationales reflected factors that spread across the macro-, meso- and micro- levels (Table11). Many factors are comparable to those speculated or revealed in previous research on MotS, for instance high-stake testing (Cheng and Dornyei, 2007), institutional regulations and characteristics of students (e.g. Lee, 2015). In particular, both teachers tended to draw especially heavily on their perceptions of student characteristics and behaviours, perhaps because of the institution's emphasis on personalisation and the one-to-one nature of the online classes. One factor unmentioned in previous literature is the online medium – both teachers perceived it in a rather negative manner (i.e. being a threat to student engagement in Lydia's case and creating feelings of 'distance' in Susan's case).

One consistent pattern across the two cases is that the influences of external factors on MotS were mediated by perception, a cognitive factor. It was through the mediation of perception that objective external factors were assigned subjective meanings that may differ from those assumed by researchers. For example, Cheng and Dornyei (2007) assumed high-stake testing

to be a constrainer on teachers' use of MotS to make the class interesting. This, however, did not happen in Lydia's case. Rather, Lydia seemed to perceive IELTS requirements as one factor that contextualised how she made the class interesting (e.g. she chose to emphasis high-frequency IELTS vocabulary in social chatting, 5.1.1). Findings like this example corroborate previous research which showed that external factors' impacts on teaching were filtered through teachers' cognitions (e.g. Sanchez and Borg, 2014), highlighting the importance of including teachers' perspectives in order to better understand the influences of external factors.

Furthermore, the findings also show that these perceived external factors played diverse roles in shaping MotS. For instance, perceived limited class time *constrained* Susan to use elicitation all the time (5.2.2); perceived institutional freedom *afforded* Lydia's practices to support learner autonomy (5.1.4); perceived signs of frustration *elicited* Susan's use of softening corrective feedback (5.2.3); perceived increase of the student's level of engagement helped Lydia *evaluate* her MotS (5.1.1). By providing evidence for these diverse roles played by external factors, these findings extend previously limited focus on the constraining effects of external factors (e.g. Sakui and Cowie, 2011), echoing Skott's (2015) claim that the significance of context goes beyond being constraints on an otherwise autonomous person.

6.2.2. Internal factors

In addition to perception, findings form this study also demonstrated influences of a range of other cognitive, experiential and socio-emotional factors:

a) Beliefs

Three types of beliefs emerged from both teachers' rationales. While beliefs about motivation and MotS have been explored in previous MotS literature (e.g. Guilloteaux, 2013, Lee, 2015), beliefs about teaching and learning seem to be absent. Yet such findings regarding the influences of multiple beliefs align with general teacher cognition literature which suggests that teacher beliefs exist as a complex system (e.g. Borg, 2006).

There is evidence of these beliefs interacting with each other. For example, Susan's (5.2.3) belief about the necessity of direct error correction outweighed her belief about motivation in ways similar to how Phipps and Borg (2009) described core beliefs outweighed peripheral ones. There is evidence of these beliefs interacting with other factors. For example, Lydia's (5.1.1) belief about engagement being a sign of motivation shaped how she perceived students'

classroom behaviours and evaluated her MotS practices, in ways similar to how Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) described knowledge and beliefs may shape teachers' interpretations of changes in students' behaviours. In interacting with perceptions on external factors, the content of some beliefs also became fluid. For example, Lydia held a situated belief about the importance of detailed praising for the particular student (5.1.2). Findings like this example are similar to Skott's (2015) description of how a mathematic teacher's beliefs about pedagogy depended on her students' age, gender, and achievement.

Several previous studies have reported discrepancies between teacher beliefs and MotS practices (e.g. Alrabai, 2014; Lee, 2015). However, such tensions were not particularly apparent in this study. One possible explanation is that many of the previously reported constraining contextual factors were not present in the context of this study (e.g. large class size, pre-scribed curriculum). Both teachers seem to enjoy a high degree of autonomy in realising their beliefs in practice. Another possible explanation concerns how beliefs were elicited. This study focused on 'enacted beliefs' (Borg, 2018, p.77) that were elicited in SRIs in relation to particular classroom scenarios. In many previous studies (e.g. Alrabai, 2014; Guilloteaux, 2013), teacher beliefs were assessed through decontextualised questionnaire items, which, as argued by Borg (2018), may reflect theoretical or idealistic answers that are not always indicative of practices.

b) Knowledge

Three areas of knowledge were revealed in both cases, and these areas are related to pedagogy, context, curriculum and content (Abdelhafez, 2014; Goodwin, 2010). There is evidence of these areas of knowledge interacting with each other. For example, Lydia's use of social chatting (5.1.1) and Susan's use of elicitation (5.2.1) illustrated how one single teaching practice was supported by all three types of knowledge. Similar findings have been reported by Abdelhafez (2014). There is also evidence of knowledge interacting with other factors. For example, Susan's perception on her knowledge served as the foundation of her professional identity. Similar findings have been reported by Beijaard, Meijer and Verloop (2004). Previous research on MotS has only referred to how insufficient knowledge may constrain teachers' MotS (Sakui and Cowie, 2012). Findings from this study therefore may be argued to extend current understandings on what and how knowledge may influence MotS practices.

One interesting finding worth mentioning is that both teachers' accounts of their pedagogical knowledge of MotS consist of implications not only for motivation, but also (sometimes even primarily) for learning (Table11). Such findings concerning the multiple implications of teaching techniques are not particularly original. Implications for motivation has been recognised by the teacher in justifying their grammar teaching practices (Sanchez and Borg, 2014) and intercultural communicative language teaching strategies (Feryok and Oranje, 2015). It also seems to make good sense from the practical point of view of teachers - as argued by Susan, it would seem rather undesirable to have 'a lesson full of motivation but without the student learning anything' (SRI2). The findings therefore may be argued to raise the question of whether it is limiting to conceptualise these strategies as only *motivational* strategies (e.g. Keller, 2010; Dörnyei, 2001), as to teachers, these strategies might be general teaching techniques that can be used to realise multiple situation-specific purposes. While not being the focus of this study, this might be a question worthy of future research.

c) Self-efficacy

In general, both Lydia and Susan appeared to be efficacious at identifying students' motivation and using MotS, indicated by their repeated use of words and phrases such as 'I can', 'for sure' in their justifications. There is also evidence of self-efficacy influencing MotS through interacting with other factors. For example, Susan's efficacy concerning using softening corrective feedback seemed to be related to her previous positive experiences of using it (5.2.3). This echoes Bandura's (1986) theory on mastery experience being a source of self-efficacy. Lydia's self-identification of being the 'minority' at City Lights seemed to have influenced her self-efficacy regarding sharing L2-related experiences. This echoes Tajfel's (1979, cited in Hogg, 2006) social identity theory which suggests that identification with a negatively valued group has negative impacts on people's level of self-efficacy.

d) Experiential factors

In line with previous literature that conceptualised (Borg, 2003, 2006) or reported (e.g. Lee, 2015) prior experience as a source of teacher cognition, this study also found that experiential factors influenced MotS by informing other internal factors. For example, Susan's belief about the motivating effects of facilitating student achievement was probably influenced by her accumulated teaching experiences (5.2.1). It was also interesting to notice that how Lydia evaluated her prior experience of praising was also influenced by her belief that exercise is

necessary for memorisation (5.1.3). Similar findings on how prior experiences are filtered by cognition have been reported by Mansfield and Volet (2010).

e) Identities and emotions

Identities and emotions also interacted in ways similar to findings in previous literature. For example, the conflict between Susan's personal identity and her perceived student preferences (5.2.2) seems to resemble dissonance between teachers' perceived reform message and their own identities reported in Kubanyiova's (2012) study. Miller and Gkonou (2018, p.51) argued that teachers 'actively negotiate their emotions according to situated feeling rules'. This seems to explain how Lydia managed the interaction among emotion, prior experiences, knowledge and perception, and decided to express her happy emotion with caution (i.e. using less but more detailed praises) (5.1.3).

6.2.3 The situated interplay of multiple factors within and across the external and internal domain

Taking together discussions in the preceding two sub-sections, both participants' MotS were shaped by the interplays of multiple factors within and across the internal and external domain, and many of these interactions correspond closely to previous literature. However, arguably it is impossible to summarise all possible interactions in any definitive linear model. As shown in Figure 2-8, the specific factors and how their interactions unfold seems to be dynamic and situation-specific, at least as they appear to be in the teachers' verbal commentaries. Such findings accord with previous research that examined teacher cognition from a complexity theoretic perspective, which generally suggests that the relationships among multiple influential factors on teachers' practices are unpredictable, aperiodic, dynamic, and emerge 'in real time in the immediate temporal and spatial context' (Burns and Knox, 2011, p.12). Figure9 below therefore provides a visual summary of the relationship among internal factors, internal factors and MotS emerged from this study without specifying particular interaction patterns. As the figure shows, MotS are defined by influences from both domains. MotS may also further exert influences on the external (e.g. motivating the student) and internal domain (e.g. becoming part of their teaching experience).

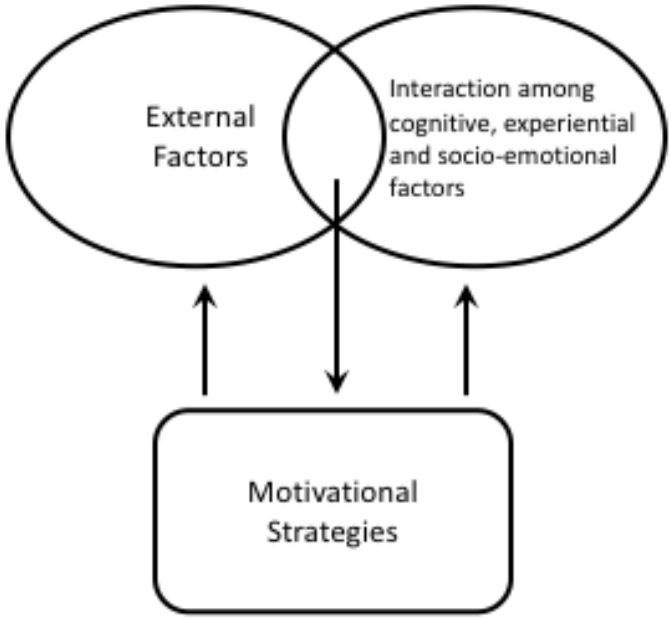

Figure 9. The relationship among internal factors, internal factors and MotS

Previous literature on influential factors on MotS in naturalistic settings has either listed multiple isolated factors (e.g. Sakui and Cowie, 2012) or focused on interactions between only two types of factors (e.g. Lee, 2015). This study therefore extends previous literature by illustrating the dynamic interactions among multiple factors, which arguably provides a more accurate representation of teachers' mental lives behind their MotS practices.

Such a holistic and situated perspective can be argued to be of analytical value. It seems to be the situated interactions of multiple factors as a whole, rather than any isolated individual factor, that better explain the idiosyncratic choices of MotS and the diverse ways to enact them. The same factor can lead to different MotS choices. For example, both Lydia and Susan perceived their students' main learning needs as improving IELTS scores (5.2.1 and 5.2.2). However, in interaction with a range of internal and external factors, Lydia focused on promoting English-related values while Susan focused on demonstrating professional competence. The same factor may also lead to different ways of realising the same strategy. For example, both Lydia and Susan expressed the belief that students are motivated by a positive sense of the self (5.1.3 and 5.2.3). Yet under interactions with other factors, Lydia took a proactive approach to soften the corrective message while Susan took a reactive approach to remedy students' feelings of

frustration. Examples like these two highlight that focusing on isolated factors may not hold the same explanatory power as adopting a holistic perspective.

Furthermore, this perspective might also be of practical value to teacher education. As even MotS in one single critical incident may be shaped by the situated interactions among diverse factors, it would perhaps be unproductive reducing motivational teaching to a list of replicable teaching techniques. This argument will be further elaborated in the Conclusion chapter.

6.3. Chapter Summary

To summarise, this chapter discussed main findings from this study in relation to the two RQs. Throughout the discussions, several contributions to existing literature were illustrated:

This study contributes to current understandings of MotS frameworks. First, it shows evidence for the applicability of Dörnyei's (2001) framework in an OLE. Second, it shows the idiosyncratic nature of teachers' MotS choices, and contributes to existing evidence showing that there is perhaps no universal motivational strategy that is valued by all teachers. Finally, it sheds lights on the diverse ways of realising MotS in practice, therefore arguably, adds depth to Dörnyei's (2001) framework.

This study also contributes to the currently limited body of research examining teacher cognition on MotS. Broadly speaking, it contributes a holistic and situated perspective on how multiple internal and external factors may interact in complex and dynamic ways to shape MotS practices. In particular, it illustrates that when mediated by teacher perception, contextual factors may play non-constraining roles in shaping MotS practices. It also depicts what and how different areas of teacher knowledge may influence MotS, and highlights that teachers' interest in using MotS may go beyond their implications for motivation.

CHAPTER 7. Conclusion

To conclude, in this qualitative case study, two IELTS teachers' use of MotS in an OLE, together with the internal and external factors that influenced their practices, were explored in an language school in China. Data generated from multiple sources illustrated that most MotS choices made by the two teachers corresponded closely to Dörnyei's (2001) taxonomy, although the enactment of these strategies showed diverse ways of adaptation. The findings also indicated that choosing and using MotS was a situated social process influenced by the complex and dynamic interplay among cognitive, experiential, socio-emotional and contextual factors.

While the methodological and theoretical contributions of this study were presented in Chapter 6, this chapter ends this dissertation with presenting some potential implications for teacher education (7.1). This is followed by a discussion on the limitations of this study (7.2), and directions for future research (7.3).

7.1. Implications for teacher education

Existing literature has provided teacher educators with a rich array of MotS options that can be introduced to teacher trainees. Findings from this study expand on current works by providing teacher educators with a more realistic and holistic understanding on how and why teachers utilise these strategies. Such an understanding, although still being preliminary, may carry several implications for teacher education. For example:

The findings raise caution against adopting a mechanical model of the teacher as a mere implementer of MotS. As it has been repeatedly illustrated in the Findings and Discussion chapter, whether and how the teachers put MotS into practice depended on the interaction among a range of psychological and contextual factors. Reducing motivational teaching to a set of pre-ordained instructional strategies would seem to seriously undermine the individuality of teachers, and underestimate the complexities that they need to deal with in practice.

The findings also generate insights that might help teachers work with the complexities involved in motivational teaching. For instance, the multiple influential internal and external

factors revealed in this study might inspire teacher educators to incorporate into their syllabuses particular strategies targeting these factors. The individual-level difference highlighted in this study might encourage teacher educators to design flexible syllabus and learning objectives that do not curtail the individuality of each teacher. The situatedness of MotS illustrated in this study might also invite teacher educators to consider teacher education models based on situated learning (e.g. apprenticeship models), which could perhaps better connect the MotS programme with the teachers' situated practices in context.

Furthermore, the findings also illustrated that the reflective practices involved in SRI helped both teachers realise and verbalise their complex thinking processes behind MotS, and both teachers found the research process beneficial (Chapter 5). Considering previous literature has also documented similar beneficial effects (e.g. Karimi and Nazari, 2019), it seems reasonable to recommend teacher educators to consider including reflective practices in MotS programmes. For example, teachers could be encouraged to have introspective reflections upon the factors involved in their own thinking processes, so that they may better manage their inner resources for dealing with unpredictable classroom situations. Teachers could be encouraged to have retrospective reflections on their previous practices, so that they might develop positive modifications in their practice in the future. Teacher educators might also benefits from teacher trainee's reflections. As argued by Karimi and Nazari (2019), through constant examination of teachers' retrospective reflections on their practices, teacher educators could identify gaps between their expectations and teachers' conceptualisations, and therefore tailor teacher development programmes towards the challenges experienced by the teachers.

In particular, Walsh and Mann (2015) argued that concrete examples of reflective practices could help teachers gain clarity about what might be involved in reflections. In this sense the vivid portraits of the two teachers' MotS practices and the detailed descriptions and interpretations of their rationales generated by this study may be directly used as examples in MotS programmes to promote teacher reflection, perhaps especially for programmes in similar contexts.

7.2. Limitations

It is worth noting that the theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of this study must be considered together with three main limitations:

First, this study is limited in scale as only two participants from a particular language school were involved. Therefore, it does not allow generalised claims about the applicability of MotS to all OLEs, or the relevance of the same internal and external factors to all teachers to be made. However, such limitations are not considered to diminish the value of the findings. As discussed in 4.3, the rich data provided in this dissertation may allow generalisations to similar contexts to be made.

Second, as in this study the internal and external factors were captured through interviews where I made interpretations of my participants sense-making of their mental lives, the findings generated might be particularly vulnerable to the influences of interview dynamics and my own subjective interpretations. However, as discussed in 4.6, efforts were made to allow my potential influences to be audited by the readers.

Finally, as this study aimed to be descriptive and explanatory (4.2), it does not generate sufficient evidence for the two teachers' MotS or their cognitions to be evaluated. For example, it was unknown whether the use of MotS achieved the pedagogical implications that the teachers stated, nor was it clear whether the teachers' interpretations of students' motivation were the same as the students'. Inclusion of students' perspectives might allow these aspects to be better explored, yet it was beyond the scope of this study.

7.3. Recommendations for future research

On account of the contributions and limitations of this study, several recommendations for future research can be made.

First, more studies on the use of MotS in OLEs could be recommended, as they would provide further evidence on the applicability of existing MotS frameworks, and perhaps generate further examples of teachers' adaptations.

Second, future studies adopting a similar holistic approach to explore teachers' rationales for MotS (i.e. not having mental constructs being fully determined in advance) could be recommended. These studies would help verify whether similar internal and external factors

are recognised by teachers in different contexts, and help identify the commonality of multi-implication strategies.

Third, similar to Kubanyiova (2015) study, future studies could use conversation analysis to further explore how factors and their interactions emerge from the dialogic processes in interviews.

Fourth, in order to provide a better understanding of the implications of MotS, students' perspectives might need to be included in future research. For example, students can be included in the process of identifying critical motivating/demotivating incidents and work alongside the teacher to understand what happened in a collegial manner (Ushioda, 2016).

Finally, future studies investigating the effects of recognising and reflecting upon the complexities involved in using MotS could be recommended. As discussed in Chapter 5, the value of such reflections were recognised by both participants. Moreover, ironically, while this study aimed to study other teachers' cognitions, observing other teachers' reflective practices also stimulated my reflections on my own assumptions about MotS. I very much look forward to seeing how these insights would shape my teaching practices in the future.

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Appendix 1. Interview and observation protocols

*Interview questions were asked in mandarin but here the protocols are presented in English in order for the research process to be audited

Background interview protocol

**The questions will not necessarily be asked in the same order, and I will add follow-up questions, or delete some questions according to the teacher's responses.*

Intro: General greeting and casual chatting, followed by an introduction to the interview:

During this interview, I want to know more about your personal history, the context you are currently working at, and your reflections on the motivational dimension of teaching. There are no right or wrong answers. The aim is to understand your perspectives, not to evaluate you as a teacher. So please provide honest answers. As we have already discussed, the interview will be audio-recorded and information collected from you will be kept confidential. If you feel uncomfortable to answer any of the questions, please just let me know and we can skip them. During the interview, feel free to switch from English to Chinese, or from Chinese to English as you please.

Section 1. Personal history

**The following questions are prepared specifically for Lydia. The questions are based on her individual biography.*

- You mentioned '*I think I was born for English and I was very keen on learning English when I was young*'. Can you please tell me more about what you mean by that?
    - Can you recall why you were so keen on learning English?

- Can you please tell me more about your English learning experiences during junior high and senior high school?
    - Was there anything you found particularly motivating (or maybe demotivating) when learning English during this period?
    - Do you feel that your own education as a student has had any influence on the way you motivate your students today? If yes, How?

- Did you learn anything about student motivation when you received your formal training at XX Normal University?
    - If yes, was it helpful? How?

- Can you please tell me more about your teaching experience at XX junior high school?
    - Do you feel this experience has had any influence on the way you motivate your students today? If yes, How?
    - Did you receive any in-service teacher training during this period? If yes, was motivating students an aspect involved in your training?

Section 2 Perceived context

- Can you please tell me more about the institution you are currently working at?

- How would you describe your position within the institution?
- Does the institution promote any particular ways of teaching?
- Are there any restrictions on the way you teach your lessons?
- Does the institution provide any in-service teacher training? If so, is motivating students an aspect in the training?

- Can you please tell me more about your students?
  - In your opinion, to what extent are your students motivated to learn English? What made you think that's the case?
  - What do you think are the reasons that can explain your students' current level of motivation?
  - Do the students (or their parents) come here expecting a particular type of language course?

Section 3. Reflections on the motivational dimension of teaching

- Can you please tell me more about your beliefs on students' motivation and motivating students?
  - If I were an alien I had never heard of the word `motivation', how would you explain it to me?
  - What role do you think motivation plays in students' learning?
  - What role do you think teachers play in motivating students?

- Can you please tell me more about your teaching at your current institution?
  - How would you describe the way you teach?
  - How do you motivate your students? Can you give me some examples of positive or negative experiences?
  - Overall, to what degree would you say you are successful at motivating your students? Why? What are the enabling factors and what are the barriers?

Wrap up: Is there anything we have not talked about today that you think is relevant to your use of motivational strategies? Thank the teacher and make arrangements for the observations and stimulated-recall interviews

Class observation protocol

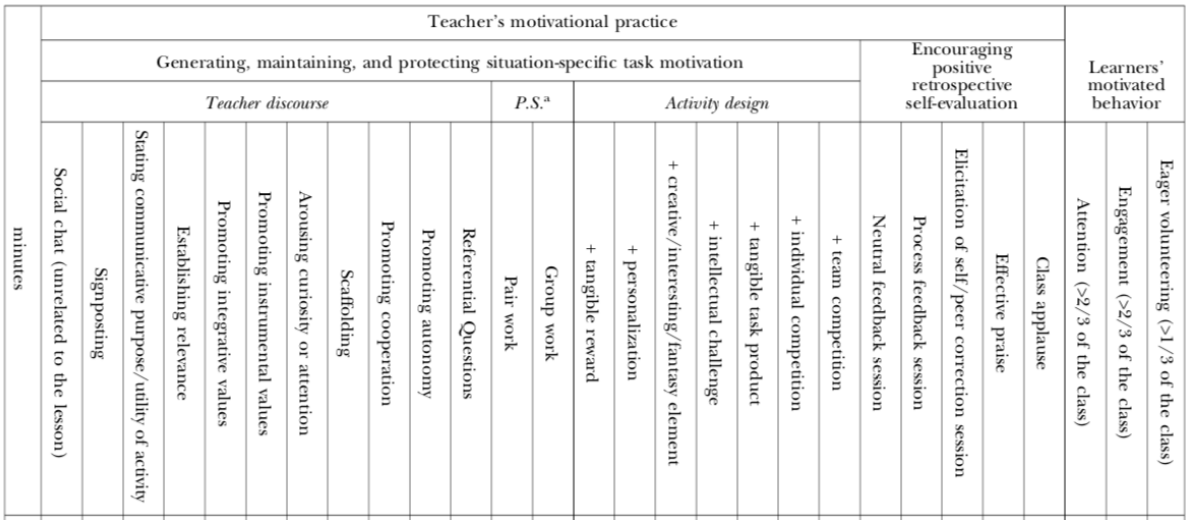
Date:_____ Teacher:_____ Student: _____

Learning objectives:

Other information:

Time	Description of key classroom events	Tick if motivational strategies are being used

Extract from the MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme



*MOLT developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) was used to identify potentially motivating class episodes

Stimulated Recall Interview Protocol

1. Thank you for letting me observe your lesson. Now I would like to discuss with you how you motivated your students in the observed lesson, and what made you do that.
2. So first, as far as you can remember, was there any moment in the lesson where you attempted to motivate the student? If you just roughly describe what you did, I will try to find the episode in the recorded audio file. Then we can listen to the episode together. This is to help you remember more details. After listening I would like to hear about your rationales for you motivating teaching in the episodes
3. Play the particular episode of teaching, and give the teacher time to recall the details. Play the episode again if it is needed.
4. Ask the main question: 'Do you remember what you were thinking here? Why did you decide to do this?' Ask episode-specific follow-up questions when appropriate.
5. Repeat point 3 and point 4 until the teacher can identify no more motivating teaching episode. If there are additional episodes that I have identified as motivating, I will continue the interview with the following:
6. I have identified some episodes that I think might have been motivating for the student, but you have not mentioned them yet. Let's listen to some of them. Again, I want to hear about what you were thinking when you were teaching in these episodes.
7. Ask episode-specific follow-up questions when appropriate

Appendix 2. Sample interview transcript

(From Susan, SRI3; S=Susan, IR=Interviewer)

S：嗯，其实我这个。我课多细节也记不太清楚了，你有那个音频再继续听一下？后面我不太想的起来了。

【play the audio recording】

S：对，主要就是性格吧。你看他刚才就是自己提到那个题外话。我也不知道他为什么会就想到那个美剧了，他就是那种特能聊的。我也没提到和 9-1-1 相关的事情不是？其实这些学生可能跟我性格方面就是，不是特别搭。这个我得承我本身 personality 是有点慢热型的。我也不是特别外向，特别能交集的那种。我和那种喜欢老师全都是授课的那种学生在一起可能更合的来更舒服一点。我觉得受我自己这种 personality 限制吧。但是你直接忽略就很尴尬了。所以他提到了我是得聊的。聊一聊还能有个促进师生关系，提升上课动力的机会。所以我就问他有哪些演员，有几集啊几季啊什么的。那个剧我自己是没有在追的。嗯… 一般学生提到了什么题外话我都会聊的。你像我不跟他搞好关系，他不喜欢我的课他可能马上就换老师了啊，你像我们做老师的，这样学生就走了也不好看，你说是不是。所以我得适应他们的这种，个人需求吧，这样才能说激励他来学。

IR：这个是机构的规定吗？学生不喜欢就可以换老师？

S：因机构而异吧，但的确现在很多都是这样的。

IR：好，那您刚才说的意思就是使用这个 strategy 是适应这个学生的需求是吧？

S：是啊，但有些个学生他就是开朗一点。其实这个学生算是那种特别喜欢聊天特别开朗的那种【笑】。你看这几个学生，也就他上课要开着视频。他需要这种亲密感。 这种学生你和他聊就特别有效。 因为上课， 他其实也是人与人之间的交流和互动嘛，得看人。大多数这里的学生还是主要来上课的，他们喜欢那种专业知识强的，能传授知识的老师。 不然他们花钱来这学干嘛呢，自己在家看书不就好了吗，你说是不是。他们这种就会比较喜欢上课，所以聊题外话的时间还是比较少的。课堂氛围其实也还好。你像特别有些学生时间准备雅思时间紧。课堂上想利用每一分钟，他不想和老师聊别的东西啊。那他不想提我就主要给他讲知识就好了啊，他不会觉得你聊天能让他多有动力啊多什么什么的。但有些学生 personality 方面就是，可能… 你看像这个学生他就是会喜欢这种亲密一点的人际关系，交流互动的老师。他有这种交流才能学的好，有那个 motivation 想学。

IR：那除了学生性格这一点，在和学生聊的时候还有其他什么考虑的因素吗？

S:但还有就是注意控制下时长吧，有的学生就是特别能扯，扯着扯着就扯远了。所以我也注意没有问太多那个剧的细节啊什么的。所以就是扯太 high 了的时候也要能收回来吧。当时也就是有这个时间方面的考虑。其他的话可能没有别的什么了。

Appendix 3. Ethical Implications of Proposed Research

ED 50484 DISSERTATION FOR THE MA TESOL
ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH

To be completed by the student and approved by the supervisor before any data collection takes place. Before completing the form, students should read the guidelines published by the British Educational Research Association (BERA), which are available in Moodle.
NB Where ethical approval is deemed unnecessary e.g. if the research has no empirical element, a nil return is required. Supervisors should retain a copy for their own records.

Introduction

Full name of student: Zening Yang	**Student number: 149474249**
Provisional title of your study: Motivational strategies in an online learning environment: Second language teacher cognitions and practices	
Justification/rationale for your study: In the literature on second language acquisition, motivation is usually understood to refer to the desire to learn a second language (L2) and the effort paid to sustain it (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007). Previous studies have shown that learner motivation is associated with a variety of important learning consequences such as persistence (Kim and Kim, 2017), achievement (Bernaus, Wilson and Gardner, 2009), and course satisfaction (Bodnar et al., 2016). Recognising that motivation plays such a crucial role in L2 learning, I, a novice teacher, became very curious about what L2 teachers can actually do to motivate students. To a certain degree, my query was answered by the existing literature. Researchers have developed multiple lists of teaching behaviours that are claimed to be motivating (e.g. Dörnyei, 2001; Keller, 2010). However, I also found the practicality of these lists limited - they tell me little in terms of how to choose and deploy the strategies in particular classroom contexts. The problem that I encountered has been well-summarised by Lamb (2017) in his systematic review on motivational strategies: most of the existing research focused on identifying and classifying the observable motivational teaching practices. What is missing from existing literature is the complex inner dynamics underlying L2 teachers' decisions. In order to contribute to this research gap as well as to develop my future motivating teaching practices, I decided to conduct a case study that aims to explore the motivational strategies used by L2 teachers in their everyday teaching contexts, and the rationales behind these practices. At this stage in the research, motivational strategies will be generally defined as instructional techniques deployed '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 and Ushioda, 2011, p. 103). In particular, I decided to explore these inquires in an online learning environment, where teaching and learning happen asynchronously or synchronously through the use of computers and the Internet (Farr and Murray, 2016). This choice was made in response to	

the COVID-19 Pandemic of 2020, and also in response to the rapid development of digital education in China.

To elaborate, according to the Ministry of Education (2020), from 27th of January 2020, educational institution across China were advised to stop providing face-to-face teaching until further notice. Although online teaching was not made compulsory, many organisations, including the language centre this study aims to investigate, moved all of their teaching practices online. Therefore, although I originally aimed to explore face-to-face teaching practices, choosing an online environment was the only feasible option at the time of data collection. Yet arguably, explorations of motivational practices in online learning environments would be intrinsically valuable. According to the 'Ten Year Development Plan for the Digitalisation of Education between 2011 and 2020' (Ministry of Education, 2012), the use of online teaching in China is expanding, and the nation aims to continue its investment in digital education. Considering that motivation has been identified as a key factor for online learning success (Ushida, 2005), it is hoped that my exploration would be meaningful for L2 practitioners who work in a similar online context.

1. Who are the main participants in your research (such as interviewees, respondents)?
The main participants will be two IELTS teachers from a language centre in China, where I studied as a student.

2. How will you find and contact these participants?
With the permission of the head of the English teaching department, a message will be circulated among the IELTS teachers in their group chat, inviting them to participate in the study. Teachers can then contact me if they are interested.

3. How and from whom will you obtain consent?
Consent will be obtained from the head of the English teaching department as well as from the two participating teachers.

An online meeting will be held with the head of the department and the participating teachers. In this meeting I explain the study to them in detail. Written information sheets and consent forms will then be emailed to them. Participants will indicate their consent by returning the digitally signed consent forms.

It is worth noting that although students will be present during my observations, I do not intend to obtain formal consent from them. This is based on the consideration that the students will not be the focus of the study, and the recommendation from the head of department. However, I will gain assent (Greig, Taylor and Mackay, 2007) from the students by revealing my presence to them at the beginning of the observation, and explicitly informing them that my observations focus on the teacher's teaching practices.

4. Have you approached any other body or organisation for permission to conduct this research?
As described above, I will approach the head of the English teaching department from the institution

5. At what stages of your research, and in what ways will participants be involved?
Participants will be involved at the stage of data collection.

Teachers will be observed and audio-recorded during their teaching. They will then participate in a stimulated recall interview using the audio files as the stimulus. They will also participate in two semi-structured interviews: one background interview at the beginning of the study and a follow-up interview at the end.

The head of the English teaching department will be interviewed to gain an understanding of the institutional context

6. Have you considered how to share your findings with participants and how to thank them for their participation?

Participants will be provided with a summary of findings after I finish my research. They will also receive an individual letter of thanks for their participation.

Deception avoidance, confidentiality and accuracy

7. How will you present the purpose of your research? Do you foresee any problems?

I will inform the participants that the purpose of my research is to explore teachers' use of motivational strategies in an online learning environment, and teachers' rationales behind their choices of motivational strategies. It is worth noting that I will not disclose to the teachers the particular constructs that I am interested in (e.g. their previous learning/teaching experiences, their beliefs in student motivation) at the beginning of the study. This is to avoid leading responses from the teachers. However, I will explicitly explain to the teachers why some aspects about the study are not shared with them at this stage.

One possible problem is that teachers might worry that I am judging their teaching practices and might change their teaching practices accordingly. In order to address this problem, I will clearly explain to the teachers that the purpose of the research is not to judge their practices, but to understand their perspectives. I will also not be judgemental about their responses during all the interviews.

8. In what ways might your research cause harm (physical or psychological distress or discomfort) to yourself or others? What will you do to minimise this?

In terms of physical harm, considering the COVID-19 Pandemic of 2020, conducting face-to-face observations or interviews might result in nonessential travel for both the participants and the researcher. In order to address this problem, both observations and interviews will be conducted online.

In terms of psychological harm, one potential problem is that some interview questions might probe into sensitive or private issues that the participants might not want to discuss. In order to address this issue, the participants will be informed that they are free to refuse to respond to questions during interviews without providing an explanation. Another potential harm is that the time commitment required in the study might intervene with the teaching schedule and cause inconvenience for the participants. I hope to address this problem by arranging the observations and interviews at the participants' convenience.

9. What measures are in place to safeguard the identity of participants and locations?

Pseudonyms will be given to the institution and the teachers so that they will not be identifiable in the dissertation or in any publications that arise from the dissertation. All the data will be kept on a password-protected laptop, and all the files will also be encrypted. Interview records, transcripts, and participants' contact details will be stored

separately. Following the data protection guidance provided by University of Bath (2019), the data will be preserved for 10 years from the end of the project.
10. How will you record information faithfully and accurately? The data generated from the observations and interviews will be audio-recorded and then transcribed by me. I will also make translations if necessary, but the translations will be checked by my peers who hold certificates in translation. The interviews transcripts will also be returned to the participants, inviting them to make changes or add information which might help represent them better. By using these measures I hope to make sure that information is recorded faithfully and accurately.

11. Any additional information: N/A

Student:	**Signature:** **Zening Yang** **Date: 25/05/2020**
Supervising Member of Staff:	**Name**: Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez **Signature**: Hugo Santiago Sanchez **Date**: 25/05/20

NB: Students should upload a signed copy of this form into Moodle (Dissertation for the MA TESOL) before any data collection takes place.

Appendix 4. Sample Information sheet and consent form

在线学习环境中的激励学生策略：外语教师的认知和实践

您被邀请参加一个关于在线学习环境下语言老师对于激励策略的认知和实践研究项目。这项研究是杨泽宁在巴斯大学教育系的硕士毕业论文的一部分。

您有完全的自主权来决定是否要参加。在您决定参加之前，我将描述该项目并与您一起阅读信息表。如果您同意参加，我将请您签署同意书。

- 您将在这项研究中需要做什么？

如果您决定自愿参加，您将参与以下活动：

- 课堂观察：我会观察您的在线课堂，并在您允许的情况下录制您的在线课堂（4-5 堂课）。
- 不同类型的采访：
  1. 在开始课堂观察之前，我将首先采访您，询问您的专业背景和学习经历，对学生学习动机的理解以及您对激励学生策略的应用。
  2. 4-5 次采访将在课堂观察后进行。您将会被问到有关您课堂中使用到的激励策略的信息。
  3. 1 次后续采访。您将被邀请对我观察到的您激励学生的模式进行评论。您还将有机会评论您认为采访中涉及的反思活动有多大用处。

所有采访将通过微信进行，并在您允许的情况下录制音频。我预计面试时间不会超过一小时。如果您同意参加，我可以灵活按照您最方便的时间表安排观察和访谈。

- 参与这项研究对您有哪些风险和收益？

参与这项研究没有已知的风险。如果在采访中被问到出于任何原因您不想回答的问题，您都可以选择不回答。

参与该项目没有明显的直接好处。但是，面试中涉及的反思性实践可能会帮助您更好地了解自己的教学实践。

- 谁有权限接触我所提供的信息？

只有我和我的导师可以接触您提供的信息，所有记录将被保密。

- 收集的数据和项目结果将如何处理？

我将使用化名来代替您和您所在机构的真实名称，以保证您和您的机构不会在论文及其后续出版物中被识别。所有数据将保存在受密码保护的笔记本电脑中，所有文件也将被加密。采访录音，文字记录和参与者的联系方式将被分开存储。依据巴斯大学2019年版本的数据保护指南，数据将会在项目结束后的10年内被保存。

您可以通过此链接阅读巴斯大学隐私声明：https://www.bath.ac.uk/corporate-information/university-of-bath-privacy-notice-for-research-participants/

- 我如何退出该项目？

如果您希望在完成项目之前停止参与，可以通知我您的退出要求。您可以随时退出项目，并且无需提供退出的的理由，也不会对自己造成任何后果。

如果您愿意参加本研究，请填写下面的同意书。如果您对此研究有任何疑问，请随时联系我（zy383@bath.ac.uk）或我的导师Hugo Santiago Sanchez博士（H.S.Sanchez@bath.ac.uk）。

参与同意书

我已经被清楚的告知这项研究的目的，我关于这项研究所有的问题已经被满意的回答。我同意：

1，我获得了关于此项目所涉及内容的信息。 ☐
2，我有机会提出问题并讨论这个项目。 ☐
3，对于我提出的问题，我都收到了满意的答复。 ☐
4，我获得了足够的关于此项目的信息来做出是否参加的决定。 ☐
5，我了解我可以随时退出参与此项目，并不需要提供退出的理由。 ☐
6，我了解在参与项目的前两周内我可以要求撤回我提供的数据。 ☐
7，我理解此项目所涉及程序的性质和目的。我已经在此同意书附带的信息标中被告知这些信息。 ☐
8，我理解并认可此项目旨在促进科学知识，并且巴斯大学只会将我数据用于信息表中提到的目的。 ☐
9，我了解我提供的数据将被保密，并且我的名字和其他识别信息不会以任何形式被公开或发表。 ☐
10，我了解我对使用我所提供数据的同意 ☐
11，我因此完全自愿的同意参与此项目。 ☐

参与人签字:_____ 日期：_____

Appendix 5. Internal and external factors in Lydia's case

Factor categories			Examples
Internal Factors	**Beliefs about motivation**		• People are motivated to do things that '*make them feel good about themselves*' (i.e. positive self-perception) • Students learn from interesting classes • It takes time for motivation to develop • The teacher plays a major role in motivating students • Motivated students show more behavioural engagement in class and more effort after class • Motivation is crucial for achievement • Lack of awareness of the values associated with learning English is a key source for demotivation
	Beliefs about MotS		• Detailed praising is especially important for students who do not understand her purpose of praising • Using an enthusiastic voice is effective in keeping student engagement in online learning environments (when the teacher is not physically present • Using humour (especially when being used to 'wake up' the student) is not effective when there is only one student in the class • Using authentic materials is particularly helpful for learning if materials are related to topics that the student is not familiar with
	Beliefs about teaching and learning		• Students' own effort is essential for learning • Students' active engagement in classroom is a sign of learning • Jokes make the language item that is to be learnt more memorable • Contextualising vocabulary items makes learning more concrete (SRI) • Drilling is necessary for memorisation • Understanding the social context of the listening event or the topic is crucial for interpreting the message
	Pedagogical knowledge		• See Table 10
	Knowledge about students		• Student 1 likes basketball • Student 2 was forced by his parents to go abroad • Student 3 is an autonomous learner who always makes her learning plans • Student 4 had poor entrance exam results
	Knowledge about language and IELTS		• Knowing the vocabulary and grammatical structures that are valued by IELTS (SRI) • Sufficient knowledge about English is needed in order to know whether the students' answer is correct or not, whether a given language item is difficult/easy.
	Previous experiences	**Previous learning experiences**	• Praises from Lydia's high school teacher kept her motivated. (although Lydia did not explicitly link this experience with her use of praising) • Lydia never studied abroad before
		Previous teacher	• Emphasis was given to choosing authentic materials during her teacher training at XX Normal University.

		training experiences	• Lydia suggested that she might have learnt some strategies from the peer teaching sessions at the institution. However, she was not able to identify any particular examples.
		Previous teaching experience es	• Humour was a strategy Lydia used to deal with student disengagement when she worked at a junior high school. She described this strategy as being very effective at that time • At her current institution she received positive student feedback regarding her use of authentic materials • One of the girls she taught previously at this institution struggled with a listening exercise on company structure because she had little background knowledge. (this reinforced her assumption that girls do not understand company structures) • Previous experience with the particular student (e.g. student 4 withdrew effort when he was given too much praise; student 3 made her own learning plans and kept up with it well; student 2 previous disclosure to her that she had no interest in going abroad, but her parents wanted her to)
	Identities	**Professional Identity**	• Lydia described herself as a beginner level teacher whose main job is to improve students' language skills • '*I learn from my students all the time*' • '*I'm more than a teacher to them, to younger ones I'm like their mother; to the older ones I'm their big sister*'
		Personal identity	• A new mother who needs to spend a lot of time with her baby (This restricted her time commitment given to class preparation)
	Emotions		• '*I was genuinely happy for her when she got the correct answe*r' • '*I really enjoy chatting to students'* • Lydia expressed her general enthusiasm for teaching and for English several times in BI and SRIs
	Self-efficacy		• Lydia rated herself 8 out of 10 in term of motivating her students. she suggested that she could have done better if the students study with her for a longer time period. • Throughout interviews she talked about her use of motivational strategies in a confident manner (e.g. '*using authentic material is not going to be a problem for any student graduated from XX Normal University; 'I can use what I think is most appropriate for her')* • However, she expressed concerns over ' enhance students' awareness of the values associated with English' because she has never studied abroad before

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>Perceptions of the context</td><td>Macro
• Frequent vocabularies in IELTS need to be emphasised
• The institution allows teacher a high degree of autonomy in terms of how they teach
• Lack of non-verbal cues in the online environment makes teaching more challenging
• Interpretations of particular student behaviours (e.g. being able to recall knowledge learnt from previous class is a sign of effort after class, ‘bar chat’ is the misspelling of ‘bar chart’, lack of responses from the student is a sign of him falling asleep)
• Interpretations of specific characteristics of the student (e.g. a final year undergraduate girls can easily feel humiliated when they make basic English mistakes; a music teacher is more likely to understand her genuine happiness for student achievement.
Micro</td></tr>
<tr><td>Perceived External Factors</td><td colspan="2">Macro
• The IELTS test requirements and regulations
• The online medium. Some classes were delivered audio-only
• Institutional regulations (e.g. the students can select teachers who they want to work with; teachers can decide the materials they use and the way they teach)
• There are teachers who are specialised for teaching grammars at the institution
• Time constraints (Each class is 2 hours long)
• Characteristics of the particular student (e.g. occupation, gender, age, level of education)
• Behaviours of the particular student (e.g. not responding to questions, being able to recall knowledge learnt from previous class) (student’s behavioural responses to motivational strategies, e.g. laughing and chatting)
Micro</td></tr>
</table>

Appendix 6. Internal and external factors in Susan's case

Factor categories			Examples
Internal Factors	**Beliefs about motivation**		• Motivation is a personal trait which strongly contribute to individual differences in test performance • But Susan also believes that motivation is malleable, especially by the teacher • Obtaining the required IELTS score is the main goal that keeps all of her students motivated • Students are motivated by their perceived achievement • Students are motivated to learn if they like the teacher • Motivated students pay more effort and achieve higher scores
	Beliefs about MotS		• Elicitation is effective when the desired answer is within the learner's reach • Social chatting is especially important for extrovert students • Softening corrective feedback is especially important when the student shows signs of frustration
	Beliefs about learning		• Students' own effort is essential for learning • Students' independent thinking is necessary for making learning more concrete • Explicit correction is necessary for learning • IELTS learning includes learning about language skills as well as test-taking strategies • Properly presenting learning tasks facilitates learning
	Pedagogical knowledge		• See Table 10
	Knowledge about students		• Student 1 is an introvert one who 'just want to learn in the class' • Student 2 is a university student and Susan knows the university has a famous debate society • Student 3 is a 'especially outgoing and chatty one' • Student 4 is a new student who Susan does not know very well
	Knowledge about language and IELTS		• Having sufficient knowledge of English (in order to answer any unexpected questions from the student) • Knowing IELTS test strategies and how to prepare for IELTS • Knowing about the latest trends in IELTS and predict likely topics
	Previous experiences	**Previous learning experiences**	• Susan mentioned that she was motivated to learn because of senses of achievement (although she did not explicitly link this experience with her beliefs about motivation)
		Previous teacher training experiences	• '*this (the technique of signposting) might have been introduced to me during teacher training*' • 'I might have observed my colleagues doing this (the technique of signposting)' in peer teaching sessions'
		Previous teaching experiences	• *'I had students who came to me and be like, 'I like your classes because I can learn real stuff from you. The other teacher was not as knowledgeable as you"* • At the institution that Susan worked for previously, she was required to write detailed lesson plans which demonstrate the sequent and content of class activities clearly

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="5"></td><td rowspan="2">Identities</td><td>Teacher Identity</td><td>• ‘As a teacher, a knowledge giver, I must demonstrate sufficient knowledge myself’
• ‘being seen as a friend by the student increases the chances of them choosing you again as the teacher’
• A good teacher should be liked and respected by the students (Concerns for her own career development)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Personal identity</td><td>• Personality: ‘I’m not an outgoing person’</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Feelings/emotions</td><td>• ‘It feels natural doing it’
• ‘it’s socially awkward if I do not follow up on the comment that he made’</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Self-efficacy</td><td>• Susan also rated herself 8 out of 10 in term of motivating her students. she suggested that because motivation is a personality trait, some students are harder to be motivated than others
• Throughout interviews she talked about her use of motivational strategies in a confident manner (e.g. I can give him that feeling of success)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Others</td><td>• ‘it’s just my habit, routines that I use without thinking’
• ‘it’s something I started doing when I first started tutoring’</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Perceptions of the context</td><td>• Test-oriented language items and strategies should be taught
• The institution allows teacher a high degree of autonomy in terms of how they teach
• Having students who are willing to choose her, and stay with her is positive for her career development
• Time constrain: using elicitation for every question would go over the class time
• Interpretation of particular student characteristics (e.g. 120 out of 150 in the entrance exam illustrates the students' intermediate-advanced English proficiency level)
• Interpretations of particular student behaviours (e.g. sigh is a sign of frustration; the student only got 2 correct answers in the reading task is a sign of the reading material being too difficult)
Macro ↓ Micro</td></tr>
<tr><td>Perceived External Factors</td><td colspan="3">Macro
• The IELTS test requirements and regulations
• Institutional regulations (e.g. the students can select teachers who they want to work with; teachers can decide the materials they use and the way they teach)
• The student only got two correct answers for reading section three.
• ‘the student’s previous performance’ (without referring to any particular incidents)
• Time constraints (Each class is 2 hours long)
↓</td></tr>
</table>

	• Interpretations of specific characteristics of the student (e.g. outgoing/introvert, proficiency level) • Behaviours of the particular student (e.g. sigh, the student only got 2 correct answers in the reading task, the particular student often/never chat about things irrelevant to the lesson)	Micro