Teachers' Classroom Behaviour and Its Impact on

Students' Foreign Language Anxiety, Motivation, and

Achievement

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Statement of Authenticity

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original, except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution.

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Hasan, D. C. (2011). *Language anxiety experienced by Indonesian learners of English in Australia*. Paper presented at the IATEL, Brighton, UK.

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Abstract

The principal objectives of this study were to explore the influence of students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour on their level of foreign language anxiety and motivation. The study also examined the interrelationships between students' foreign language anxiety, motivation and achievement and students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour. In addition, students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour were compared.

A mixed method design was employed in this study. The quantitative data were obtained by utilising established questionnaires to measure students' foreign language anxiety level and motivation at Time 1 (the beginning of the semester) and at Time 2 (10 weeks later) and students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour at Time 2. Teacher participants completed a parallel teacher classroom behaviour questionnaire. At the end of the semester, students sat the Preliminary English Test (PET) to measure their achievement. Qualitative aspects were student interviews and classroom observations. A total of 344 students from two senior secondary schools, an International Standard School (ISS) and a non-International Standard School (non-ISS), and eight teachers (four from each school) participated in the study. Statistical analyses included repeated-measures MANOVA, repeated-measures ANOVA, one-way ANOVA and Pearson Product–Moment correlations.

The study found: (1) The level of students' language anxiety changed over an instructional semester and some of these changes were influenced by their perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour. Students' perceptions of two teachers' classroom behaviours, *negativity* and *unclear structuring of the class* contributed to the increase in students' anxiety level. (2) The level of students' motivation to study English was affected by their perception of teachers' classroom behaviours and other aspects of learning. The dimensions of teachers' behaviours which affected students' motivation positively were *structure* and *relatedness* and a negative influence was teacher *negativity*. Factors other than teachers' classroom behaviour were their teaching skills and classroom management, mastery of English, teaching materials and ISS school type. (3) Students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour showed an inverse relationship with foreign language anxiety but positively correlated with students' motivation and achievement. Students' foreign language anxiety was negatively correlated with their motivation. (4) There were discrepancies between students' and teachers' perceptions of the teachers' classroom behaviour due to teachers rating themselves more positively than their students did.

The limitations of this research were acknowledged. The main limitation in research design was employing self-reported questionnaires to obtain the level of students' foreign language anxiety and motivation as students may not be able to precisely rate their emotional and motivational states. In addition, students may not respond truthfully to questions concerning their teachers' classroom behaviours due to concern about the possibility that teachers may discover their answers, although prior explanation about confidentiality of the data was provided. The number of teachers participating in the study was relatively limited and the

fact that all teachers were female gives rise to an issue in terms of variance. Future research suggestions are to examine the effects of students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours on students' test anxiety and whether gender differences exist in students' perceptions of *relatedness* with the teacher and how it affects motivation to study. Research on students' language anxiety in lower education levels is also encouraged to obtain a comprehensive picture of foreign language anxiety in different stages of learning.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter introduces the issues and contextual background of this study. The research is concerned with the impact of students' perceptions of teacher's classroom behaviours on the level of their foreign language anxiety and motivations, assessed over an instructional semester. In addition, it examines the interrelationships among students' foreign language anxiety, motivation, perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours and their achievement in learning English as a foreign language in eIndonesia. Students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour were also compared. The chapter begins with a description of the current situation in relation to English teaching in Indonesia and describes the types of high schools in which the study was conducted. The rationale, research objectives, key research questions and significance of the research will also be presented. The last section of the chapter sets out the organizational structure of this thesis.

1.2 Background and Context of the Research

English is now a primary medium of communication in the fields of science, technology, business, the internet, popular entertainment and, even, sport. Awareness of the importance of English for effective participation in the global economy has resulted in changes in education systems, especially in the area of teaching English as

a foreign language. Nations around the world are now introducing English as a compulsory school subject at ever younger ages, even though, in some countries, it is being introduced without sufficient preparation such as funding, teacher education, curricula or appropriate teaching materials (Nunan, 2003). In addition, some countries in Asia have introduced the concept of bilingual education as an effective way to equip the younger generation with excellent English language skills to enable them to face the challenges of globalization. A research project conducted by British Council investigated the implementation of English Bilingual Education (EBE) in Thailand, South Korea and Indonesia reported that EBE appeared to be a very attractive program for school, parents and students and predicted it would expand in the future (Bax, 2010). The implementation of the EBE program was different in each country. For example, Thailand established an English Program (EP) categorized into two types - the Mini EP and the EP. The Mini EP program offered 2 out of 9 subjects to be taught in English and the total number of hours for English-medium classes was to be 8-14 per week. The EP program offered more English hours, with at least 4 core subjects out of a total of 9 taught in English, amounting to at least 15 hours per week of English-medium classes.

Korea also implemented the concept of bilingual education, initially called the *mol-ib* scheme. This scheme included the teaching of content subjects such as mathematics and science through the medium of English but it was then criticized because Korean teachers were not considered ready to teach these content subjects through English. After only six months, the *mol-ib* scheme was abandoned but the

concern to improve graduates' English ability led the Ministry of Education in Seoul to adopt a different approach, Teaching English in English (TEE), which aimed to provide students with more exposure to English. As a result, English as the medium of instruction was only used in English classes and content subjects were taught using Korean. However, in some areas, such as Busan Metropolitan City, teaching content subjects through English was still implemented through the program known as the 'Reinforced English Program' (Bax, 2010).

Likewise, as a developing country, Indonesia is aware of the importance of English for its citizens. In 1989, English was introduced as the first foreign language to be taught in schools. Even though there has been a long-term practice of teaching English as a compulsory subject in all state schools and higher education institutions, the results are far from satisfactory. Most Indonesians face constraints in communication because of less than adequate knowledge of English (Lauder, 2008). This condition is also applicable to highly-educated intellectuals who are unable to perform well in spoken and written English and to read academic articles written in English. It is argued that Indonesian students are not equipped with sufficient mastery of English to enable them to act and perform effectively in the language (Gunarwan, 2001). In addition, the proficiency of high school graduates is not satisfying to parents or the students themselves (Lengkanawati, 2004) and only a small number of Indonesian high school graduates can communicate intelligibly in English (Lie, 2007). In the latest English Proficiency Index (EPI) report produced by English First (EF) in 2012, Indonesia is categorized as a 'Low Proficiency' country and ranked 27th out of

54 surveyed countries (EF EPI Report, 2012). This shows that Indonesia is far below its neighbouring countries of Singapore, Malaysia, South Korea and Japan which are ranked 12th, 13th, 21st and 22nd respectively. A recent research study also categorized Indonesia as a low proficiency country in English, similar to Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Vietnam and Thailand, based on a general English proficiency test score such as IELTS (Todd & Shih, 2013).

Realizing this sense of failure, Indonesia has made continuous efforts to improve high school graduates' English proficiency, especially in the area of teaching methodology. Since 1945, Indonesia has changed its English curriculum six times using three different approaches, including the grammar-translation method (1945-1968), Audio Lingual Method (1968-1975) and Communicative Approach (1984-2004) (Lie, 2007) as well as reorientation of the objectives of English teaching being required. Prior to 1994, the English curriculum, which used the principles of the Communicative Approach, ordered the priorities in English language teaching as reading, listening, writing, speaking (Kam, 2002). This order demonstrates that more emphasis was placed on receptive skills (reading and listening) than on productive skills (writing and speaking). After the implementation of the Communicative Approach in 1994 more focus was placed on the development of speaking and listening at the elementary level and speaking and reading in secondary school (Huda, 1993).

However, these efforts seemed less fruitful. Globalisation and international competition led Indonesian authorities to prepare a new policy, rather than just

focusing on English teaching methodology. The dual goals of improving the quality

of graduates and enhancing international competitiveness led the Indonesian

government to establish Law number 20 of 2003 applicable to the National Education

System of Indonesia. This law introduced the concept of an International Standard

School (ISS), in which some contents subjects, mathematics and science, were taught

using English as a medium of instruction and required each local government to

cooperate with the central government to establish one ISS at every educational level

- primary, junior secondary and senior secondary. The purpose of the policy was to

equip Indonesian graduates with the ability to compete with graduates from

developed countries. The emergence of ISS as a response toward globalization is

illustrated by Coleman (2011), as shown in Figure 1.
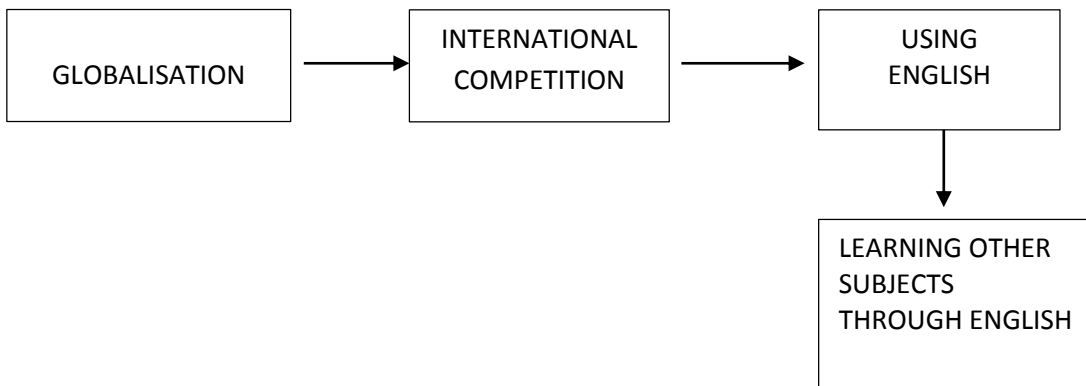
Figure 1. Perceived relationships between 'globalisation' and other concepts
(Coleman, 2011).

The Department of Education of the Republic of Indonesia defined ISS and set the

criteria of quality assurances. The definition of ISS was restated by Coleman (2011)

as follows:

A school… which fulfils all the National Standards for Education and which is further enriched by taking into consideration the education standards of one member nation of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and/or another advanced nation which has particular strengths in education such that it achieves competitive advantage in the international forum (p.91).

The quality assurance for ISS covered nine areas as shown in the following table:

Table 1

Nine Areas for Quality Assurance in Indonesia's International Standard School

(Coleman, 2011)

Areas for quality assurance	Example of quality indicators
1. Accreditation	…school is also accredited by a school accreditation body in an OECD member nation
2. Curriculum	…lesson content equivalent to or higher than that taught in an OECD member country
3. Learning-teaching process	Science, mathematics and core vocational subjects are taught in English…In primary schools, teaching science and mathematics through English begins in Year 4.
4. Evaluation	…'enriched' with models of evaluation employed in an OECD member country
5. Teachers	Teachers of science, mathematics and core vocational subjects are able to deliver lessons through English
6. Head Teachers	Head teacher has active mastery of English…possesses international vision and is capable of developing international links
7. Facilities and Resources	Internet access
8. Management	School is multicultural
9. Financing	Achieves Indonesian National Education Standard for school financing

Developed from ordinary public schools, an ISS is very different from the international schools which already existed in major cities like Jakarta. These schools,

such as Jakarta International School, British International School and Australian International School, were established to accommodate the requirements for education of expatriates', diplomats' and foreign investors' children in Indonesia using their own curriculum, teachers and facilities. During the New Order government (also known as the Soeharto era), domestic students were forbidden to attend these international schools under Government Regulation number 48, year 1960 (Sakhiyya, 2011). Instead, they were required to attend Indonesian schools which implemented the national curriculum. After the collapse of the New Order government, this regulation changed, allowing Indonesian students admission to international schools but the level of demand from parents to send their children to these types of schools could not be accommodated by existing international schools. Therefore, the establishment of the ISS seemed to be a perfect response to this demand.

The major differences between ISS and non-ISS highlighted the use of English as a medium of instruction for teaching content subjects, mathematics and sciences and the number of hours allocated for English. Non-ISS offered 4 hours English per week, while ISS students studied English for 5 hours a week. Another difference between ISS and non-ISS is in the system of students' recruitment. Non-ISS students were recruited based on their academic achievement at the lower education level only. ISS students' recruitments were based not only on their performance in the previous education level but, also, on a set of entrance tests including mathematics, science, information technology and English as well as an IQ

test. In terms of facilities, an ISS was better equipped, with a video screen in each class and more technological and pedagogical support. A study reviewing the development of English Bilingual Education (EBE) in primary and junior secondary school in Indonesia reported that, because of these differences, teachers were confident that ISS students achieved higher standards and showed better motivation than their non-ISS counterparts (Bax, 2010).

Despite the ideal image of ISS as promising schools that would provide world-class education, there were some substantial issues related to funding and the use of English as a medium of instruction to teach content subjects which provoked debates among parents and educators. To help the school meet the international standard, ISS received extra funding on top of school operational support (BOS) which was, also, provided for all public schools. Other funding supporting the ISS came from central and district governments as well as parents of the students. For example, in 2007, IDR350 million was allocated to each ISS for infrastructure improvement, IDR100 million was allocated to each junior and senior secondary school for head teacher and teacher improvement and, in 2008, IDR50 million was allocated to each ISS for unspecified purposes. In addition, the schools were allowed to charge fees, which non-ISS were not. In 2010, the average monthly fee paid by parents of a junior secondary school was IDR 450,000 with an additional annual development contribution of IDR6 million (Coleman, 2011). Along with these fees, students still had to pay entrance examination fees and fees for international study

tours. As a result, ISS was only affordable for upper and middle-class Indonesian parents (Sakhiyya, 2011).

The second issue was related to the requirement of the use of English as the medium of instruction for teaching content subjects including mathematics and science. While considered the most prominent selling point of the ISS scheme (Coleman, 2011), the use of English as a medium of instruction was also controversial. Many claimed that Indonesian teachers were not equipped with the ability to teach content subjects in English. A study conducted by the Education Ministry in 2007 and 2008 reported that more than 50% of the 27,000 ISS teachers who participated in the study had only beginner-level English whereas only 0.7 per cent were considered as having high level English proficiency (Sumintono, 2013).

These problems led the Federated Teacher Union (FSGI) and several NGOs, including the Indonesia Corruption Watch (ICW), the Legal Aid Foundation (LBH) and the Institutes for Policy Research and Advocacy (Elsam) and Education Coalition to file for a judicial review questioning the implementation of ISS, in December 2011. ICW claimed ISS was an attempt to commercialize public education as the schools were allowed to levy fees. Moreover, there was no indication that the school showed improvement in education quality as a result of these fees but seemed to be more focused on building physical facilities (Sagita, 2010).

On 8 January 2013, the Constitutional Court of Indonesia granted the judicial review's findings and officially declared the dismissal of ISS. There were several reasons for this dismissal. ISS was found to be violating the principle of education for

all, creating social gaps among students and was unconstitutional. Surprisingly, one

of the reasons to dissolve the ISS contradicts the rationale of the establishment of ISS,

namely to equip Indonesia's younger generations with good English language

capability to face the challenge of globalization. The court clearly stated that the use

of English as the main language in ISS classes dissuaded students from using their

mother language, Bahasa Indonesia (Herujiyanto, 2013). At the time the data was

collected for this study, the ISS conducted bilingual education as it is described in the

rationale for its establishment. This project highlights the differences between ISS

and non-ISS in the interrelationships of the variables examined in the research.

1.3 Research Rationale

Research literature on foreign language teaching and learning suggests some

factors that may influence students' achievement in a foreign language (FL), such as

FL anxiety and students' motivation (Aida, 1994; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993;

MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; MacIntyre, Noel & Clement, 1997; Marcos-Llinas &

Garau, 2009; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000; Saito & Samimi, 1996; Yan &

Horwitz, 2008). These studies point out that highly-anxious students showed poorer

learning outcomes than their non-anxious counterparts. The inverse relationship

between FL anxiety and achievement is true, regardless of the educational level of the

students and target language being learnt. The input hypothesis explained that high

levels of anxiety prevent students from receiving input (Krashen, 1980) and,

therefore, these students face difficulties in mastering the language.

Futhermore, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) claimed that FL anxiety is a state of anxiety specific to FL learning. As it is not classified as a trait anxiety, it is assumed that FL anxiety may not be constant and may fluctuate depending on students' learning experience and classroom environments. In other words, students who initially feel anxious may become less anxious after a certain period of learning in a positive learning environment. However, very few studies attempt to investigate the dynamics of FL anxiety and, therefore, despite the prolific growth of research in FL anxiety, the studies in this field did not clearly identify factors associated with these dynamics of FL anxiety.

As described by Young (1991) and, also, reported by other research investigating anxiety from the learners' point of view, instructor-learner interaction is reported as one of the sources of FL anxiety (Ohata, 2005; Worde, 2003). In relation to Indonesian learners of English, a study by Hasan (2007) reported that Indonesian students who learned English in Australia experienced varying levels of anxiety and that some students reported the sources of anxiety were related to teachers' classroom behaviour. Although teachers were identified as one of the sources of FL anxiety, teachers who are sensitive toward students' learning experience and aware of this issue may play a reverse role by alleviating students' anxiety. For example, a teacher who focuses more on assessment for learning (formative assessment) than assessment of learning (summative assessment) may decrease students' fear of negative evaluation (Hashemi & Abbasi, 2013). Teachers who can act as a facilitator and provide opportunities for students to practise the language in an authentic situation

may also reduce students' anxiety (Young, 1991). Therefore, it is deemed highly important to see the impact of teachers' classroom behaviour on the dynamics of students' FL anxiety.

In addition to teachers' classroom behaviour, which may produce anxiety, and the behaviour that may relieve anxiety, learners' perceptions of the teachers' behaviour may also aggravate their anxiety. In many cases, learners perceived teachers' behaviour differently from how teachers thought they were behaving. Research has shown that teachers tend to rate themselves more positively than do their students (Spearman &Watt, 2013). These discrepancies between teachers' and learners' perceptions in FL learning can negatively impact the learning process, potentially leading students to feel dissatisfied with their language classes and, even, discontinuing those classes (Kern, 1995; Schulz, 1996). Since teaching and learning processes, to be effective, involve bi-directional communications, knowing students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour is considered critical.

It has been reported that investigating FL anxiety itself is not sufficient to understand the success or failure of foreign language learners. Other affective variables, such as motivation, also play a role in determining students' outcomes. Therefore, this study also included students' motivation and its relationship with anxiety and teachers' classroom behaviour in foreign language learning.

Recently, theoretical models of L2 learning incorporated motivation as a dynamic variable. In other words, the dimension of motivation may change during the period of studying the L2. For example, attitudes toward the L2 community is only

relevant in the phase prior to learn a language, especially in deciding which language to learn and, once the study has started, it becomes less important as a motivator (Lamb, 2007). In addition, Lamb claims that the nature of motivation is "fluctuating and highly context-sensitive" (p. 758). His study revealed that changes in students' motivation may also be affected by students' experience in the language class and teachers' classroom behaviour. Indeed, there is evidence that the decline among Indonesian, junior, secondary students' motivation over a 20 month period was related to the class teacher. Lamb's study examined the motivation of Indonesian adolescents toward learning, how it changes over the period of research and identifies psychological, social or institutional factors which may influence the changes. Twelve junior secondary school students participated in Lamb's mixed methods study and it was reported that, initially, these students showed a positive attitude toward the English language. However, after 20 months, the students' attitude towards formal learning tended to depreciate and they expressed concern about their negative experiences of classroom learning although they still maintained belief in the value of English. The interviews revealed that students' motivation decreased because of their negative feelings toward the teacher's behaviour which made them feel excluded or alienated. Students reported that their teachers just followed the curriculum and ignored the desires and interests of the students and, therefore, they claimed, the lesson lacked intrinsically motivating activities. In other words, little variety in class activities and textbook orientation without communicative use of language was evident in his observations and was the cause of this motivational decrease. On the

other hand, students who commented positively on their teacher's style or methods, such as providing time for practice in speaking and listening rather than just focusing solely on the materials, were more motivated. From this, it was evident that the role of a teachers' behaviour in the classroom was central to the motivation of students in FL context.

Similar to Lamb's (2007) study, the present study investigates the dynamics of students' motivation in the Indonesian context and identifies these factors associated with change. Although Lamb devoted 20 months to his study, the very small number of participants (N=12) limited the generalizability of the research. To get a fuller description of Indonesian students' motivation, research studies with a larger number of participants are required. The present study involves more participants from diverse background (N=344). In addition, it relates changes in students' motivation not only with teachers' classroom behaviour but also with students' foreign language anxiety and achievement.

Another important point investigated in this research is the comparison between students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours. Previous studies reported that students and teachers showed discrepancies in perceiving teachers' behaviour (Brown, 2009) and, more often, teachers perceived themselves more favourably than did their students (Maulana, Opdenakker, den Brok & Bosker, 2011) or rated themselves more positively than their students (Spearman & Watt, 2013). Since students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour may affect students' foreign language anxiety, motivation and their achievement, it is considered

important to examine and compare students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour.

1.4 Research Questions

The study is designed to investigate the impact of teachers' classroom behaviour on the level of students' language anxiety and motivation after studying with a particular teacher for a period of time. It, also, intended to examine the relationships among these variables and students' achievement. The data was collected at two time points: Time 1 (T1) at the beginning of the semester and Time 2 (T2) 10 weeks later. A mixed method design was used, employing surveys to collect quantitative data, followed by interview and classroom observations to collect qualitative data. The study addressed the following questions:

1. Do students' foreign language anxiety and motivation change over time?

2. What are the interrelationships between students' foreign language anxiety, motivation, achievement and their perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours?

3. What is the relationship between students' FL anxiety and motivation when controlling for their respective Time 1 score, and each of

    a. students' perception of teachers' classroom behaviour;

    b. students' achievement?

4. How do students' and teachers' perceptions compare by teacher?

1.5 Significance of the Research

This study has both theoretical significance and pedagogical implications. Foreign language anxiety related to teachers' classroom behaviour is relatively under-researched although teacher- students interaction has been reported as one the sources of foreign language anxiety (Worde, 2003; Young, 1991). This study expands the knowledge base related to foreign language anxiety in relation to teachers' classroom behaviour and attempts to go beyond identifying teachers as a source of students' FL anxiety. It delineates how increases or decreases in FL anxiety over time relate to students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour and whether and how this influences their achievement. In addition, by investigating FL anxiety in a context previously little-researched, Indonesia, this study widens FL anxiety research considerably by encompassing a non-Western setting for English as foreign language (EFL) learning, whereas most previous studies were conducted on FL in the United States (US) and Canada. Moreover, by examining Year 10 and 11 students, this study extends the research in this field to include an understanding of FL anxiety in younger learners, as many existing studies focus on college or university students. There is, to date, no published, empirical study investigating how teachers' classroom behaviour impact Indonesian students' anxiety and motivation and how this interrelationship influences students' achievement.

The study revealed the levels of students' foreign language anxiety and motivations and how teacher's classroom behaviours affected these levels. It brings the implication that the teachers could reform their classroom instructions and

become more careful in giving comments or feedback to students. Teachers could also help students in reducing their anxiety and help sustain their motivation to study.

1.6 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into seven chapters, described briefly below:

Chapter 1 provides the background of the topic and the context of the schools where the study was conducted. This chapter also includes the research rationale and the research questions.

Chapter 2 is a review of the literature on foreign language anxiety, motivation and teachers' classroom behaviour.

Chapter 3 sets out the research methodology for the both quantitative and qualitative parts of the study. It includes a description of the participants, questionnaires, classroom observation guides and interviews, data collection and analysis and the research procedures.

Chapter 4 discusses the quantitative findings of the research. It describes the results from statistical tests used to examine the changes of students' level of FL anxiety and motivation as well as interrelationships among the variables and the comparison between students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the qualitative parts of the study. This chapter discusses the interviews with selected students and the classroom observation results. A summary of the interview and classroom observation results is presented at the end of the chapter.

Chapter 6 provides a discussion of the findings.

Chapter 7 is the conclusion. It outlines pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter reviews the literature on foreign language anxiety and motivation and their relationship with students' foreign language learning. The chapter discusses foreign language anxiety's nature, its sources and its relationships with students' achievement, foreign language anxiety and different language skills. With regard to motivation, the chapter presents a brief examination of theories of motivation in psychology followed by those used in learning. The chapter also discusses factors that influence students' motivation in learning a foreign language and theories of motivation used in the present study then reviews studies on motivation to learm English as a foreign language in the context of Indonesia.

2.2 The Nature of Foreign Language Anxiety and Its Relation to Students' Achievement

One of the factors considered important in foreign language learning that has attracted language educators and researchers' attention in the last three decades is foreign language anxiety. Numerous research studies have been conducted to investigate foreign language anxiety in learners from various native language backgrounds and target languages. Some of the studies focus on English speakers learning different target languages such as Spanish, French, German, Arabic and

Japanese (Abu-Rabia, 2003; Ewald, 2007; Frantzen & Magnan, 2005; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic, 2004; Kitano, 2001; Marcos-Llinas & Garau, 2009; Ohata, 2005; Tallon, 2009), while others have investigated speakers of other languages, such as Japanese, Taiwanese and Chinese, learning English (Chen & Chang, 2004; Cheng, 2002; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Pichette, 2009). These studies provide compelling evidence that foreign language anxiety plays a pivotal role in foreign language learning.

Scovel's (1978) review of early research into foreign language anxiety, including those by Backman (1976), Chastain (1975), Swain and Burnaby (1976) and Tucker, Hamayan and Genese (1976), showed that these studies reported conflicting results and did not provide a clear picture of the role of anxiety in foreign language learning. They all had perplexing results in which foreign language anxiety sometimes correlated negatively with one measure of achievement but did not show significant correlation with others. Scovel pointed out that these inconsistent results were due to the absence of a clear definition and poor measurement of anxiety. He suggested that, to get a clear result, anxiety should be viewed within two dichotomies. The first one is the distinction between facilitating and debilitating anxiety. Facilitating anxiety motivates learners to do the task while the latter encourages them to avoid the task. The second dichotomy concerns the distinction between state anxiety, which appears permanently on all occasions, and trait anxiety, which is only momentarily felt by learners. Scovel deduced that researchers should precisely define

the type of anxiety they are investigating. This article was acknowledged as a turning point in an attempt to clearly define foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, 2010).

Since the article by Scovel (1978), research studies on foreign language anxiety have explored the nature of anxiety more carefully and most of the studies have specified foreign language anxiety as one of the trait anxieties, which appear only in the situation of foreign language learning. A study by Krashen (1980) claimed that anxiety prevents language learners from receiving the language input and, therefore, makes for slow progress in language acquisition. In other words, anxiety contributes as an affective filter which blocks the target language input. A more specific study of foreign language anxiety reinforced that anxiety is not a general construct but that it is specific to the language learning context (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Thus, foreign language anxiety is defined as "a distinct complex of self-perception, beliefs, and behaviours related to classroom language learning, arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). This definition has been very widely used since then.

Following the definition of foreign language anxiety as one of trait anxiety, Horwitz, et al. (1986) further explained the nature of foreign language anxiety. According to them, foreign language anxiety is a psychological construct which relates to communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. Communication apprehension refers to a condition where people feel shy and the shyness is caused by fear of communicating with others. It is manifested as both oral communication anxiety, such as difficulty in speaking in groups; and receiver

anxiety, such as having problems in listening to or learning spoken messages. This construct influences foreign language anxiety greatly because people who have problems speaking in groups are more likely to have serious problems in speaking in the foreign language classroom. Fear of negative evaluation may be experienced by students in every activity in class. Students are not only concerned about negative evaluation from the teacher but also from their classmates. As a result, the students who are sensitive to negative evaluation will experience difficulties in participating actively in the foreign language classroom. A diary study by Cohen and Norst (1989) investigating adults learning a foreign language corroborated this explanation and reported that "language and self are so closely bound, if not identical, an attack on one is an attack on the other" (p.61). Therefore, it is understandable why language learners fear negative evaluation from others. Test anxiety is related to foreign language anxiety because, in foreign language classes, students' performance is continuously assessed and the fear of failing a test results in anxiety associated with doing the test. Thus, Horwitz et al. (1986) claimed that foreign language anxiety is responsible for students' failure in learning a foreign language.

Since the emergence of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et.al (1986), designed to measure foreign language anxiety experienced by students in the foreign language classroom, an impressive body of research focusing on the relationship between foreign language anxiety and students' achievement has reported consistent results that foreign language anxiety correlated negatively with achievement. In her review article, Horwitz (2001) included 15

research studies conducted between 1986 – 2000 involving learners of different

languages including English, French, Japanese, Spanish and Russian, and revealed an

inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and achievement.

A more recent and systematic review of the studies on the relationship

between foreign language anxiety and achievement was written by Al-Shboul,

Ahmad, Nordin and Rahman (2013). This review includes studies reported in

journals, theses and conference papers published between 1986 and 2012. According

to this review, since the emergence of FLCAS in 1986 until 2012, there have been 26

studies conducted on this topic involving learners from 10 different native language

backgrounds including English, Taiwanese, Chinese, Korean, Spanish, Turkish, Thai,

Urdu, Polish, and Persian. The majority of research participants learned English as a

foreign language (20 studies) followed by French (3 studies), Spanish (2 studies), and

Japanese (1 study). Although the studies investigated different language skills such

as speaking, listening, reading and writing and utilised different measures of students'

achievement, they reported consistent results that foreign language anxiety showed an

inverse relationship with students' achievement. The strength of negative correlations

between the two target variables ranged from weak to strong (r = -. 17 to r = -. 66)

with the majority of the studies reporting a moderate correlation (r = .30 to r =.49).

This review provided very strong, empirical evidence that anxiety negatively affects

students' achievement. Only one study, unfortunately, was not included in the review.

It reported that students with high level of anxiety did not inevitably show lower

course achievement compared to their low anxious counterparts (Marcos-Llinas &

Garau, 2009). Apparently, Al-Shboul, et al. (2013) did not consider that this single study offered a balance to the negative repercussions of foreign language anxiety rin foreign language learning.

Although a plethora of studies has reported that anxiety was responsible for students' low achievement, this explanation has not gone unchallenged. Sparks and Ganschow (1991) argued that foreign language anxiety was not the cause but was the result of poor foreign language learning. In a series of research studies, these researchers questioned whether anxiety is a natural result of learning difficulties or the cause of poor language achievement. By investigating learners who suffered from dyslexia, "a disability associated with reading and writing difficulties in individuals with average to superior intelligence", they speculated that Horwitz's claim that anxiety is the cause of students' failure should be carefully reconsidered. According to them, two major weaknesses of Horwitz's research were: i) failure to use a comparison group and, therefore, information about the possible contribution of foreign language anxiety on second language (L2) performance is only anecdotal; and (ii) student's native and foreign language aptitude were not assessed. It was speculated that students' poor performance may be caused by other factors, including difficulties in students' native language and anxiety resulting from students' native language problems. Their argument about how students' native language problems contribute to students' failure in learning a foreign language was termed the Language Coding Deficit Hypothesis (LCDH).

However, LCDH has been considered, by some, to provide an incomplete explanation of the process of foreign language learning, especially in analysing why some learners are successful and some are not and, therefore, not many empirical studies support LCDH. An important critique was proposed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), who claimed that LCDH omitted the language learning context, such as students' interaction with the teacher and classmates, as a significant factor in language learning. LCDH was suggested to be merely based on cognitive ability factors in terms of the coding of linguistic stimuli (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). This vigorous debate continued to flourish and, in response to McIntryre and Gardner's criticism of LCDH, Spark and Ganschow (1995) proposed the Strong Interference Approach. This approach again emphasized that cognitive ability to use and understand the language is a more important causal factor in learning a foreign language than affective factors such as motivation and anxiety. In short, this article reemphasized that anxiety is a result of learning difficulties, not the cause of them as proposed by earlier research.

Horwitz (2000) responded to this argument and made clear why the LCDH hypothesis should be rejected. She provided three convincing empirical reasons. First, a very large number of research participants were reported to experience a moderate to severe level of foreign language anxiety. It was unlikely that this sizable number of participants had cognitive disabilities since they had met the university entry requirements which usually involve screening procedures that capture amd exclude students with learning disabilities. The second case for rejecting the LCDH theory

was research by Horwitz (1996), which revealed that many language teachers experienced foreign language anxiety. It is highly doubtful that people with linguistic processing disabilities would opt for language teaching as their profession, let alone achieve a satisfactory standard to qualify as such. This argument questions the LCDH sufficiently for its dismissal, leaving the way clear; then, to confidently operate on the assumption that foreign language anxiety impedes the success of foreign language learners and is not the result of learning disabilities.

2.3 Foreign Language Anxiety and Language Skills

Research on FL anxiety and its influence on language skills suggests that foreign language anxiety affects students' achievement on the four language skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing, with speaking activities identified as the most anxiety-provoking for students, especially when they were asked to speak in front of others or without preparation (Horwitz, et. al, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, Woodrow, 2006; Worde, 2003). This section reviews the research on the relationship between FL anxiety and each language skill.

More recent research on the nature of foreign language anxiety tends to relate anxiety to students' willingness to communicate (WTC), which is defined as the probability of students speaking when they are free to do so (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991). The original WTC construct encapsulated a regular tendency to initiate or avoid communication. In other words, WTC is considered as a trait level variable. However, in the conceptualization of WTC as a pyramid model by

McIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei and Noels (1998), it is represented as a state level variable. WTC is explained as a state of readiness that persist in a given moment and is immediately influenced by low anxiety and perception of L2 competence as well as a desire to talk to a person. This indicates that a person's WTC is a matter of choice if an opportunity arises. The freedom to choose to communicate is termed by MacIntyre (2007) as an act of volition.

One of the research studies which adopted WTC as a variable at a state level is by Liu and Jackson (2008). This study examined Chinese learners' of English unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. To rate students' unwillingness to communicate, the study utilised three instruments, namely the Unwillingness to Communicate Scale by Burgoon (1976), Language Class Sociability scale (LCS) and Language Class Risk Taking designed by Ely (1986). The participants were also asked to complete the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986), designed to measure their foreign language anxiety level. Involving 547 participants who were first year non-English major at Tsinghua University in China, this study found that one third of the participants experienced anxiety in the English class and in tests and showed fear of negative evaluation and speaking apprehension. In terms of unwillingness to communicate, the study reported that over half of the participants were willing to communicate and showed positive attitudes towards speaking. It was also uncovered that students' unwillingness to communicate was significantly positively correlated with their foreign language anxiety. Furthermore, their

unwillingness to communicate and their foreign language anxiety were significantly correlated with their self-rated English proficiency and access to English.

Earlier research investigating the association between FL anxiety and WTC reported similar findings in that foreign language anxiety impeded WTC. For instance, a study investigated English speaking adolescents learning French revealed that students with high anxiety levels tend to underestimate their competence (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement & Donovan, 2002). A significant negative correlation between language anxiety and perceived competence was reported as the cause of students' low willingness to communicate.

A study by Phillips' (1992) study focussed on the relationship between anxiety and students' speaking skills or oral activities and was later replicated by Hewitt and Stephenson (2012). Phillips' study, investigating learners of French at university level, found a negative correlation ($r =-.40$, $p < .01$) between oral exam grades and students' FLCAS scores. In addition, Philips used eight oral performance criteria and found that four of them correlated negatively with the FLCAS scores. These quantitative findings were bolstered by the data gained through interviews in which students confirmed their negative feelings toward the oral exam. The findings of the replication study by Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) were consistent with those of Philips (1992), that is there was an inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and oral exam scores ($r = -.49$, p < .001).

Similarly, a study investigating foreign language anxiety experienced by advanced English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students in Australian universities

prior to their university study revealed negative relationships between foreign

language anxiety and speaking ability (Woodrow, 2006). Participants in this study

reported experiencing foreign language anxiety in speaking, not only within the

classroom but also when they talked to native speakers outside the classrooms. A

qualitative study investigating Indonesian learners of English in a context similar to

that of Woodrow's study revealed similar findings in that participants' foreign

language anxiety prevented them from speaking fluently in English (Hasan, 2007).

Research on foreign language anxiety has continued to flourish with

researchers not only focusing on the effects of anxiety on speaking. Since 2005, the

investigations of foreign language anxiety have started to examine the effect of

foreign language anxiety on students' achievement in language skills other than

speaking. Few have directly focused on listening anxiety and achievement

(Atasheneh & Izadi, 2012; Bekleyen, 2009; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Golchi, 2012).

However, the studies conducted so far have used different measures of foreign

language listening anxiety making it difficult to compare the results of the studes. For

example, a study by Elkhafaifi (2005), which was the first to examine the effect of

foreign language anxiety on students' achievement, used the Foreign Language

Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) which was adapted from the Foreign Language

Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) by Saito, Garza and Horwitz (1999) and designed to

measure listening anxiety experienced by Arabic learners at university level. This

research produced empirical evidence that listening anxiety and foreign language

anxiety were related but separate phenomena. The study found a negative and

significant correlation between FLLAS scores and listening comprehension scores (r = -.70, p < .01) and FLCAS scores and final course grade (r = -.54, p < .01). Other studies by Bekleyen (2009) and Golchi (2012) used the Listening Anxiety Questionnaire developed by Kim (2009). Both studies involved advanced learners - teacher candidates in the first study, and IELTS learners in the later. Both studies yielded significant negative correlations between listening anxiety and students' performance, with r = -.53, p < .01 in Bekleyen's study and r = -.63, p < .5 in Golchi's.

Other studies on listening anxiety did not explore the relationships between listening anxiety and achievement but examined the impact upon listening task and listening anxiety (Melanlioglu, 2013). This experimental study used the scale called The Listening Scale for Secondary School Students developed by Melalanlioglu, (2013) to measure students' listening anxiety. It was reported that listening anxiety could be decreased by using authentic tasks.

As one of the receptive skills, reading seems to be the most resistant to anxiety effect. However, this skill has attracted more attention from language researchers interested in the effect of foreign language anxiety than have listening skills, as indicated by more research on the association of anxiety and reading in a foreign language (Al-Shboul et.al, 2013; Jafarigohar & Behrooznia, 2012; Lien, 2011; Liu & Samimy; 2012, Saito, Garza & Horwitz, 1999; Wu, 2011; Zhao, Dynia & Guo, 2013). These studies examined different aspects of foreign language reading anxiety and have consistently used the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale

(FLRAS) developed by Saito, et al. (1999) to measure students' reading anxiety, despite the criticism by Spark, Ganschow and Javorsky (2000), who claimed that it was not clear whether the scale measured foreign language reading anxiety, foreign language reading skills or both.

Saito et al., (1999) investigated reading anxiety levels experienced by learners of French, Japanese and Russian. The study revealed that foreign language anxiety was distinguishable from general anxiety and students' level of language anxiety differed according to the target language. The most anxious learners in this study were Japanese learners due to the unfamiliar Japanese writing system, followed by French and Russian. In addition, this study uncovered that reading anxiety increased with perceived difficulty of reading in foreign language. Two recent studies demonstrated similar findings, that unfamiliar scripts, unfamiliar topics and worry about comprehension were factors that provoked anxiety for native speakers of English learning to read in Chinese in the United States (Zhao, et al., 2013). Another study, in the Jordanian English as a foreign language learning context, revealed that in addition to unfamiliar topics and unfamiliar contexts, unknown vocabulary also triggered students' reading anxiety (Al-Shboul et.al, 2013).

Another factor which provoked students' reading anxiety was syntactic differences between learners' first language and the target language as reported in the study by Liu and Samimy (2012). The findings indicate that Chinese-English syntactic differences in the passive and relative constructions were significant factors that provoked students' reading anxiety in a Taiwanese university.

With respect to gender differences in reading anxiety, the studies conducted so far have reported conflicting results. Lien (2011), investigating Taiwanese university students learning English as a foreign language, reported that females were more anxious than their male counterparts. Similarly, in a study with Iranian university students reading English text, females were reported as having higher anxiety (Jafarigohar & Behrooznia, 2012). Conversely, another study with Taiwanese university students learning English as a foreign language reported no difference between male and female students (Wu, 2011).

In regard to foreign language writing anxiety, research has shown that this construct is separate from but related to general foreign language anxiety (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). Similar to investigations of other language skills, a scale especially designed to measure this specific type of anxiety was developed. In earlier studies, the majority of research on second or foreign language writing anxiety utilised a scale developed by Daly and Miller (1975) called the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test. Because this scale was originally developed with reference to first language learners, a new scale that specifically measures second or foreign language learners' writing anxiety was designed by Cheng (2004) and called The L2 Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI). This scale consists of three subscales: Somatic Anxiety, Cognitive Anxiety and Avoidance Behaviour. The total scale and individual subscales showed good reliability with sufficient validity.

Research conducted on the relationship between foreign language writing anxiety and students' writing performance still showed perplexing results. This is

probably due to the use of different scales to measure students' writing anxiety level. Research by the author of SLWAI, for example, reported that there was a negative correlation between students' writing anxiety and students' writing performance (Cheng, 2004). Another study by Atay and Kurt (2006) although conducted quite recently, still used the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (Daly and Miller, 1975) to measure students' writing anxiety and reported there was no correlation between students' writing anxiety and students' performance in writing. This study utilised SLWAI only to describe the level of students' writing anxiety, without relating the result of the measurements to students' writing achievement. To obtain a clear description between second and foreign language writing anxiety and students' writing performance, it is necessary to conduct further research using the same scale.

2.4 Sources of Foreign Language Anxiety

Young (1991) identified six possible sources of FL anxiety experienced by the students: (a) personal and interpersonal anxieties; (b) learners' belief about language learning; (c) instructor's beliefs about language teaching; (d) instructor-learner interactions; (e) classroom procedures; and (f) language testing. Existing studies, especially those which address foreign language anxiety from learners' perspectives have revealed that certain types of teacher-learner interactions provoke a considerable amount of anxiety (Hasan, 2007; Ohata, 2005; Worde, 2003; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). Worde (2003) reported, in detail, learners' voices regarding the way the relationship between their anxiety and the way that the teacher taught and treated them in a

foreign language class. This included asking students to speak on the spot or correcting students' errors while they were speaking. Some of the comments that showed how the teacher behaviour that caused considerable anxiety for students in this study were "the teacher is trying to make you feel stupid"; "the teacher just keep going, ignoring whether the students understands or not", and "the teacher spoke too fast". One extremely anxiety-provoking technique used by the teacher was calling on students at random or in seating order. Other disturbing aspects reported by students seem simple, but are worth noting, such as a teacher's facial expression or teaching standing close to and staring at the students. The words used by the students to describe the anxiety-inducing teachers' approaches were, "very intimidating", "apathetic", "condescending"; "a nasty person", and "obnoxious" (Worde, 2003, p.4). The way the teacher corrected students' errors also increased students' anxiety. Ohata (2005), investigating Japanese learners of English in the U.S.A, corroborated the findings reported by Worde above. The learners in this study also mentioned that they experienced feelings of fear of negative evaluations from peers because the teacher asked them to speak on the spot.

2.5 Motivation Theories in Psychology

In this section, I briefly review cognitive motivational theories in psychology. Following this review, theories in L2 motivation are discussed under three phases outlined by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), i.e the social-psychological, the cognitive-situated and the process-oriented and socio-dynamic. Empirical studies conducted

utilizing the theories in each stage are discussed following the description of the theories in each stage.

Dörnyei (2005) outlined key cognitive theories and constructs of motivation in psychology including expectancy value theory, achievement motivation theory, attribution theory, goal theory and self-determination theory. Those theories are considered the most salient in the field of psychology and education and are still influential as shown by recent studies which use the theories to understand motivation.

2.5.1 Expectancy-value theory.

Expectancy-value theorists posit that an individual's motivation can be explained by his/her beliefs about how well he/she will perform on the task and the extent to which the individual values the task (Atkinson, 1957; Eccles et al., 1983; Pintrinch & Schunk, 2002; Wigfield, 1994; Wigfield and Eccles, 1992). In other words, an individual's motivation is influenced by two main constructs, expectancy and value. These two constructs are believed to be the main predictors of students' achievement.

The expectancy construct was defined by Pintrich and Schunck (2002) as individual beliefs and judgments about his or her capabilities to do the task and to succeed at it. It refers to the question, Am I able to do this task? This belief drives an individual to do a task or continue to engage in a task. Conversely, if an individual

judges him/herself as not capable of doing well in an activity, most likely he/she will withdraw from doing the task or not engage in that particular task.

The other construct, the value component, reflects different reasons why an individual persist in the task (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). To make it clearer, they illustrated, using colloquial terms, that value construct refers to students' responses to the question, "Why should I do this task?" For example, students try to do their best in an exam for different reasons, such as they like the subject, want to please the teacher, want to please the parents, get rewards or they think that the subject is really important for them. In the expectancy-value model of motivation, both expectancy and value constructs are viewed as influential in individuals' choice of behaviour, engagement, persistence and actual achievement. This means the degree of positive motivation will be higher as the individual perceives a greater possibility to attain a goal and perceives the greater value of the goal. On the other hand, if one of the two key factors above does not exist, such as when the individual believes that she/he cannot perform a task well, no matter how much effort they put into a task, or if the task is perceived as leading to less valuable outcomes, then the degree of motivation will be lower.

Wigfield and Eccles (2002) argued that expectancy for success is highly related to, although distinguishable from, ability beliefs. Ability beliefs reflect how an individual perceives his/her current competence or present ability to do a particular task whereas expectancy refers to the future. Beliefs about an individual's ability are considered important in motivation and therefore are present in different theories of

motivation including attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985) and self-worth model (Covington, 1992). Both ability beliefs and expectancy are important aspects in expectancy value theory.

With respect to value, different components were identified by Eccles (1983) i.e attainment value or importance, intrinsic value, utility value or usefulness of the task, and cost. Attainment value refers to the importance of performing well in a given task; intrinsic value concerns the genuine interest of an individual which results in enjoyment in doing the task; utility value reflects the future usefulness of a given task; and cost refers to the amount of effort taken to complete a particular task. Furthermore, Eccles (1983) mentioned that some of the values above have also been assessed by researchers from other motivation theories. For example, intrinsic value was termed by Deci and Ryan (1985), Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, and Ryan (1991) as intrinsic motivation and utility value was referred to by Deci and Ryan (1985) as extrinsic motivation.

According to expectancy-value theory, an individual could be motivated by two key factors, namely, the individual expectancy of success in performing a particular task as well as the rewards he/she will get and the value of the task to the individuals. It means the degree of positive motivation will be higher as the individual perceives greater possibility to attain a goal and perceives the greater value of the goal. On the other hand, if one of the two key factors above does not exist, such as when the individual believes that she/he cannot perform a task well, no matter

how much effort they put into a task, or if the task is perceived as leading to less valuable outcomes, then the degree of motivation will be lower.

Utilising an expectancy-value framework, Atkinson and Raynor (1974) developed the achievement motivation theory because achievement behaviour was viewed to be shaped by expectancies of success and incentive values. In addition to these two factors, Atkinson and Raynor added two more components in their model - the need for achievement and fear of failure. High needs of achievement will motivate an individual to put effort into performing a task for its own sake rather than for extrinsic reward. This need is inherent in someone's personality and, therefore, is reflected in every facet of an individual's life. Conversely, fear of failure drives someone to perform well to avoid negative outcomes.

2.5.2 Attribution theory.

Attribution theory of motivation is based on the work of Weiner (1979). According to this theory, a human is a conscious and rational decision maker (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). The central assumption of attribution theory is the search for understanding (Weiner, 1979). For instance, in a school setting, the search for understanding may involve questions like "Why did I succeed or fail?" or "Why did I flunk math?" or "Why did Mary get better marks on this exam than me?" (Weiner, 1979, p. 3). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) summarized it this way: "the main principle of attribution theory is that the causal attributions one makes of the past success and failure" (p.15). In other words, understanding and making inferences about why

particular outcomes, either success or failure, have occurred, termed causal attributions, bring consequences affecting future strivings for achievement.

As causality is central to the attribution theory of motivation, Weiner (1979) listed dimensions of causality based on various empirical research findings. The first dimension is termed internal-external classification of causality, which is whether the cause is within or outside an individual. For instance, from a student's perspective, an internal cause may include ability, effort, mood, maturity or health, whereas the external cause may be related to teacher, task or family. The second dimension of causality is stability. This dimension operates as a stable (invariant) versus unstable (variant) continuum. Some examples of stable or fixed causes are ability, typical effort and family whereas immediate effort, attention, and mood are classified as unstable causes. However, the classification of these variables can vary as the variables themselves may change depending on time or episode. For example, mood might be classified as a temporary state or permanent trait. The third dimension of causality was labelled by Weiner as controllable versus uncontrollable. For example, mood is classified as unintentional while effort is intentional. However, intentional-unintentional duality received criticism as mislabelling. For example, failure caused by lack of effort does not indicate that there is an intention to fail but rather it was associated with the issue of controlling. The last dimension was termed globality. This dimension refers to whether a cause is a global one or towards specific ends. The illustration provided by Weiner (1979) for a global cause is "I failed because I am dumb" (p.7) which describes that the failure was not because of inability to do a

specific task but because of general inability. On the contrary, the expression such as "I failed because I am poor at Math" reflects a specific cause that is inability in Math.

2.5.3 Self-determination theory.

Deci and Ryan (1985) proposed self-determination theory. This theory suggests that motivation could be divided into three broad categories, namely, intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation. In the context of FL learning, for example, this theory provides broader accommodation for one's orientation to learn a language. Intrinsic motivation refers to reasons to learn a foreign language because of internal enjoyment and interest in the language and the feeling of pleasure derived from a sense of capability over activities voluntarily chosen by the learner. There are three types of intrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation related to *knowledge (IM-Knowledge)*, *accomplishment (IM-Accomplishment)* and *stimulation (IM-Stimulation)* (Vallerand, et. al., 1992, 1993). *IM Knowledge* refers to motivation for doing a task because of the interest in exploring new ideas and developing knowledge; *IM-Accomplishment* is the feelings associated with a mastery of a task or goal achievement; *IM-Stimulation* concerns motivation based simply on the excitement of performing the task.

The second type, extrinsic motivation, is the reason to learn a language not because of inherent interest but because of more instrumental reasons such as the requirement of a degree program, developing a chosen career or for business transaction. More specifically, Deci and Ryan (1985) classified extrinsic motivation

into four subtypes, namely *external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation* and *integrated regulation*. *External regulation* refers to motivation of learning coming from the environment, for example, to get a reward, as a course requirement or to avoid losing a job. *Introjected regulation* signals that there are some internalized aspects in the reason for students learning a language. In other words, students perform the activity for the sake of an internally governed system of rewards and punishments. *Identified regulation* is somewhat closer to self-determination. It is almost the same as intrinsic motivation because the learners do the activity which is fully assimilated into them. The only difference is that the activity is not done because of the pleasure of doing it, but because it is viewed as an aspect of self-concept. Integrated regulation occurs when an individual's full involvement in a task is assimilated with other values, needs or identity he/she holds. The last type of motivation in this theory is amotivation. An amotivated person could be viewed as the opposite of a person with intrinsic motivation. The amotivated person tends to think that the activity is not valuable; they are not capable of doing the activity and is pessimistic about the desired outcome. In self-determination theory, the intrinsic and extrinsic orientations and motivation lie on a continuum from amotivation through external, introjected, identified and integrated regulation to intrinsic motivation.

In an attempt to integrate self-determination theory into formulations of orientations for L2 learning, Noels, Pelletier, Clement and Vallerand (2000) developed a new instrument for assessing learners' L2 orientation from a self-

determination perspective. The participants in the study were 159 English speakers learning French as a foreign language. The scale consisted of three sections and was a 7 point scale. The first section contained items taken from Clement and Kruidenier's (1983) instruments which captured four orientations, i.e instrumental, knowledge, travel and friendship, revealed to be crucial for all groups of L2 learners. Following the assessment of validity and reliability of this scale, the types of motivations were related to the four orientations discussed by Clement and Kruidenier (1983). The second section consists of scales designed to measure amotivation, the three types of external motivation and the three types of internal motivation. The third section was designed to measure various psychological variables related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The items of this section were organized under four scales. Using exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis and correlation, the study uncovered that intrinsic and extrinsic subtypes posited by Deci and Ryan (1985) and Valleran and associates (1992, 1993) could be used to validly examine students' L2 motivation. The findings of the study suggested that motivational principles applicable in other settings may be relevant to some motivational constructs in the L2 domain. In other words, the findings provided empirical evidence that self-determination theory could be used as a framework to understand L2 motivation. However, the author of the study reminded future researchers to consider the generalizability of the findings and, therefore, called for replication of the study involving learners from different cultural background learning other foreign languages.

2.6 Motivation to Learn a Second Language (L2) and a Foreign Language

After briefly discussed the theories of motivation in psychology, the following section discusses theories used to understand motivation to learn second/foreign language, which were classified by Dŏrnyei (2005) into three distinct phases, the social-psychological period, the cognitive situated period, and the process oriented period. Each period is discussed briefly followed by research which utilised the pertinent theories.

2.6.1 The social-psychological period (1959-1990).

Dŏrnyei and Ushioda (2011) identify two distinct psychological concepts during this period. The first one is characterised by the work of Gardner and his colleagues (1985) which is very influential in the studies of L2 motivation – the socio-educational model. The second was a psychological concepts used by research studies conducted in the context of contact between ethnolinguistic communities. Although, according to Dŏrnyei this period lasted until 1990, research on L2 acquisition and motivation continued to use the socio-educational model as a framework to understand L2 motivation until very recently, as discussed in the last part of this section.

The core concept of Gardner's theory (1985) includes three key components in L2 motivation, namely, motivational intensity or effort, desire to learn the language and attitudes toward learning the language. In this theory, motivation is viewed as the central mental 'engine' or 'energy-centre' that determines effort,

cognition and affect. The important point in Gardner's theory is the distinction between motivation and orientation. Orientation stimulates motivation and leads it toward a set of goals. Orientation is labelled as integrative and instrumental and these two terms have become the most widely-known concepts of Gardner's work. Integrative motivation is defined as "willingness to be like valued members of the language community" (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271) and having "positive feeling towards the community that speaks the language" (Gardner, 1985, p. 82). Instrumental motivation refers to motivation raised by the desire to gain L2 proficiency for pragmatic use such as getting a job or a higher salary. The dichotomy of integrative-instrumental motivation was widely accepted and used by a large number of studies on motivation and language learning

Since its emergence, the model has undergone a number of changes. It has been deployed in a large body of research with integrative motive the most-researched aspect (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). There are three components of integrative motive, i.e integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation and motivation. Integrativeness refers to "a genuine interest in learning the L2 in order to come closer to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001, p. 5). This interest leads the learners to respect the culture of the target language community, become fully involved and sometimes may lead to withdrawal from his/her own original community. Attitude toward learning situation means "attitude toward any aspect of the situation in which the language is learned" (Gardner, 2001, p. 5). Using the school context as an example of a learning situation, Gardner explains that the attitudes

could be directed towards the teacher, the course and course materials, classmates and even extra-curricular activities associated with the course. The third component, motivation, refers to effort, desire and attitude towards learning. The three variables, integrativeness, attitude toward learning situation and motivation form integrative motivation, which is reflected in an individual as willingness to identify with the target language community and positive perception of the learning situation. Integrative motivation has been claimed as a strong predictor of students' achievement.

This socio-educational model is associated with the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) which consists of four sections: the socio-cultural *milieu*, individual differences, formal/informal learning contexts and outcomes (Gardner, 1985). The association between the socio-educational model and the AMTB is regarded as one of the strengths of the theory, which enables researchers of foreign language motivation across different languages to use a consistent measurement (MacIntyre, MacKinnon & Clement, 2009).

Despite being widely used, this socio-educational model has been criticised for several weaknesses and its applicability to the foreign language-learning context. Crooks and Smith (1991), for example, argued that there was no clear evidence that the superiority of integrative motivation was supported by empirical evidence due to contradictory results reported by studies conducted in different contexts. They also claimed that the theory is not applicable in an educational context as it is "not well grounded in the real world domain of the L2 classroom nor it is connected to other

related educational research" (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991, p. 470). Further criticisms included the failure of the socio-educational model to include cognitive theories of learning motivation (Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Dörnyei (1990) argues that this model was derived from an L2 acquisition context as it originated from a survey involving English-speaking Canadians learning French, the second official language in the country, and the results obtained from this context are not fully applicable to a foreign language learning situation. The inapplicability of the theory in the globalisation era was also supported by Lamb (2004) who states that learners in this era may not associate English with the culture of the native speakers (British or American) which served as the key point in integrativeness: learners, nowadays, view English as a shared language among international speakers. In line with this idea, Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) pointed out that, in the context of global English, learners may have little or no contact with the target language speakers and, therefore, the notion of learning English in order to be a part of a target language community, as mentioned in Gardner's integrativeness of socio-educational model, is no longer relevant. This was proven by recent empirical evidence showing students learning English in a foreign language context exhibited higher instrumental motivation than integrative motivation (Liu & Huang, 2011; Wei, 2007).

However, the founder of the theory argued that the socio-educational model remains current and under development (Gardner, 2010; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). This argument seems true as there were some current studies that utilised the socio-educational model to examine learners' L2 motivation and, indeed, provided

empirical evidence that, in the era of global English, learners still exhibited integrative motivation. For instance, a study of Iranian undergraduates learning English as a foreign language reported that their motivation to learn English was both integrative and instrumental and their attitude toward the target language community was highly positive (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010). A recent study by Gardner (2012), involving learners of English as a global language in Poland, reported similar findings. Arguing that integrative motivation is multi-dimensional, involving affective, cognitive and behavioural components, the study revealed that integrative motivation was a consistent predictor of grade in English. Indonesian learners of English were also reported to be integratively motivated rather than instrumentally (Liando, 2009; Liando, Moni, & Baldauf, 2005).

Some studies used the socio-educational model together with other motivational frameworks to examine how these different frameworks captured students' motivation in learning a FL. A study by MacIntyre and Blackie (2012), for example, used the socio-educational model with its AMTB as one of three motivational frameworks to predict four non-linguistic outcomes of language learning of 117 high school students learning French as a L2. The four non-linguistic outcomes examined in this study were perceived communication competence, language anxiety, willingness to communicate and the intention to continue language study. The two other motivational frameworks used were Action Control Theory (ACT) by Kuhl (1994) which has three dimension of measurement - hesitation, volatility and rumination - and expectancy-value theory (Pintrich, 1990; Pintrich &

Schunk, 2002) associated with a scale called MSLQ with six dimensions - intrinsic goal orientation, extrinsic goal orientation, task value, control of learning beliefs, self-efficacy for learning and performance and test anxiety.

The study uncovered that each perspective on motivational frameworks has its own advantages and has correlations with non-linguistic language learning outcomes. Perceived communicative competence was only predicted by a dimension from ACS whereas two other motivation frameworks revealed no correlation with this non-linguistic outcome. Willingness to communicate was predicted by task-value and hesitation. Hesitation and control of learning beliefs were also significant predictors of language anxiety. The only significant predictor of intention to continue language studies was positive attitude toward learning the language. Another study used the socio-educational model and L2 self-motivational system developed by Dǒrnyei (2005) in an attempt to capture the broader scope of Taiwanese university students' motivation in learning English as a foreign language (Lai, 2013). Despite criticism of the integrative motive of socio-educational model as being not relevant in the global English world, this study uncovered that one of the students' motivations for studying English was because they were interested in the target language countries or communities. Other motivation types revealed in this study are instrumental, internal, external and ideal L2-self. Ideal ought-to self was not counted as motivational by the learners. The author of this study argued that the absence of ideal ought-to self in students' motivation type was due to their status as English major students who were

interested in English, not because of external pressure as posited in ideal ought-to-self.

With respect to learners of languages other than English, the notion of integrative motivation was found to be relevant. Yu and Downing's (2011) study of international students' studying Chinese in China reported that the non-Asian student group exhibited a higher level of integrative motivation and socio-cultural adaptation than Asian student group, who showed a higher level of instrumental motivation. Hernandez (2010) reported that there was a positive effect for Spanish learners to have an interaction with L2 community in Spain through a study abroad program, as confirmed by the positive relationship between students' integrative motivation and their interaction with Spanish culture which, in turn, brought improvement to students' speaking.

In addition to the socio-educational model, the other strands of research categorized by Dŏrnyei and Ushioda (2011) in the social-psychological period were characterized by the concept of *linguistic self-confidence* introduced by Clement (1980). This strand of research focused on learners' motivation to learn L2 in a multicultural setting. The main tenet of the concept in this kind of setting is that the major motivational factor in learning a L2 is the quantity and the quality of contact between the members of the community. These social circumstances defined the construct of linguistic self-confidence.

Dŏrnyei and Ushioda (2011) outlined two other frameworks of motivation in this strand of research. These two frameworks were useful to understand motivation

of a member from an ethnic minority group to acquire the language of the dominant group in a multicultural setting. The first one was called the intergroup model, by Giles and Byrne (1982). This model provided a framework to examine the motivation of minority ethnic groups in a multicultural setting to successfully acquire the language of the dominant community. According to this theory, to acquire a native-like proficiency of the dominant community's language, an individual from an ethnic minority normally showed the following characteristics: i) does not have strong in-group identification; ii) does not experience an ethnic minority complex; iii) has low perceived in-group vitality; iv) perceived in-group boundaries are soft and open; especially in terms of linguistic markers of herself/himself strongly as a member of community: v) has a strong identification with many other social categories.

Another framework is acculturation theory, proposed by Schumann (1986). The core concept of this theory is that the social and psychological distance between the learner and the target language speaker is aggravating to the acquisition of the target language: the learner will not fully acquire the target language and the acquisition of the language is limited to the degree of social and psychological establishment with the target language community.

2.6.2 The cognitive-situated period (during 1990s)

This period is characterised by cognitive theories in educational psychology. It brought new research perspectives to revitalise and refocus L2 motivation. A publication by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) opened the new research agenda. Instead

of relating motivation in L2 learning to the psychological and social dimension, this new direction of research viewed motivation in relation to the classroom setting and to the concerns and needs of teachers, which seemed to have been neglected in the previous period. Although this new perspective focused more on cognitive aspects, it does not mean that all the social and psychological aspects were discarded. Rather, this theory incorporated the existing theory, integrating the cognitive aspect (Dŏrnyei & Ushioda, 2011). This can be seen clearly in the conceptualisation of the theoretical framework of L2 motivation proposed by Dŏrnyei (1994). He identified three distinctive levels of L2 motivation, namely the language level, the learner level and the learning situation level. The language level incorporated some aspects underlying social psychological concepts and theories such as culture and community of L2 users. The learner level includes the characteristics learners' bring into the learning process. The learning situation level refers to various aspects within the classroom setting.

In the review of motivation theories adopted in L2 learning, Dŏrnyei (2010) pointed out that the work by Tremblay and Gardner (1995) is a prominent example of a wider view of motivation. It incorporated three concepts of expectancy value theory and goal theory. Some other theories which are also present in the works of the researchers of L2 motivation in this period are attribution theory, self-determination theory and task motivation.

One recent study that underscored the importance of context in learners' motivation was conducted in a Japanese classroom setting (Kozaki & Ross, 2011).

This two-year, longitudinal study, involving 1,682 Japanese learners of English and utilised a multilevel modelling approach to investigate the variation in L2 learning growth over time. Instead of using conventional constructs of extrinsic and intrinsic L2 motivation, this study postulated aspects of learners' career and social aspirations as individual difference factors and perceived attitudinal norms as a contextual factor. The study uncovered that a normative environment influenced the learner both positively and negatively and peers were revealed to play an important role in influencing learners' engagement and achievement as well as motivation.

2.6.3 Process oriented period (the turn of the century).

During this period, the theories of L2 motivation started to consider the role of time in determining students' motivation, although many language educators were already aware that students' motivation may not be stable during the long process of acquiring a L2. The basic concept of the theory in this period was proposed by William and Burden (1997) and distinguished L2 motivation for engagement and during engagement. The first one is termed initiating motivation and the latter sustaining motivation. Instead of focusing on the role of motivation in arousing interest to engage in certain tasks, William and Burden viewed the balance of generating and sustaining students' motivation. According to Dǒrnyei (2010), one possible reason why research in earlier periods seemed to ignore the fluctuation of motivation during language learning process is the predominance of quantitative research paradigms which measure achievement at one time point. In order to

explore the dynamic nature of students' motivation in learning a foreign language, Ushioda (1996) suggested using qualitative research approaches to examine students' motivation over time.

The comprehensive model for motivation from a temporal perspective was proposed by Dǒrnyei and Otto (1998). This model divides motivation into three phases namely the pre-actional phase, the actional phase and the post-actional phase. The pre-actional phase consists of three sequential sub-processes of goal setting, intention formation and the initiation of intention enactment. The actional phase means the motivation arises when a particular task is in progress. In other words, the emphasis on this phase is the implementation. The motivation during this phase is likely to be influenced by "the quality of learning experience, sense of autonomy, social influences (teachers, peers, parents), classroom rewards and goal structure, self-concept beliefs and external feedback and achievement goal" (Dǒrnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 66). The post-actional phase corresponds to the evaluative phase in which a learner compares the initial expectancies to the actual outcomes at the end of the process. In this phase, the main influence is attributional factors, self-concept beliefs and external feedback and achievement grades.

Yanguas (2010), for example, utilized Dörnyei's process model of motivation to investigate the motivation of Spanish heritage language learners in a university in the United States. Aiming at an inclusive approach - cognitive, situated, process oriented and student-centered - this study utilized the process model by Dörnyei, (2000) and Dörnyei and Otto (1998) that included the use of think-aloud protocols for

semi-guided writing completed by participants to investigate their motivational

process and dynamicity. The results of the study confirmed the process model that

appraisal and action control processes occurred during the actional-phase. The

analyses depicted the motivational paths followed by participants in the task writing

process and assured the dynamic nature of participants' motivation with respect to the

task.

2.6.4 Socio-dynamic perspectives of motivation to learn a L2.

Building upon previous studies, research studies on L2 motivation shifted to a

new phase Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) called the socio-dynamic period which was

more as a critique, particulary by Norton (2000). There were four main reasons as to

why research on L2 motivation needed to evolve to the new phase. Firstly, Dörnyei

(2005) acknowledged that the process model he proposed earlier had drawbacks in

that it cannot present the dynamic and situated complexity of the learning process

reason accurately. In addition, he added that "although it reframed motivation as a

dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person, it was still conceptualised

within a process oriented paradigm, characterised by linear cause-effect relation"

(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 70). Thus, he called for a more radical reformation

which finally led to a complex dynamic system perspective. Another reason came

from Norton (2000). She argued that L2 acquisition theories were not comprehensive

and did not integrate language learners and the setting of language learning. She

underscored that now there is a plethora of L2 research which suggests language

learning should be viewed as a socio-culturally and socio-historically situated process as a substitute for a cognitive psycholinguistic process. In other words, she rejected motivation as a construct. Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) argued that, with the rise of global English, the study of language learners' motivation should make a distinction between L2 learners of English and learners of languages other than English because learning English as an L2 is significantly different from learning other languages in such a context. With the wide spread of English in this global era, the traditional concepts of L2 motivation, such as integrativeness, attitude toward language community and culture are not relevant due to the unclear reference of the target language community, especially geographically. Considering the aforementioned phenomena, a new L2 acquisition theory of L2 motivation began to develop and researchers are now in the phase called socio-dynamic.

This phase is characterised by the L2 motivation self-system theory (Dörnyei 2005, 2010). Drawing on the socio-educational model by Gardner (1985), Dörnyei reconceptualised the integrativeness and incorporated the changes with respects to the status of English as a global language. He then proposed a tri-partite L2 motivational self-system model, with the dimension labelled as the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. This model was derived from research studies conducted by Dörnyei and his associates (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Csizer, 2002) in Hungary.

The ideal L2 self is "the L2 –specific aspect of one's ideal self " (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). This dimension represents an ideal image that an L2 user would like to

achieve in the future. For example, if an L2 learner would like to communicate with international friends, the fantasy of being a fluent L2 user would be a powerful motivator that drives the individual to learn the L2. This future ambition can sustain students' motivation in difficult times (MacIntryre, MacKinnon and Clement, 2009). As reported by Ushioda (2001), even unsuccessful students can keep their motivation in order to fulfil the ambition described as the ideal L2 self. The ought-to L2 self refers to aspects that an individual believes that he/she should possess in order to perform duties, obligations or responsibilities (Dӧrnyei, 2005). This dimension includes various types of integrative and instrumental motives previously proposed in L2 acquisition theory (MacIntryre, MacKinnon & Clement, 2009). For instance, if a person who would like to meet the expectations of his/her teacher or parents in learning the L2, his/her motivation was termed as the L2 ought-to self. The L2 learning experience refers to the immediate language learning environment such as teachers and school which may affect an L2 learner's motivation.

Conducted in the same context as Dӧrnyei's studies, another study also provided support for the L2 motivational self-system model. This study examined the role of the three dimensions of the system, ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience in two populations, high school students and university students, learning English in Hungary (Csizer & Kormos, 2009). Using structural equation modelling, the study revealed that the ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience exhibited a significant correlation with students' motivated learning behaviour in the

populations of both high school and university students. On the other hand, the ought-to L2 self did not show significant correlation with motivated learning behaviour.

In an attempt to test whether Dörnyei's L2 motivation self-system model is applicable to contexts outside Hungary, some researchers have used this model to examine and compare students' L2 motivation when learning English in China, Japan and Iran (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009) and separately in Japan (Ryan, 2009) and in Iran (Papi, 2010). The first study, involving nearly 5,000 participants from the three countries, used correlational analysis and structural equations modelling to find the similarities and differences between the examined countries and Csizer and Dornyei (2005) and Dörnyei and Csizer (2002) in Hungary. It was reported that the L2 motivational self-system is not specific to Hungary as the same pattern was also uncovered in China, Japan, and Iran. The second important finding of this study is that ideal L2 self is equivalent to integrativeness in Gardner's socio-educational model. However, ideal L2 self was found to have more explanatory power. Instrumentality, according to this study, was not a single construct but, rather, associated with promotion versus prevention tendencies. Finally, the study confirmed the validity of the three constructs, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and attitude toward learning English using structural equation modelling analysis.

A nation-wide study by Ryan (2009) empirically tested the findings of a large-scale, longitudinal research applying the L2-self model used by Dörnyei and his colleagues (Csizer & Dörnyei; 2005, Dörnyei & Csizer, 2002) in Hungary and extending the use of the framework to the Japanese English language learning

context. The findings provided empirical evidence to call for reinterpretation of L2 motivation from a self-perspective. The study identified that the ideal L2 self were identical to integrativeness. It means that integrativeness is only a part of a motivation system and examining only integrativeness means investigating only a part of a greater whole. Ideal L2 self was reported to have more direct relationship with motivated behaviour. The findings of the study suggested that the L2 motivational self-system measured students' motivation more precisely.

Yet another study, Papi (2010), tested Dörnyei's theoretical model of the L2 motivational self-system in the Iranian high school context. The study, involving 1,011 Iranian high school students, utilized structural equation modelling to test the constructs of the model. The results confirm the validity of the three dimensions, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience, indicating that the model is acceptable in an Iranian context.

Al-Shehri (2009) utilised the L2 motivational self-system to examine the relationship between visual learning style, imagination, ideal L2 self and motivated behaviours among language learners and to test the hypothesis that learners who prefer a markedly visual learning style are more likely to develop an ideal language self. Participants of the study were university students learning English as an FL in Saudi Arabia. This study reported that there was a strong, significant correlation between the ideal L2 self and confirmed the aforementioned hypothesis.

As the L2 motivational self-system is intended to accommodate changes associated with English as a global language, using this model as a framework to

understand students' motivation offers some advantages. MacIntyre et al. (2009) listed at least three favourable features of this newly developed model. First, it is considered as an education-friendly approach because the model places the focus on the learners' personal attributes which are dynamic, not on the fixed target community attributes, as posited by the previous, socio-educational model. Second, this approach is applicable to a wider cultural context outside Canada, as demonstrated by the research in China, Japan and Iran (Taguchi, et al., 2009; Ryan, 2009; Papi, 2010). In MacIntyre's words, "the L2 motivational self-system escapes the complications of defining a specific linguistic group model by focusing on the hopes, aspirations and fears of L2 learner instead of their integration into an existing L2 community" (MacIntyre et al., 2009, p.52). It means it overcomes the main drawbacks of Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model which relied heavily on the research conducted in a multicultural setting in Canada and might not be applicable to other cultural settings (Dörnyei, 1990). The third benefit is seen in the attempt to complement rather than replace the integrative model, that is, the L2 motivational self-system could easily accommodate the view that learners' motivation is not just a single thing. An individual, an adolescent for example, may be motivated by multiple goals at the same time, such as to please parents and/or teachers and also because of the fear of being called as 'nerd', 'geek' or 'teacher's pet' by friends. The flexibility of the L2 motivational self-system model to understand individual motivation in this kind of situation is clearly an advantage of this model.

Despite the advantages offered by the L2 motivational self-system, it does not mean that the model did not have any shortcomings. MacIntyre et al. 2009, listed some cautions for future researchers when using the L2 motivational self-system. The first one is the issue related to measurements for possible selves. Unlike the socio-educational model by Gardner (1985), which provides a standard measurement called Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to assess students' motivation, the L2 motivational self-system did not refer to any particular measurement. As a result, the studies utilising this model used various and inconsistent measurements. Thus, there is a growing concern that the uses of different measurement from one study to another make it difficult to interpret the results of the studies. The second warning was related to the 'self' as terminology used in this model. As a model intended to overcome the drawback of inconsistent terminology used in the socio-educational model, such as, integrativeness, integrative motivation and integrative orientation, the L2 motivational self-system comes with even more confusing terminology. According to MacIntyre et al. (2009), the use of the self-related concept in the literature is abundant with self-related concepts from various fields which were very difficult to differentiate. The third caution concerns the meaning of the word 'self'. Different cultures may interpret this word differently and this cultural-bound meaning of the self may impact research using the L2 motivational self-system. In addition, the L2 motivational self-system views possible selves as a goal, which according to MacIntyre et al. (2009) may create problems for researchers new to this area. The problem arises when there is a failure to translate goals into appropriate behaviour

because simply setting goals did not have any direct impact on an individual's performance. Researchers were also warned that possible selves change over time. In some situations, possible selves may work better to motivate an individual to perform long term, rather than short term, tasks. The last caution to be considered is the junction between possible self and identity. The researcher using the L2 motivational self-system should account for identity processes because social identity is a part of self-concept and that self-concept is descended from group membership.

2.7 Factors Influencing Students' Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

To better understand students' motivation in learning a foreign language, research studies have focused on factors that motivate and demotivate students to learn a language. These studies reported that one of the key social figures in students' motivation to study a foreign language is the teacher. Teacher behaviour was described by Oxford (2001) not only as a motivational tool, which could enhance students' motivation but also a powerful source of demotivation. It plays an important role, not only in increasing or decreasing students' motivation but also in a 'motivational vacuum', when the motivation was not present (Dörnyei, 2011, p. 107). The strong influence of the teacher as a key social figure in students' motivation was described by Anderman and Anderman (2010) as follows:

> Teachers influence students' motivation in many ways: through daily interaction with students they influence students' beliefs about their own abilities, their attitude toward certain subject areas, their immediate long-term goals, their belief about the causes of their success and failures and their reasons for ultimately choosing to do their academic work (p.2).

In studies focusing on demotivation, involving participants learning different foreign languages in different countries including the US, the UK, Ireland, Hungary Japan, and Vietnam, some factors identified as the sources include institutionalised learning context, such as particular teaching methods and learning tasks, school facilities, teaching materials, and teachers' behaviour (see Chambers, 1999; 1998; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Ushioda, 1996). Among these factors, teachers' behaviour was reported, in some studies, as the most prominent and major cause of students' demotivation. For example, a study reported two types of teachers' behaviour which are potent sources of demotivation - teachers with total power who demonstrate large social distance (autocratic approach) and teachers with minimal involvement in decision making (laissez-faire approach) (Oxford, 2001). In other words, students would be demotivated if the teacher is too strict, over-controlling, showed power and builds a social gap between them and the students. Similarly, the teacher who shows low control over the students' apparent ignorance and does not pay attention was also perceived by the students as demotivating. Other studies reported negative teachers' behaviours, such as criticising students and shouting at them when they don't understand (Chambers, 1993) and other aspects including teachers' personality, commitment, and competence and teaching methods as sources of students' demotivation in foreign language learning. A large scale investigation conducted in Japan (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009) reported similar findings that teachers' behaviour and other aspects of teachers including teaching competence, language proficiency, personality and teaching styles were the most frequent sources of demotivation,

similar to the findings of a study with Vietnamese learners of English (Trang & Baldauf Jr, 2007).

In addition to teacher-related aspects, some studies reported other demotivating factors. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) reported Dornyei's findings from 1998, which identified eight other main demotivating factors including inadequate school facilities, reduced-self-confidence (experience of failure or lack of success), negative attitude towards the L2, compulsory L2 study, interference of another foreign languages being studied, negative attitudes towards the L2 community, attitude of group members and the course book. Similar to Dörnyei's finding, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) also identified demotivating factors other than teacher, which were based on the review of previous research findings. Those factors were (1) characteristics of classes, which covers course content and pace, focus on difficult grammar or vocabulary, monotonous and boring lessons, a focus on university entrance exams and the memorization of the language; (2) experience of failure such as disappointment due to test scores, lack of acceptance by teachers and others and feeling unable to memorize vocabulary and idioms; (3) class environment which includes attitude of classmates, compulsory nature of English study, friends' attitudes, inactive classes, inappropriate level of the lessons and inadequate use of school facilities such as not using audio-visual materials; (4) class materials comprising unsuitable or uninteresting materials; lack of interest covering the sense that English used at schools is not practical and not necessary and little admiration toward English-speaking people.

Some other studies investigated whether there were differences in demotivating factors for lower proficiency and higher proficiency learners (Falout, Elwood & Hood, 2009) and between less motivated students and more motivated students (Ghadirzadeh, Hashtroudi & Shokri, 2012). The former study reported that lower proficiency learners experienced demotivation earlier in their formal schooling and tended to associate the decline in their motivation with internal factor such as disappointment in performance, whereas the higher proficiency learners associated the demotivation with external factors such as the teacher. The latter study revealed differences between the two compared groups only in the intrinsic factors of demotivation, including lack of perceived individuals' competence and lack of intrinsic motivation, whereas for extrinsic factors, such as inappropriate characteristics of teachers, teaching methods and course contents, inadequate university facilities and focus on difficult grammar, there were no differences between the groups.

Although most of the aforementioned studies revealed that teacher-related factors were the major sources of student demotivation, not all studies reported the same findings. For example, a study by Falout, Elwood and Hood (2009), investigating Japanese university students learning EFL, revealed that most students perceived the teacher positively and reported that their teachers were inspiring rather than having their motivation negatively influenced. Another study reported that teachers' motivational strategies had a positive impact on students' motivation (Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008). Among the four frameworks of motivational

strategies proposed by Dörnyei (2001), the first focuses on creating basic

motivational conditions through a good teacher-student rapport, pleasant and

supportive classroom atmosphere and generation of cohesive learners' groups with

appropriate group norms. The remaining conditions include generating initial

motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive

retrospective self-evaluation.

With regard to other factors that motivate students to learn a foreign language,

more recent research studies reported factors related to computers and technology.

These studies demonstrated that the use of technology provided students with at least

two beneficial situations fostering a positive language learning experience, promoting

collaborative learning and providing real interactive and authentic communication.

For instance, a study examined the effect of digital story telling on senior high school

students' motivation (Yang &Wu, 2012). The finding suggested that after 20 weeks

of digital story telling instruction, the participants demonstrated significant

improvement in English learning motivation, especially in task value and self-

efficacy (as measured by the MSLQ). This finding was also supported by qualitative

feedback from interviews with the instructor and students, who cited that digital story

telling encouraged collaborative L2 learning, which could enhance students'

motivation. Another study investigated the use of ubiquitous games to motivate

students in a listening and speaking course (Liu & Chu, 2010). This experimental

study compared students taught using non-game techniques and ubiquitous games

played using the computer. The results indicated that incorporating ubiquitous games

into the English learning process could achieve better learning outcomes and motivation than using non-gaming methods. Another study examined the use of online EFL interaction to increase confidence, motivation, and ability (Wen, Yen & Marek, 2011). The participants of the study reported that well-designed video conferencing for interaction with native speakers provided them with rich, authentic, cultural information, which increased their confidence and improved motivation. In the long term, this improved their ability. The study utilized computer conferencing to motivate students to learn and reported that having a real audience helps students overcome their writing apprehension.

2.8 Studies on the Relationship between Motivation and Foreign Language Anxiety

It has been widely accepted that motivation plays a major role in determining success or failure in learning a second/foreign language (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Dörnyei,1994; Gaith & Diab, 2008). Although there is a large body of research examining the relationship between motivation and second or foreign language learning (Badstubner & Ecke, 2009; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Gaith & Diab, 2008; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Matthews, 2008), there are very few studies focusing on the relationship between motivation and language learning anxiety.

Wei (2007) and Noels, Clement and Pelletier, (1999) suggested a possible negative relationship between anxiety and motivation but empirical studies focusing

on the relationship between these factors are rare. So far, studies that examined the relationship between foreign language anxiety and motivation have used different frameworks of L2 motivation, including achievement goal theory (Dweck & Legget, 1988), socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985) and the L2 motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2010). Despite using different motivational theories, the studies reported similar findings that certain types of motivation correlated negatively with anxiety in learning a language. A study of university level Chinese learners of English by Wei (2007), for example, using the integrative and instrumental duality theory of motivation by Gardner (1985), reported that instrumental motivation was associated with a higher level of anxiety. In other words, students who were instrumentally motivated were more likely to experience higher levels of anxiety compared to those who exhibited integrative motivation. Participants in the study were reported to show significantly higher levels of instrumental motivation than integrative motivation. Another study of Chinese university students learning English reported similar findings that students were moderately instrumentally and integratively motivated and motivation was negatively correlated with students' achievement (Liu & Huang, 2011).

Studies utilising motivation theories other than the socio-educational model reported similar findings that foreign language anxiety showed an inverse relationship to students' motivation. For instance, Koul, Roy, Kaewkuekool and Ploisawaschai, (2009) examined the relationship between motivation of Thai university students and FL anxiety in learning English using goal orientation theory. This study lent support

to the previous research that instrumental motivation is a predictor of high anxiety. In other words, students who were instrumentally motivated tend to be more anxious compared to students with other types of motivation.

A more recent study by Papi (2010) examined Iranian high school students' motivation by using the L2 motivational self-system. The study reported that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self were related to foreign language anxiety in different directions. While the ideal L2 self-correlated positively with anxiety, the opposite was true for the ought-to L2 self.

As the ought-to L2 self is concerned with expectation of others on an individual level, the negative relationship with FL anxiety was in line with the findings of previous studies that fear of others' negative evaluation provoked students' anxiety (Horwitz, 1986). The third component of the L2 motivational self-system, L2 learning experience, showed a negative relationship with foreign language anxiety suggesting that students in a positive and helpful learning atmosphere will feel less anxious.

Despite being relatively few in number, the aforementioned studies were conducted using various motivational theories as frameworks and were conducted in different cultural settings, involving learners at different levels. The results confirm the inverse relationship between foreign language anxiety and motivation, regardless of the theory of motivation used, the cultural setting of the study and the level of the learners.

2.9 Theory of Motivation Used in the Present Study

The review of motivation theories in the earlier sections provided evidence that each theory has drawbacks and, therefore, a researcher needs to be very careful in choosing the framework for understanding motivation for his/her study. Important things to be considered in deciding which theory to use, especially in the language learning context, include the setting of the study and the target language. Motivation to learn a language in multicultural settings is very different from learning a foreign language in a monolingual society where contact with the target language community is scarce. In addition, motivation to learn English as a foreign language is very different from learning other languages. This is due to the status of English as a global language, a *lingua franca*. I concur with Dörnyei's argument that the integrative motive is not applicable in contexts where English is taught as a foreign language in which learners do not have exposure to the target language outside of the classroom. In the Indonesian context, English is taught as a compulsory subject at school. The official language used is Bahasa Indonesia and, in daily lives or in informal situations, people use their local dialect, such as Minang language in West Sumatra, where the study was conducted. In this context, there is no immediate need for the students to use English in their daily lives.

In addition, similar to the situation in other Asian countries, students often do not have any choice about learning a foreign language and, most of the time, they learn a language because of parental decisions (Chen & Sheu, 2005). In other words, parents' belief that learning English is important plays an important role in students'

motivation to learn English. Although the socio-educational model has been used in most research examining motivation to learn a language, considering the two aforementioned conditions in Indonesia, it is doubtful that this model is applicable.

Dörnyei (2005) has developed a new model based on Gardner's socio-educational model. The model is known as the L2 motivational self-system and characterises the new phase in the study of language learning motivation, called the socio-dynamic phase. This model has been used as a frame to understand Indonesian students' motivation by Lamb (2007). However, as pointed out by MacIntyre et al. (2009), this model involves inconsistent measurement methods. Most of the research using the L2 self-model uses qualitative, open-ended, survey questions. As a result, since the present study needs accurate, quantitative measures to examine the changes of students' motivation from Time 1 to Time 2, the L2 self-model is not suitable. In response to the call by Crookes and Schmidt (1991), supported by Dörnyei (1994) and Oxford and Shearin (1994), for a more education-oriented approach with specific reference to Pintrich's Motivational Strategies for Learning, this study used MSLQ by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie (1991) to measure students' motivation and drew on expectancy-value theory as a framework to understand students' motivation.

In the context of education in general, this scale has been addressed by an impressive body of research and it has been translated into at least 16 different languages to measure students' motivation in at least 19 countries (Duncan & McKeachi, 2005). However, not many studies have used the scale in a FL learning

context and, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first time the scale has been translated into Bahasa Indonesia to be used in the Indonesian context. One of the very few studies where it has been used was by Chen and Sheu (2005), investigate the motivations of Mandarin speakers learning English as a foreign language in Taiwan. Another study used expectancy-value theory to examine whether a systematic, web-based inquiry approach could motivate students to learn Spanish as a foreign language and acquire the Hispanic culture (Alstatedter & Jones, 2009). More specifically, the study investigated whether the web-based inquiry project would increase students' ability perception and values with respect to the Spanish and Hispanic culture. The researchers developed their own questionnaire to measure the four constructs in the expectancy-value model of motivation (Eccles, 1983) called the Foreign Language Expectancy-Value Questionnaire. Participants in the study were reported to exhibit higher ability perception and values in the Spanish language and Hispanic culture as a result of participating in the project.

2.10 Studies on EFL Students' Motivation in Indonesia

Studies examining Indonesian students' motivation to learn a FL are relatively rare. The available published studies have used different frames, such as the socio-educational model, the self- determination theory and the motivational L2 self-system, to understand Indonesian EFL students' motivation. These studies capture Indonesian students' motivation from different perspectives including types (Lamb, 2004; Liando, Moni, & Baldauf Jr, 2005), the dynamicity of motivation (Lamb,

2007), students' and teachers' perception of motivational strategies (Astuti, 2013), the relationship between motivation and students' achievement (Hadriana, Ismail and Mahdum, 2013) as well as differences in students' motivation from a geographical point of view, such as the metropolitan, urban and rural areas of Indonesia (Lamb, 2012). Participants in these studies were Indonesian students at senior secondary school and at university level

Studies on the type of Indonesian students' motivation reported perplexing results. Lamb (2004) reported that Indonesian junior high school students in a province in Sumatra exhibited a combination of integrative and instrumental motivation. What mostly motivated Indonesian students was not associated with membership of the target language community but with the future self, such as access to academic and professional opportunities, up to date technology, international networks as well as various forms of entertainment. Lamb's finding was inconsistent with a study conducted by Liando, et.al (2005) in senior secondary schools in Manado, Indonesia. Students participating in this study were reported to be integratively motivated rather than instrumentally. A study with university students reported similar findings (Liando, 2009). Using self-determination theory, another study revealed that Indonesian high school students exhibited intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and self-learning (Hadriana, et al., 2013).

With respect to the dynamics of the motivation, Indonesian learners of English exhibited deterioration after a certain period of learning (Lamb, 2007). At the beginning of the research, students were identified to have high levels of motivation

and positive attitude in learning English. Over a twenty month period, although students exhibited a stable view toward personal and societal relevance of English, there was a significant decrease in students' attitude toward learning English. Students reported classroom learning experienced to be more influential compared to the value or importance of English. Their comments on learning experience, either positive or negative, were dominated by the role of teachers. Positive comments include, "the teachers here don't just stick to the material but also give practice, like speaking, listening and the rest" (Lamb, 2007, p. 766), whereas students who were not happy commented that the activities were not fun, teachers just stick to the curriculum, and teachers' explanations were not comprehensible.

A recent study utilising the L2 motivational self-system (Lamb, 2012) compared motivation of Indonesian students in metropolitan, provincial and rural areas. This study revealed that there were no differences between students' motivation in urban settings which include metropolitan and provincial areas (Lamb, 2012). However, students in rural areas showed a significant difference in that they exhibited less international positioning such as difficulties in imagining a future English-speaking self. In addition, rural families did not show as much influence on students' motivation as was seen in students from urban areas. The only difference between metropolitan and provincial students reported by the study was in the value they hold for instrumental motivation. Provincial students were more instrumentally motivated compared to metropolitan students, due to higher awareness of the importance of English for future career and academics opportunity. Students in the

three settings showed no differences in learning experience at school which was reported as generally positive. This study provided a comprehensive picture of junior high school students' motivation to learn English in Indonesian context as it captured three different settings which potentially caused differences in students' motivation.

A closer examination of students' motivation in the rural context of Indonesia revealed the learners' ideal selves, efforts to learn English and aspects of the social context (Lamb, 2013). With respect to their ideal selves, it was reported that learners' isolated geographical location did not prevent them from having international imaginings, such as 'to travel the world with my family' or to 'travel to South Korea to meet my idols'. In addition, their motivation to learn English was proved to be not for self-fulfilment only but also for benefiting others, such as making their parents proud, helping to find the solution to global warming problems and to defend family and friends against criminals. Learners were reported to study English more than was required by the schools; this was done spontaneously without systematic guidance. The activities included attending a private English course, learning English by using the internet, including chatting with English speakers through Facebook, or using Google Translate and forming a group to study English at home. Regarding social context, the study reported the parents' awareness of their inability to provide support other than financial.

Very few studies in an Indonesian context have related students' motivation and their achievement and the studies that were available reported conflicting results. The first study lends support to the majority of research that found motivation and

students' achievement were correlated positively (Liando, 2009) whereas a second study uncovered a less significant relationship between extrinsic motivation and students' achievement and no significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and self-learning with achievement (Hadriana et al., 2013).

In conclusion, factors that influence students' achievement in learning English as a foreign language do not work in isolation. They are interrelated to each other and need to be examined simultaneously. In addition, context may also play an important role in determining how the factors identified by previous researchers work to affect students' achievement. The study examined these interrelationships and the methodology explaining how the study conducted is explained in the next chapter.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter consists of three sections. The first specifies the mixed-methods approach used and describes the research design employed in this study. The second section describes the participants and setting and the methods used in the quantitative part of the study for the questionnaires, achievement measures, data collection and analysis procedures. The third section outlines the methods used in the qualitative part of the study, describing participants, interview protocols, interview data collection, observation guide and data analysis procedures.

3.2 The Mixed-methods Approach

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) defined mixed-methods as a type of research in which quantitative and qualitative elements are combined for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. Creswell (2009) proposed that the combination of quantitative and qualitative elements in research is a means to counterbalance the weaknesses inherent in each method with the strengths of the other. The mixed-methods approach was employed in this study to capture a significant breadth and depth of data to simultaneously answer quantitatively-derived hypotheses and explore, in detail, the relationships that occurred between the quantitative and qualitative findings (Punch, 1998). It also provides the possibility of data triangulation through multiple inferences, which result in stronger findings and

conclusions (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). In addition, this approach enables

a researcher to examine a problem from different perspectives to increase research

validity (Deacon, Bryman, & Fenton, 1998).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) outlined six major mixed-methods designs:

(1) *the convergent parallel design* is when the researcher conducts quantitative and

qualitative strands concurrently and weights both strands equally; data are analysed

separately and the combination of quantitative and qualitative results occurs only

during the overall interpretation; (2) *the explanatory sequential design* means the

quantitative phase is conducted first to answer the research questions; this phase is

followed by qualitative data collection which is designed based on the results of the

quantitative data analysis with the purpose of explaining those findings; (3) *the*

exploratory sequential design starts with qualitative data collection as the priority of

the research, followed by the quantitative phase for the purpose of testing or

generalizing the findings of the qualitative phase; (4) in *the embedded design*, the

researcher adds a supplementary strand to the main type of the research to enhance

the overall design; for example, a qualitative strand is added within a quantitative

design or vice versa; (5) *the transformative design* employs a transformative

theoretical framework which determines all other decisions such as interaction,

priority, timing and mixing; and (6*) the multiphase design* is when a combination of

sequential and concurrent strands are used over time usually for the purpose of

program evaluation to support the development, adaptation and evaluation of a

specific program.

As the nature of the study was to investigate the impact of teachers' classroom behaviour on students' language anxiety, motivation and achievement in learning English, this study adopted the *explanatory sequential design* which enabled the researcher to explore the quantitative findings obtained through the questionnaires (i.e., FLCAS, MSLQ, TSS, student-reported TSS) in depth, through interviews and classroom observations. The explanatory sequential design occurs when the researcher starts with a quantitative phase, which is typically weighted more, followed by a qualitative phase. The objective of the quantitative phase is to address the research questions; the qualitative phase subsequently elaborates and explains the initial results more comprehensively. This design is the most well-known of mixed-methods designs and is also referred to as the sequential model (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). A strength of the design is its straightforwardness because only one type of data is collected at one time, and the choice of the design of the second phase is based on the results of the initial phase. The drawbacks include the amount of time required, due to the two phases of data collection, and that some decisions on how to design the qualitative phase can only be made after the initial quantitative data have been analysed.

There are two variants of the explanatory design: follow-up explanations variant and participant selection variant (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The first is the most common and is used when the researcher places priority on the quantitative phase then uses the qualitative phase to explain the findings obtained quantitatively. The second places priority on the qualitative part and is often referred to as a

quantitative preliminary design (Morgan, 1988). The present study utilised the follow-up explanations variant as depicted in Figure 2 on page 85. The decisions made for the qualitative phase, such as selection of participants to be interviewed, were based on the results of preceding quantitative data analysis. The final step was the integration of quantitative and qualitative results.

Participants and setting. Participants were from two different schools in Padang, the capital city of West Sumatra, Indonesia. At the time of the study, one of the schools was categorised as an International Standard School (ISS) and the other as a non-International Standard School (non-ISS). The differences between these types of schools included the use of English as a medium of instruction, claimed as the most prominent feature of the ISS, alongside better facilities and smaller class sizes (see Chapter 1 for detailed explanations about differences between schools). Although, later, the Indonesian government removed the ISS as a result of entrenched disadvantages it was considered to bring to the Indonesian education system, the present examination of differences between the two schools remains informative since there are schools in Indonesia, which share characteristics with former ISS schools.

Participants were eight English teachers and 14 classes of their Year 10 and Year 11 students from the two schools. The distribution of the teachers and participants from each school is presented in Table 2. All teachers held a Bachelor Degree from the local Teachers' Training Institute, majoring in teaching English. Only one held a Master degree in teaching and one had completed overseas training

over three months. The age of the teachers ranged from 35 to 59 years and all of them were female. Their experience in teaching English ranged between 7 and 34 years (M = 12.25, SD = 8.66). At Time 1 in July 2012, 373 students were involved; at Time 2 in September 2012, 344 of the same students completed the second questionnaire. Students' ages ranged between 16 and 17 for Year 10 and between 17 and 18 for Year 12. Selected characteristics of student participants at each timepoint of data collection are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Characteristics of Participants at Time 1 and Time 2

School	Grade		Gender	
	Year 10	Year 11	Male	Female
ISS	134	48	53	129
Non-ISS	109	53	55	107
Total	243	101	108	236
Total participants	344		344	

3.3 Research Procedures

As introduced in the previous section, an explanatory mixed-methods design was employed with follow-up explanation variants. The procedures for this research occurred as follows. Before data collection, the teachers and students were informed that participation in this study was completely voluntary and their consent was obtained (see Appendices A and B). All students consent to participate. The investigation started at the beginning of the semester. Students from Year 10 and 11 of both the ISS and non-ISS schools and their English teachers were invited to take part in the study about learning English as a foreign language without mentioning that

students' anxiety, motivation, perceptions of teachers' behaviour, achievement were focal study variables. They were told that the study investigated how the teaching and learning of English were conducted at their school and that the researcher would also be interested to hear their experiences of learning. The students were also informed that at a later stage of the study, they would sit an international standardised test and the score would be provided to them. It was also explained that if selected, some of them would be interviewed.

In the first week of the semester, 370 students completed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986) and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) by Pintrich et al. (1991) during their English class which took them around 40 minutes. Ten weeks later, 344 students completed the FLCAS, MSLQ and student-reported Teacher Style Scale (TSS). At the end of the semester, students were invited to sit paper 1 of the Preliminary English Test (PET) examination. Prior to the test, students were assured that it would not have any effect on their semester result.

Interviews with selected students were conducted at the end of the semester. Before the interview, the questionnaires completed by the students at Time 1 and Time 2 were inspected to identify students whose levels of anxiety and motivation increased or decreased the most over the two timepoints. On this basis, 16 students were selected for 15-minute interviews. These students exhibited greatest differences in anxiety level from T1 to T2 (four high and four low anxious students, labelled as FLCAS group), motivation level (four high and four low motivated students, labelled

as MSLQ group). Two male and two female students represented each category

within each group. The scores of the 16 selected students on the FLCAS and the

MSLQ at Time 1 and Time 2 are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Mean Differences between Time 1 and Time 2 Scores of 16 Selected Students for

Interview

	FLCAS group				
	T1 *M*	T2 *M*	*M* difference	T1 score	T2 score
FLCAS increase	2.30	4.27	1.97	76	141
	2.45	4.80	1.73	81	138
	2.64	4.25	1.58	87	139
	2.24	3.61	1.36	74	119
FLCAS decrease	4.06	2.09	-1.97	134	69
	3.39	1.97	-.142	112	65
	3.09	1.73	-1.36	102	57
	3.45	2.12	-1.33	114	70
	MSLQ group				
MSLQ increase	4.39	5.97	1.58	136	158
	4.32	5.87	1.55	134	182
	3.71	5.13	1.42	115	129
	4.35	5.74	1.39	135	178
MSLQ decrease	4.90	2.06	-2.84	152	64
	5.90	4.03	-1.87	183	125
	6.32	5.10	-1.23	196	158
	5.71	4.52	-1.19	177	140

Classroom observations were conducted between the fourth and the sixth

week of the semester. This was considered the optimal time as students already had

some experience studying with a particular teacher which gave them the opportunity

to become familiar with the teacher's teaching style. Each teacher was observed for

about 30 minutes during normal teaching hours. The observation was video-recorded to be used for reference when clarification was needed at a later stage. In addition, an observation protocol was developed and used during the observations.

3.4 Design of the Study

Figure 2 represents the mixed-methods design for this research. There were three steps involved in this mixed-method design - quantitative and qualitative data collection; data mixing; and interpretation (Cresswell, 2009). Quantitative data collection was conducted at two times, Time 1 (T1) at the beginning of the semester and Time 2 (T2), 10 weeks after that. As suggested in Figure 2, in the first phase, quantitative data were collected from students (at T1 and T2) and teacher participants (at T2). Students sat the reading and writing PET test at the end of the semester (T2). Qualitative data collection was conducted through interviews with 16 selected students and all teachers were observed in 14 classes (between T1 and T2). In the second phase, data were triangulated by combining the statistical results of the quantitative data with the interview and observation findings. In the third phase, the data were analysed and interpreted.

3.5 Data Analyses

The data analyses employed are explained in accordance with the research questions. The first research question asked if there were significant changes in students' foreign language anxiety (FLCAS) and motivation (MSLQ) over time. To

Phase

	Procedures	**Product**
Quantitative data collection	T1: FLCAS & MSLQ T2: FLCAS, MSLQ, TSS	- Numeric data
Quantitative data analysis	- Data screening - Factor Analysis - Scale reliability - Frequencies - Repeated measures MANOVA - Repeated measures ANOVA - One-way ANOVA - Correlation analysis - One sample *t*-tests	- Missing data - Factor loading - Cronbach Alpha - Descriptive statistics - Change of variables overtime - Differences between groups - Relationsips between variables - Teachers' and students' perceptions
Interview Protocol and observation guide development	- Developing interview questions - Developing observation guide	- Interview protocol - Observation guide
Qualitative Data Analysis	- Coding and thematic analysis	- Codes and themes
Intergration of the Quantitative and Qualitative Results	- Interpretation and explanation of the quantitative and qualitative results	- Discussion - Implications - Future research

Figure 2. Design of the study.

examine the changes, repeated-measures MANOVA was used for each of the two sets of factors. Time was the within-subjects factor and school (ISS and non-ISS), grade (Year 10 and Year 11) and gender were between-subjects factors. This provided a general picture of changes, and group differences, in students' foreign language anxiety and motivation across the semester. Univariate repeated-measures ANOVA(s) with Bonferroni correction identified specific factors on which significant change or group differences occurred. In cases where significant interaction effects were detected, two follow-up tests were performed: a repeated-measures ANOVA and one-way ANOVA. The further repeated-measures ANOVA probed whether changes on the scores of each subscale were significant for each between-subjects group of students; the further ANOVA investigated changes in students' scores per group.

The second research question asked about the interrelationships between students' foreign language anxiety (FLCAS), their perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours (student-reported TSS), motivation (MSLQ) and achievement (PET). To examine the relationships between the target variables, Pearson's product-moment correlation was employed to examine relationships between each of the (1) FLCAS and student-reported TSS, (2) MSLQ and student-reported TSS, (3) FLCAS and MSLQ, (4) FLCAS and PET score, (5) MSLQ and PET score, and (6) student-reported TSS and PET score. First, these correlations were conducted for the total sample, and then by school, gender and grade subgroups to discern whether different patterns emerged when the correlations were conducted separately.

To answer research question three, which examined the relationships between the variables at T2 if T1 scores were controlled, partial correlations were employed with T1 coressponding scores as covariates. Similar to the above correlation analyses, partial correlations were also conducted in two stages, first for the total sample then separately by school, grade and gender. Specifically, partial correlations were conducted to find out the relationship between FLCAS and student-reported TSS, MSLQ and student reported-TSS, FLCAS and PET score, and MSLQ and PET score, after taking into account the corresponding T1 score. The purpose of obtaining T1 scores for both the FLCAS and the MSLQ scores was twofold; first to identify students who showed the biggest changes in their T1 and T2 scores, and second for the partial correlations analyses involving T2 scores.

One-sample t-tests were used to answer research question four, which asked how students' and their teacher's perceptions about the teachers' classroom behaviour compared per class (student-reported TSS versus TSS). There were eight teacher participants teaching 14 classes. Students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour and corresponding teachers' responses to the same factors were compared to determine whether there were significant differences per class. Positive mean differences indicated that the teachers rated that factor higher, whereas negative mean differences showed the reverse.

Qualitative data obtained through interviews in Indonesian with the students and classroom observations were used to further explore and explain the findings of the quantitative data. Four students who showed the highest increase and decrease in

their scores were selected to be interviewed. The audio recording of the interview was transcribed immediately after the interview and sent to interviewees for a validity check, providing them with an opportunity to review and amend what they had intended to convey. There were no changes made as a result of this process, as all the interviewees agreed with their transcripts. The transcribed interviews were then translated into English and analysed by identifying words, phrases, sentences and expressions used by the students to describe the factors influencing their foreign language anxiety and motivations. Words, phrases and sentences that were identified as referring to teachers' classroom behaviours were classified according to the four dimensions in the student-reported TSS. Where the students cited factors other than teachers' classroom behaviours, the factors were labelled using operational terms commonly used in foreign language teaching that were closest to the ones used by the students.

Data gathered from classroom observations consisted of videotapes and observation sheets. The main objective of the classroom observations was to get clear pictures of teachers' classroom behaviour and interactions with their students. There were 14 videotapes recorded, one per class. After reviewing the video recordings, the researcher identified teachers' classroom behaviour related to each of the four factors of the TSS. The findings from these video recordings were then compared with the researcher's notes during the actual observations in recorded observation sheets.

3.6 Mixing

Mixing is an important stage in mixed-methods research. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) defined mixing as "the explicit interrelating of the study's quantitative and qualitative strands and has been referred to as combining and integrating - that is the process by which the researcher defined the independent or interactive relationship of a mixed-methods study" (p.66). Mixing occurs at four possible points in a study: at the level of design, during data collection, during data analysis and during the interpretation. For this study, mixing of quantitative and qualitative data occurred during the interpretation stage. The researcher drew conclusions and inferences that depicted what was understood from the combination of the results obtained through the quantitative parts of the study (FLCAS, MSLQ, student-reported TSS, TSS and PET scores) and the qualitative parts (interviews and observations).

3.7 Materials

The questionnaires were used to gather data from both teachers (T2) and students (T1 and T2) to investigate the relationship of teachers' classroom behaviour with students' language anxiety, motivation and achievement. The questionnaire summaries showing example items and Cronbach alphas for the subscales are presented in Table 4.

3.7.1 Students' questionnaires.

The questionnaire completed by the students at Time 1 consisted of two scales, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the Motivated Strategies of Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). At Time 2, in addition to these two scales, students completed the student-reported Teacher Style Scale (TSS). All scales were translated into Bahasa Indonesia and in the FLCAS "English" replaced the word "foreign language". To ensure the quality of translation, each item was back-translated into English by an independent bilingual translator. The previously-translated Indonesian version of the FLCAS (see Hasan, 2007), as used in a previous study investigating foreign language anxiety experienced by Indonesian students studying English in Australia, was again employed in this study. Before completing the questionnaires, participants were requested to provide relevant demographic information including school, gender, age and their teacher's name.

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) was developed by Pintrich, et al. (1991). It is a self-report instrument to assess students' motivational orientation and use of different learning strategies. The original 81-item MSLQ contains 15 sub-scales that can be used together or in part depending on the purpose of the research (Pintrich, et al., 1991; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, Mckeachie, 1993). The current study utilised 31 items from the MSLQ which constituted six subscales assessing students' motivational orientation towards the course. These six factors tapped value components *Intrinsic Goal Orientation* (IGO), *Extrinsic Goal Orientation* (EGO), and *Task Value*; expectancy components *Control of Learning*

Beliefs (CLB) and *Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance* (SELP); and affective component *Test Anxiety* (TA) (see Table 4).

Students rated themselves on a 7-point Likert-type scale from "not at all true of me" to "very true of me". There were no negatively-worded statements. The analysis conducted by Pintrich et al. (1993) revealed that the MSLQ subscales have good reliability. According to Duncan and McKeachie (2005) the MSLQ has been translated into different languages and been used by hundreds of researchers throughout the world including Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Croatia, Cyprus, Egypt, India, Iraq, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Russia, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. However, none of these studies, which were conducted between 2000 and 2004, had used the MSLQ in a foreign language learning context; and, most used the scale in general learning contexts. The suitability of the scale for an L2 learning context was shown by a study involving Taiwanese learners of English and revealed that Cronbach's alpha values were very similar to those reported in other subject courses (Huang, 2008). The alpha values of the six motivation subscales in Huang's study were above .70, except for test anxiety, which was slightly lower ($\alpha = .69$).

Table 4

Summary of Questionnaire Reliability at Time 1 and Time 2

	Factor	Example of item	No of items	Original α (scale author)	α present study	
					T1	T2
MSLQ	**Subscales**					
	IGO	In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity even if it is difficult to learn.	4	.74	.61	.60
	EGO	Getting good grades in this class is the most satisfying things for me.	4	.62	.72	.65
	TV	I like the subject matter of this course.	6	.90	.85	.81
	CLB	It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course.	4	.68	.63	.60
	SELP	I expect to do well in this class.	8	.93	.87	.87
	TA	When I take the test I think of the consequences of failing.	5	.80	.73	.74
FLCAS	**Subscales**					
	FFC	I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	13	-	.89	.90
	CA	I feel confident when I speak English in class.	11	-	.81	.83
	FNE	I am afraid my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	7	-	.78	.79
Student-reported TSS	**subscales**					
	Expectations	To what extent do you feel the teacher expect you to act in a mature way?	6	-	-	.97
	Relatedness	To what extent do you feel that you enjoy interacting with your teacher?	7	-	-	.92
	Negativity	To what extent do you feel worried the teacher react negatively if you don't understand?	6	-	-	.81

	Structure	To what extent do you feel there are clear expectations about your behaviour?	3	-	-	.87
TSS	**Subscales**					
	Expectations	To what extent do students in your class feel that you expect them to act in a mature way?	6	.94	-	.72
	Relatedness	To what extent do students in your class feel that they enjoy interacting with you?	7	.91	-	.81
	Negativity	To what extent do students in your class feel worried that you may react negatively if they don't understand?	6	.80	-	.60
	Structure	To what extent do students in your class feel there are clear expectations about their behaviour?	3	.81	-	.63

Note. IGO = Intrinsic Goal Orientation, EGO = Extrinsic Goal Orientation, CLB = Control of Learning Beliefs, TV = Task Value, SELP = Self Efficacy for Learning and Performance, TA = Test Anxiety, FFC = Fear of Failing the Class, CA = Communication Apprehension, FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation.

throughout the world including Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, Croatia, Cyprus, Egypt, India, Iraq, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Russia, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States. However, none of these studies, which were conducted between 2000 and 2004, had used the MSLQ in a foreign language learning context; and, most used the scale in general learning contexts. The suitability of the scale for an L2 learning context was shown by a study involving Taiwanese learners of English and revealed that Cronbach's alpha values were very similar to those reported in other subject courses (Huang, 2008). The alpha values of the six motivation subscales in Huang's study were above .70, except for test anxiety, which was slightly lower (α = .69).

Pintrich et al. (1991) provided a clear description for each subscale: *intrinsic goal orientation* (IGO) is designed to assess whether the students' participation in the task is an end in itself, and students are internally motivated because of the challenge, curiosity and mastery of the course material. *Extrinsic goal orientation* (EGO) examines the degree to which the students perceive themselves to be participating in the task not because of the task itself but because of other external things such as rewards, grades, performance and competition. The *task value* (TV) subscale was designed to measure whether students perceived the task as interesting, important and useful which leads them to be more involved in the process of learning. *Control of learning beliefs* (CLB) captures the degree to which students believe that their effort to learn will bring positive results. *Self-efficacy for learning and performance* (SELP) assesses students' judgements about their ability to accomplish

the task and whether they are confident to perform it. Finally, the *test anxiety* (TA) subscale assesses how students' feelings of anxiety affect their performance.

Considering the validity of the six motivational subscales (Pintrich et al., 1993) and the wide usage in published research articles (Duncan & McKeachie, 2005), it was decided to use the subscales as originally published by Pintrich et al. (1991). The subscale reliabilities of the original study and those for the present study measured at T1 and T2 are presented in Table 4. All items and the Indonesian version of the scale can be found in Appendix C.

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was designed by Horwitz, et al. (1986) to assess students' foreign language (FL) anxiety in a classroom learning context. It contains 33 items all answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) strongly agree and (5) strongly agree. Due to negatively-worded items, items 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28 and 32 were reverse-coded.

The authors of the FLCAS did not state the underlying constructs of the scale and despite its wide use as a measurement of foreign language anxiety, research studies have reported different findings in regard to its constituent factors. In a systematic review of the relationship between FL anxiety and students' achievement, Al-Shboul, et al. (2013) provided a table which shows different constructs of the FLCAS from those reported in earlier studies (see Table 5).

Table 5

Constructs of Foreign Language Anxiety across Studies (Al-Shboul et al., 2013)

Authors	Name of Foreign Language Anxiety Constructs		
Park & Lee (2005)	Communication apprehension	Examination anxiety	Criticism anxiety
Lee (2011)	Communication apprehension	Test anxiety	Fear of negative evaluation
Zulkifli (2007)	Fear of communication	Test anxiety	Fear of negative evaluation
Toth (2008)	Communication apprehension	Fear of inadequate performance in English class	Attitude to English class

Table 5 above summarised labelled constructs comprising the FLCAS based on Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation. Unfortunately, the studies did not state the Cronbach alpha for each subscale. Absent from the table above are two studies by Casado and Dereshiwsky (2001) and Na (2007), who used the FLCAS to measure students' language anxiety in university and high school settings respectively. The former investigated Spanish learners and grouped the 33 items of the FLCAS into three subscales labelled as *communication apprehension* (12 items), *fear of negative evaluation* (8 items) and *general feeling of anxiety* (13 items). The latter study, measuring foreign language anxiety experienced by Chinese learners of English, formed four subscales: *communicative anxiety* (8 items), *fear of negative evaluation* (9 items), *test anxiety* (5 items) and *anxiety for English classes* (11 items). Although both studies clearly mentioned the items in each subscale, the construct validity of the subscales remained unclear due to the absence of an explanation concerning the constructs based on factor analyses.

Other studies found that the FLCAS consisted of four constructs. For example, a study by Aida (1994), involving students of Japanese, using PCA and varimax rotation, found that the items loaded on four factors she labelled: *speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation*, *fear of failing the class*, *comfortableness with Japanese native speakers* and *negative attitude towards Japanese class*, which accounted for 37.9%, 6.3%, 5.6%, and 4.7% of the variance respectively. In this PCA with varimax rotation six items (2, 6, 15, 19, 28 and 30) did not load on any factor. Thus, none of the items initially proposed for test anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986) loaded on any of the four factors.

A study by Perez-Paredes and Mrinez-Sanches (2000) repeated Aida's PCA with varimax rotation but resulted in different factors to those identified by Aida. This study used a Spanish version of the FLCAS and these authors identified three factors which accounted for 43.5% of the total variance but did not explicitly state the percentage of variance accounted for by each factor. Factor one was *communication apprehension* (20 items), factor two was *anxiety about foreign language learning processes and situations* (3 items) and factor three was *comfortableness in using English inside and outside the classroom* (3 items). This study found six items (2, 10, 11, 15, 22, 28) did not load on any factor, which were items distributed across the dimensions of the FLCAS.

So far, there has been no published study using an Indonesian version of the FLCAS. Considering the absence of construct examination of an Indonesian version and the discrepancies in reporting of previous research regarding the constructs of the

FLCAS, it was decided to conduct maximum likelihood (ML) exploratory factor

analysis (EFA) with direct oblimin rotation to identify the underlying structure of the

33 items of the FLCAS. Assessment of the suitability of the data for factor analysis

was first performed. Inspection of the correlation matrix showed the existence of

many coefficients of .30 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .94 and

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. Following the assessment,

the ML–EFA produced six factors with eigenvalues greater than one, explaining

34.2%, 6.2%, 5.0%, 3.8%, 3.4% and 3.2% of the variance respectively. However, the

last three factors contained no items which had their highest loading on those factors

and the scree plot suggested three steps. The results of Parallel Analysis using Monte

Carlo table showed only three factors with eigenvalues greater than the corresponding

criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size (33 variables x

344 respondents). Therefore, a subsequent analysis specified the number of factors to

extract as three. This analysis revealed that two items (6 and 13) did not load

above .30 on any factor (i.e., did not load significantly, $p < .05$) which were thus

excluded from further analysis.

The loading of variables on factors, communalities and percentage of variance

explained are shown in Table 6. The solution accounted for 45.52% of the total

variance. Thirteen items (items 3 4, 7, 9, 10, 12, 15, 16, 20, 23, 25, 29, 33) loaded on

the first factor, accounting for 34.22% of the variance. Examples of the items

included in this factor were item 10 "I worry about the consequences of failing my

English class" and item 4 "It frightens me when I don't know what the teacher is

saying in English". Although Horwitz et al. (1986) referred to the first factor as communication apprehension, factor one was assigned the label *fear of failing the class* (FFC) because the items included in this factor described a student's worry about not understanding the teacher and the risk of failing the class (see Table 6). Aida's study (1994) conducted with Japanese learners also labelled one of the constructs *fear of failing the class*, which included two of these items (items 10, "I worry about the consequences of failing my English class" and 25, "English class moved so quickly I worry about being left behind"). No item negatively loaded on this factor.

The second factor included 11 items (item 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 18, 22, 24, 28, 32) and accounted for 6.27% of the variance. It was labelled as c*ommunication apprehension* (CA) and tapped a student's fear of communicating in English in the classroom. However, the wordings of the items for this factor meant that a high score reflected a low level of *communication apprehension*. For example item 18, "I feel confident when I speak English in class" and item 14, "I would not be nervous speaking English with a native speaker" reflect the lack of concern when communicating in English.

Seven items (1, 19, 21, 26, 27, 30, 31) constituted the third factor, accounting for 5.03% of the variance. Examples of the items included item 19, "I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make", and item 31, "I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English". This factor was

Table 6

Factor Loadings, Communalities (h^2), Percent of Variance for Three

Factor Maximum Likelihood Analysis with Oblimin Rotation on FLCAS

Items

Label	Fear of failing the class α = .89	Comm. Apprehension α = .81	Fear of neg. evaluation α = .78	h^2
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	
10	.70			.50
29	.69			.46
9	.68			.52
15	.67			.35
4	.61			.41
33	.58			.43
20	.53			.45
12	.52			.38
7	.49			.44
3	.48			.44
16	.47			.48
25	.43		-.35	.43
23	.40			.44
18		.72		.55
14		.65		.42
28		.54		.44
32		.51		.24
2		.49		.23
24		.41	-.39	.51
17		.41	-.31	.27
8		.41		.34
5		.35		.14
22		.35		.26
11		.31		.18
19			-.53	.31
21			-.52	.40
31			-.50	.40
30			-.48	.36
26	.35		-.40	.56
27		.37	-.39	.67
1		.30	-.34	.38
% of variance		34.22	6.27	5.03

% of total variance accounted for by the solution: 45.52

Note. Loadings ≥ ± .30 represent

assigned the same label as one of Horwitz's constructs, *fear of negative evaluation.*

(FNE). It describes the students' fear of being embarrassed because of negative

evaluation either by their classmates or teachers. Table 7 presents all FLCAS items

with frequency distributions, means and standard deviations of students selecting

each alternative. All items and the Indonesian translation can be seen in Appendix D.

Table 7

FLCAS Items with Percentage, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD) of Students Selecting

each Alternative in Three Factors

Item No.	Factor 1 (*Fear of Failing the Class*)	SA	A	N	D	SD	M(SD)
4	It frightens me when I don't know what the teacher is saying in English.	5.5	19.2	25.9	38.1	11.0	3.3 (1.1)
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	3.5	14.2	37.5	30.8	13.7	3.4 (1.0)
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my English Class.	4.1	15.4	22.1	41.6	16.6	3.5 (1.1)
12	In English class, I can get so nervous, I forget everything I know.	5.8	28.2	34.0	24.7	7.0	3.0 (1.0)
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	2.0	16.3	26.2	49.1	6.1	3.4 (0.9)
16	Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	3.8	28.8	34.9	28.2	4.1	3.0 (0.9)
25	English class moved so quickly I worry about left behind.	3.8	32.3	32.3	24.4	7.0	3.0 (1.0)
29	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	3.5	16.9	38.1	35.2	6.1	3.2 (0.9)
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in my English class.	3.2	16.3	26.5	37.2	16.6	3.5 (1.1)
3	I tremble when I know I am going to be called in English class.	6.1	22.4	35.8	27.3	8.1	3.1 (1.0)
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called in my English class.	4.4	20.9	39.2	27.9	7.3	3.1 (0.9)
23	I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	1.5	11.9	39.5	33.1	13.4	3.5 (0.9)

	Factor 2 (*Communication Apprehension*)						
18	I feel confident when I speak English in class.	6.1	29.7	44.8	16.6	2.6	2.8 (0.8)
14	I would not be nervous speaking English with a native speaker.	6.4	18.9	46.2	24.7	3.5	3.0 (0.9)
28	When I am on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	7.8	29.4	51.7	9.9	0.9	2.7 (0.9)
32	I would probably feel comfortable around native speaker of English.	8.1	25.0	53.8	10.5	2.3	0.7 (0.8)
33	I don't worry about making mistakes in English	14.0	27.6	36.9	16.9	4.4	3.3 (0.9)
24	I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other.	6.4	38.1	33.1	16.9	5.2	0.7 (0.9)
17	I often feel like not going to my English class.	29.4	38.7	22.7	8.4	0.6	0.1 (0.9)
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my English class	1.7	16.9	52.6	23.8	4.7	3.1 (0.8)
5	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English class.	14.8	34.9	42.7	7.0	0.3	2.4 (0.8)
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for the English class.	10.2	51.5	30.5	9.0	2.9	2.5 (0.8)
10	I don't understand why some people get too upset over English class.	7.8	25.9	48.8	14.8	2.3	2.8 (0.8)
	Factor 3 (*Fear of Negative Evaluation*)	**SA**	**A**	**N**	**D**	**SD**	**M/SD**
19	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	9.6	44.8	33.4	10.5	1.5	2.5 (0.8)
21	The more I study for the English class the more confused I get.	5.8	51.5	30.5	9.0	2.9	2.5 (0.8)
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	6.7	34.0	33.7	18.3	7.0	2.8 (1.0)
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	6.1	35.8	43.3	11.6	2.9	2.7 (0.8)
26	I feel more tense and nervous in my English in my English class than in other classes.	9.3	33.4	35.2	16.0	5.8	0.8 (1.0)
27	I get nervous and confuse when I am speaking in my English class.	5.5	24.7	35.2	24.4	4.9	2.9 (0.9)
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.	10.8	29.9	31.1	20.9	6.4	2.8 (1.1)

Note. SA: Strongly Agree, A: Agree, N: Neutral, D: Disagree, SD, Strongly Disagree, M: Mean, SD: Standard Deviation.

The student-reported Teacher Style Scale (TSS) was developed by Watt and

Richardson (2007, see Watt & Spearman, 2013) to measure students' perceptions of

teachers' classroom behaviour. It parallels the Teacher Style Scale (TSS) (Watt &

Richardson, 2007; see Spearman & Watt, 2013). The authors of the TSS (Watt &

Richardson, 2007) designed four factors: *expectations*, *relatedness*, *negativity* and *structure*. Spearman and Watt (2013) used the four-factor scale to investigate Australian students' perceptions of their teacher's classroom behaviour but did not report factor analysis or confirmatory factor analysis for the student data. Considering the use of the previously theorised scale with participants from a different cultural background, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed in the present study to assess the proposed four factors for the Indonesian translation of the scale with Indonesian senior secondary school students.

To assess construct validity for the student-reported TSS a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS 21 on 23 items to test the original four-factor identified for the TSS among teachers (Watt & Richardson, 2007). Data from three students were excluded due to extensive missing data resulting in $N = 341$. Multiple fit indexes were used to assess model fit, including the chi-squared goodness of fit index, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Latent correlations were freely estimated but no error covariances were specified.

For this analysis, item 7 "In this class, to what extent do you feel the teacher deliberately embarrasses students who misbehave?" translated into Indonesian as "Dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris, sejauh mana Anda merasakan bahwa guru dengan sengaja mempermalukan siswa yang bertingkah laku buruk?", had to be dropped due to negative loading on its factor. This item, intended to measure a teacher's negative

behaviour, appeared to not make sense in the Indonesian context. It contains the phrase "deliberately embarrasses", which ("dengan sengaja mempermalukan"). Since Indonesian students hold a strong belief that a teacher may not "deliberately" embarrass students, not surprisingly, the item was rated extremely low by most of the participants and showed little variance. The 22 items were, thus, respecified to load on their four factors: 6 items (item 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29) on *positive expectation*, 7 items (3, 5, 6, 8, 14, 19, 22) on *relatedness*, 6 items (item 2, 11, 15, 18, 20, 23) on *negativity* and 3 items (4, 9, 16) on *structure*. The chi-square analysis yielded chi-squared ($N = 341$, $df = 203$) $= 488.88$. A value of .95 was obtained for the TLI index, and CFI index of .96 which indicated a good model fit. An RMSEA value of .06 and SRMR of .07 were obtained; these values are indicative of good fit in terms of discrepancy between the hypothesised model fit and the population covariance matrix. The latent correlations between the positive subscales (*positive expectation*, *relatedness* and *structure*) were found to be very high ($\phi = .91$ to .94). These correlations appear too high for distinct factors, seemingly indicating that students may be less likely to distinguish among positive teachers practices than their teachers. On the other hand, correlations between *negativity* and the three other subscales, *positive expectation*, *relatedness* and *structure* were smaller ($\phi = -.34$, $-.29$, $-.42$) respectively. Appendix E depicts the final four-factor model of the CFA. All items used in the Indonesian version of the student-reported TSS are presented in Appendix F. Table 8 summarises the confirmatory factor analysis item loadings (LX) for the student-reported TSS scale and measurement errors (TD) (standardised coefficients).

Table 8

Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Student-reported TSS

Factors	α	Items	LX	TD
Expectations	.97	24	.81	.81
		25	.94	.94
		26	.93	.90
		27	.95	.95
		28	.92	.85
		29	.96	.92
Relatedness	.92	3	.89	.79
		5	.86	.78
		6	.54	.29
		8	.79	.62
		14	.71	.50
		19	.88	.78
Negativity	.81	2	.53	.28
		11	.65	.42
		15	.67	.45
		18	.74	.55
		20	.69	.48
		23	.63	.40
Structure	.87	4	.76	.58
		9	.87	.75
		16	.88	.75

3.7.2 Achievement measure.

The Preliminary English Test (PET) was developed by the Cambridge ESOL Examination to measure students' ability to use English to communicate with native speakers for everyday purposes. It uses real-life vignettes that are especially designed to help students understand factual information and show awareness of opinions, attitudes and mood in both spoken and written English. It is recognised worldwide by universities and employers as a measure of English achievement. It is an intermediate level exam, at Level B1 of the Council of Europe's Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The test includes three papers: paper 1 assesses reading and

writing skills, paper 2 tests listening skills and paper 3 assesses speaking skills in the format of an interview. The time allocated for this combination of three papers was 90 minutes (paper 1), 35 minutes (paper 2) and 10 minutes interview for each student (paper 3). Due to limited available time and the number of students participating in this research ($N = 344$), the interview and listening test were not administered. Only paper 1 (reading and writing test) could be administered.

Reading section. The reading test was divided into five parts and consisted of 30 questions altogether. In the first part, students were required to read and understand different kinds of short texts such as notices and signs, packaging information (for example, instructions on a food package or a label on a medicine bottle) and communicative messages (notes, e-mails, cards and postcards). The questions were in the form of multiple choices with three response options, A, B or C. In part 2, students were required to read five descriptions of people. They were then asked to read eight short texts on a particular topic such as goods and services of some kind (for example, purchasing books, visiting museums, staying in hotels or choosing holidays). Students had to match each person to one of the short texts. In part 3, students were required to read a longer, factual text and look for precise information. The texts included brochure extracts, advertisements in magazines and website information. Before the students read the text, there were 10 single-sentence statements for each of which students were asked to decide if it was correct or not. In part 4, students were given texts which expressed opinions or attitudes. There were then five questions for them to answer with four possible options (A, B, C or D). In

part 5 of the reading paper, students were given a short text with 10 numbered spaces and asked to find the missing word for each space. The spaces were designed to mainly test vocabulary and also grammatical points such as pronouns, modal verbs, connectives and prepositions. After the text, four possible answers were provided for each numbered space to choose their right answer. Each part of this reading section consisted of 5 questions, except for part 3 which contained 10 questions.

Writing Section. The writing section consisted of three parts assessed by seven questions. There were five questions to answer in Part 1 where students were provided with one complete sentence and another sentence with a missing word or words. Students were required to complete the second sentence with one to three words to arrive at the same meaning as the first sentence. All five sentences shared a common theme or topic. In part 2, students wrote a short, communicative message between 35 and 45 words. The prompt specified who they were writing to, and why they were writing. There were also three bullet-points advising them of the content they must include in their answer. In part 3, students could choose to write either an informal letter or a story. They needed to write about 100 words.

3.7.3 Teachers' questionnaires.

The teacher completed Teacher Style Scale (TSS) by Watt and Richardson (2007) (see Spearman & Watt, 2013) that was used in its original English with the assumption that, as English teachers, the participants would not have difficulties in understanding the English version. Before completing the questionnaires, teacher

participants were requested to provide relevant demographic information including name, degree, school, gender, age, years of teaching experience, university education and teacher training and their names to permit the link for follow-up qualitative observation data collection for selected participants.

The TSS was developed to assess the teacher's perception of his/her classroom environment. In line with the results of the CFA for student-reported TSS, the teacher-reported TSS used the originally theorised parallel 22 items in 4 corresponding factors (see Appendix G). This scale demonstrated high reliability with Cronbach α range between 0.71 and 0.87 (see Spearman & Watt, 2013). The scale took about 20 minutes for teachers to complete.

3.8 Students' Interview and Classroom Observation

Qualitative data were obtained through interviews with selected students and from classroom observations of all eight teachers in their 14 classes. The aims of the qualitative data collection were to explore students' experiences in learning English and provide thick and rich descriptions about how students' feelings of anxiety and their motivation in learning English were affected by their perception of teacher's classroom behaviour. One-on-one interviews with the students were conducted during school hours at the school library. The time was chosen on the basis of convenience for each participant. The length of the interview varied depending on students' willingness to share their feelings of anxiety and motivation in learning English. Each interview lasted between 15 and 25 minutes, the interviews were audio-recorded and

field notes were taken. The interviews were semi-structured, starting with a list of probe questions (see Appendix H) that then proceeded to unforeseen questions in response to the interviewee's replies.

Different questions were asked of students from different groups: highly anxious, low anxious, highly motivated and low motivated. Interview questions were chosen to capture the changes in foreign language anxiety and motivation from students' points of view and provide a more cohesive picture of students' learning experience than the quantitative data alone could provide.

The classroom observations were designed to provide insights into classroom teaching and learning processes and to further explore sources of students' anxiety. All teachers gave consent to be video-taped and for the researcher to undertake observations during the whole course of the lesson. The lessons were randomly observed in order to ensure the genuine interactions between teacher and students in the classrooms. The whole 90-minute session during one observation was documented. The researcher sat at the back of the classroom with the handycam to capture the maximum interactions between teacher and students. If the teacher moved or circulated around the class, the handycam was directed toward where the teacher-students interaction took place. However, the process of recording this lesson was made as unobvious as possible in order not to disturb the teaching and learning process. This was possible because the handycam was quite small but can capture all the sound made within the classroom. In addition, notes taken from classroom observation sheets were used to take notes during the observations (see Appendix I).

Chapter 4

Results: Quantitative Phase

4.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the quantitative findings obtained: the results of qualitative data analyses are presented in Chapter 5. The chapter begins with an explanation of the treatment of missing data, followed by descriptive statistics for all measurements used in the research, including the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) measured at Time 1 and Time 2, Teacher Style Scale (TSS), student-reported TSS, and Preliminary English Test (PET) scores. As discussed in Chapter 3, the construct validity of the FLCAS was assessed using ML-EFA and resulted in three factors labelled as *fear of failing the class*, *communication apprehension*, and *fear of negative evaluation*. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the construct validity of the previously theorised and developed student-reported TSS. A four-factor model, labelled as *expectations*, *relatedness*, *negativity* and *structure*, was validated as suggested by the authors of the scale (Watt & Richardson, 2007; see Spearman & Watt, 2013). With respect to the widely-used MSLQ, all constructs were used as posited by the authors of these scales. Statistical procedures adopted to analyse the data are explained, followed by the findings organised under the broad headings of the four research questions.

4.2 Missing Data

Students wrote their names on the questionnaires to enable matching data across the two timepoints; these were, subsequently, replaced by codes. Appropriate handling of missing data was required before the statistical analyses. In regard to background questions, there were no missing data on the three background variables of gender, class or school. Various ways to handle missing data include listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, replacement with mean or median and replacement with imputed values (Pallant, 2010). The first step was to check if the data appeared missing in a random pattern. Considering students completed the questionnaire during school hours, the item missing rate was very low (0.01 %) and no systematic pattern was detected per person or per item. The percentage of missing data per person was also very low (0.01 %). In this study, missing item values were imputed by using the item mean based on the responses of other participants on the same item.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics of the Scales and Students' Achievement Score

The descriptive statistics of all measures used in this study, including the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis are presented in Table 9. Descriptive statistics of the six MSLQ subscales showed that students were quite highly motivated as described by the means of most motivation dimensions, which were rated above 5 on the 7-point scales. Overall, students were also revealed to be more extrinsically motivated as indicated by the highest group mean for *extrinsic goal orientation* (T1: $M = 6.00$; $SD = .89$; T2: $M = 6.14$, $SD = 78$); in contrast, mean scores

on *intrinsic goal orientation* were lower (T1: *M* = 4.38, *SD* = .76; T2: *M* = 5.34, *SD* = 0.85). Thus, participants in this sample were more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated to learn English. *Test anxiety* scores appeared to be the lowest among the six dimensions of the MSLQ, and decreased across the two timepoints (T1: *M* = 3.98, *SD* = .95; T2: *M* = 3.14, *SD* = .66). The descriptive statistics of the FLCAS revealed that students felt more worried and anxious about failing the class as indicated by the highest mean for the *fear of failing the class* factor. Generally, students experienced moderate anxiety levels across timepoints (see Table 9).

The TSS was completed by all eight teachers. Descriptive statistics of the TSS revealed that teachers rated themselves lower in *negativity* (*M* = 2.73, *SD* = .94) compared to what their students perceived. Teachers rated themselves quite high in the positive dimensions of TSS, *expectations*, *relatedness*, and *structure* as indicated by their mean scores. In terms of normality of the scales, most of the TSS variables were normally distributed as there were no variables for which the standardised absolute values of skewness and kurtosis were greater than 3.

Students' achievement was measured by the Preliminary English Test (PET). The descriptive statistics of the scores were *M* = 49.19, *SD* = 16.82 out of 100 possible points as an average of the reading and writing test. The maximum score achieved by the participants of the present study was 94 and the minimum score was 11. The score was normally distributed as indicated by the absolute values of skewness/standard error = 0.14 and kurtosis/standard error = -1.58.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics and Tests of Normality for MSLQ, FLCAS, Student-reported TSS, TSS by Timepoints

Scales	Subscales	Time 1					Time 2				
		N	*M*	*SD*	Skewness/SE	Kurtosis/SE	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Skewness/SE	Kurtosis/SE
MSLQ	IGO	344	4.38	.76	-1.95	-1.24	344	5.34	0.85	-2.80	1.86
	EGO	344	6.00	.89	-6.85	1.28	344	6.14	.78	-10.78	13.73
	TV	344	5.70	.99	-6.92	2.96	344	6.79	.97	-6.45	3.82
	CLB	344	5.61	.85	-2.76	-.70	344	5.69	.85	-4.66	3.91
	SELP	344	5.17	.95	-3.31	0.44	344	5.19	.87	-3.53	1.22
	TA	344	3.98	1.15	-0.01	-1.23	344	3.15	.66	0.58	1.60
FLCAS	FFC	343	3.25	.66	-0.87	-0.13	342	3.01	.63	-0.58	-0.62
	CA	343	2.66	.52	-1.54	3.81	342	2.69	.53	-0.76	0.86
	FNE	343	2.77	.67	0.37	0.58	342	2.72	.68	3.56	0.47
Student-reported TSS	Expectations						341	4.05	1.56	-2.39	-5.38
	Relatedness						341	4.73	1.72	-1.45	-4.85
	Negativity						341	4.79	1.20	-3.73	-2.21
	Structure						341	5.81	1.07	-1.21	-4.49
TSS	Expectations						8	5.23	1.00	-1.86	1.33
	Relatedness						8	4.96	1.27	-2.90	3.90
	Negativity						8	2.73	.94	-0.81	-0.29
	Structure						8	4.96	1.24	-0.27	-1.10

Note.

IGO = Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO = Extrinsic Goal Orientation; CLB = Control of Learning Beliefs; TV = Task Value; SELP = Self Efficacy for Learning and Performance; TA = Test Anxiety; FFC = Fear of Failing the Class; CA = Communication Apprehension, FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation.

The interpretation of the score based on Cambridge System is outlined in Table 10.

Thus participants' mean score fitted the description of level A2, below a Pass.

Table 10

Interpretation of PET Score

Grade	Score/100	CEFR
Pass with Distinction	900-100	B2
Pass with Merit	85-89	B1
Pass	70-84	B1
CEFR Level A2	45-69	A2

Note. CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

The mean score of the participants for the present study indicated that their English ability was quite low. The students had only reached level A2, just slightly above beginners. According to CEFR, at level A2, a student can understand frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g., very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment), can exchange simple information and describe his/her background using simple terms. Although it seemed that students' scores were generally low, I consider that the scores were a genuine reflection of students' ability.

4.4. Research Question One: Do Students' Foreign Language Anxiety and Motivation Change Over Time?

4.4.1. Changes in students' foreign language anxiety.

To investigate whether there were changes in students' FL anxiety over 10 weeks of learning English, a one-way repeated-measures MANOVA was conducted. The three FLCAS dimensions were the dependent variables, time was the within-subject factor and school, grade, and gender were between-subject independent variables across the two timepoints. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted and no serious violations noted. The results revealed a statistically significant main effect for anxiety, $F(2, 331) = 241.58$, $p < .001$, Wilks' Lambda = .41, partial $\eta^2 = .59$ suggesting different anxiety levels. However, there was no significant main effect for time detected.

There was a significant two-way interaction effect detected involving time and anxiety, $F(2, 331) = 21.97$, $p < .001$, Wilks' Lambda = .88, $\eta^2 = .12$ indicating that overall students' anxiety scores changed over time. There were also two significant three-way interaction effects: between time x anxiety x school $F(2,331) = 5.61$, $p = .01$, Wilks' Lambda = .97, partial $\eta^2 = .03$; and between time x anxiety x grade $F(2, 331) = 5.72$, Wilks' Lambda = .97, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. This suggests that anxiety dimensions changed differentially for students from different schools and grades. Figure 3 shows the changes in students' mean scores on the three FLCAS subscales over time across the whole sample.
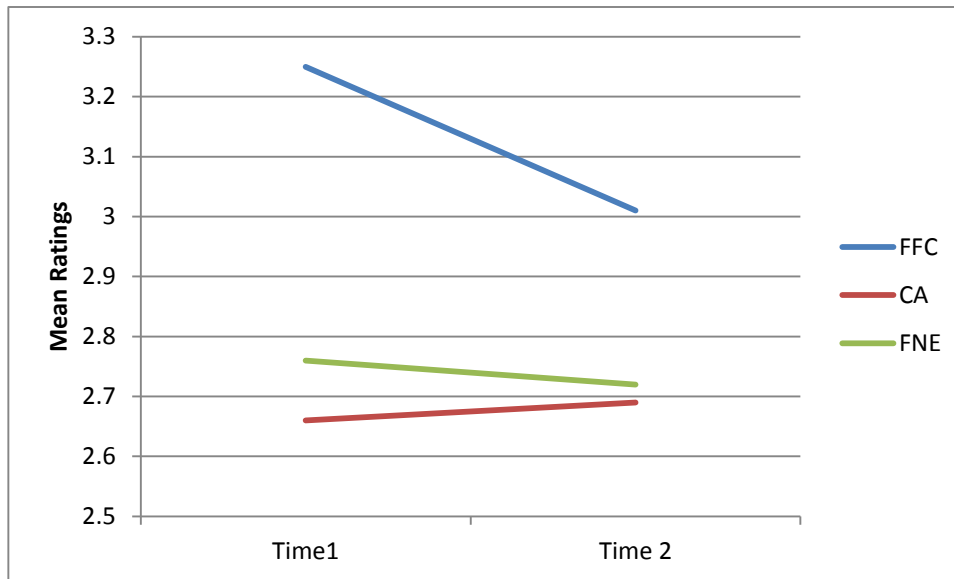
Figure 3. Students' mean scores on the FLCAS over time.

Note. FFC = Fear of Failing the Class; CA = Communication Apprehension;

FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation. Scale range is 1: Strongly agree to 7: strongly

disagree.

Follow-up repeated measures ANOVAs were inspected for each of the three

subscales of the FLCAS to examine the presence of significant differences across

timepoints and whether the changes in students' FL anxiety were related to school,

grade or gender. Bonferroni correction was utilised to address the number of

dependent variables involved in these analyses.

For the first subscale, *fear of failing the class*, there was a statistically

significant main effect for time, F (1, 333) = 11.07, p = .001, Wilks' Lambda = .97,

partial η^2 = .03, implying that students' *fear of failing the class* significantly

decreased from the first week (M = 3.25, SD = .66) to the 10th week (M = 3.01, SD

= .63). There were no significant interaction effects revealed for this subscale

indicating a general decrease.

For the second subscale, *communication apprehension,* there was a significant

main effect for time, F (1, 334) = 5.28, p = .02, Wilks' Lambda = .98, partial η^2 = .02.

A two-way significant interaction effect between time and grade revealed that Year

10 and Year 11 students changed differently over time, F (1, 334) = 8.71, $p < .01$

Wilks' Lambda = .98, partial η^2 = .03. Figure 4 presents this interaction. Year 10

students reported a similar *communication apprehension* level at each end of the 10

week period of study. Conversely *communication apprehension* increased for Year

11 students F (1, 100) = 6.65, p = .01, Wilks' Lambda = .94, partial η^2 = .06.
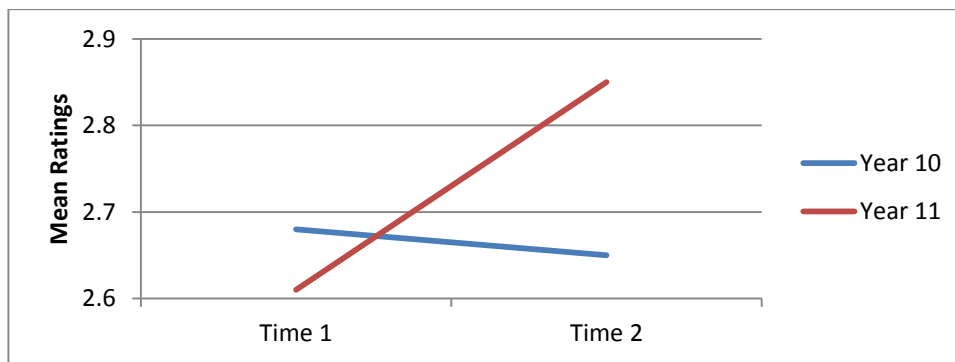
Figure 4. Interaction effect between time and grade for *communication apprehension*.

To examine whether there was a significant difference between Year 10 and

Year 11 students' scores at each of Time 1 and Time 2, one-way ANOVA was

conducted at each timepoint. The result indicated that the significant difference

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between the two grades was only at Time 2, $F(1, 341) = 9.07$, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .03$. Thus, although Year 10 and Year 11 students began with similar levels of *communication apprehension*, by the end of the 10 weeks, the Year 11 students' levels had significantly increased, whereas the Year 10 students had maintained a stable level.

For the third subscale, *fear of negative evaluation*, a non-significant main effect for time suggested that time did not change students' scores. However, this was not true for all groups, as revealed by a significant interaction effect between time and grade $F(1, 333) = 3.97$, $p = .04$, Wilks' Lambda = .99 and partial $\eta^2 = .01$. Figure 5 presents the interaction effect between time and grade for *fear of negative evaluation*.
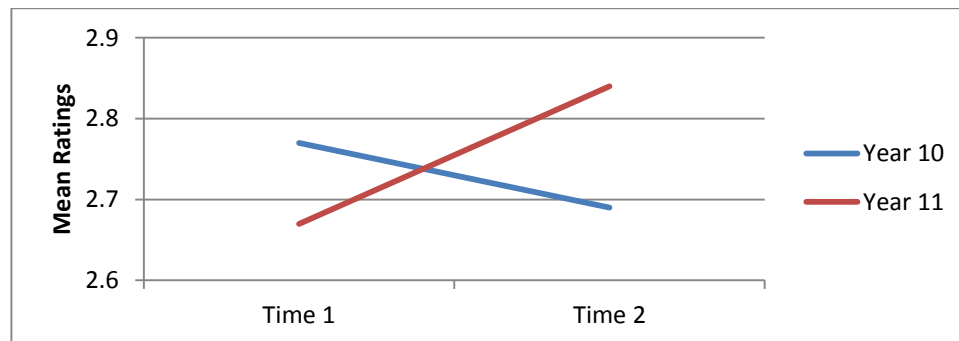
Figure 5. Interaction effect between time and grade for *fear of negative evaluation*.

Further repeated-measures ANOVAs were run to examine whether the changes in students' scores over time were significant within each grade. The results indicated these changes were not significant for either grade. To find out whether there was a significant difference between Year 10 and Year 11 students' scores at each of Time 1 and at Time 2, one-way ANOVA was conducted at each timepoint

which revealed no significant difference between Year 10 and Year 11 students'
scores at either timepoint. Thus despite the significant time x grade interaction effect,
in fact Year 10 and Year 11 students' scores remained similar and stable.

4.4.2 Changes in students' motivation over the 10 weeks period.

To investigate whether there were changes in students' MSLQ motivation
factors over the 10 weeks, one-way repeated measures MANOVA was similarly used.
The six dimensions of motivation and two timepoints were used as within-subject
factors, and school, grade and gender as between-subject factors across the two
timepoints. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted and no serious violations
noted. The results revealed a significant main effect for time $F (1, 335) = 25$, $p < .01$,
Wilks' Lambda = .93 partial $\eta^2 = .07$ suggesting that time impacted the students'
motivation. Another significant main effect was for motivation $F (5, 331) = 689.70$,
$p < .01$, Wilks' Lambda = .09, partial $\eta^2 = .91$ indicating different levels across the
different motivation factors. As shown in Figure 6, students exhibited an increase on
most of the motivation dimensions. Only *test anxiety* and *self-efficacy for learning
and performance* decreased over time.

There were three significant two-way interaction effects revealed in this
analysis. The first was between time x motivation, $F (5, 331) = 131.08$, $p < .01$, Wilks'
Lambda = .34, partial $\eta^2 = .66$, indicating that students' motivation scores changed
differentially over time. Another two-way significant interaction effect was
encountered for time and school, $F (1, 335) = 24.93$, $p < .01$, Wilks' Lambda = .93

and partial $\eta^2 = .02$, implying that students' motivation scores changed differentially by school. In other words, different contexts provided by the two ISS and non-ISS school contributed to the changes in students' motivation. The two-way interaction effect of motivation and grade, $F(1, 331) = 2.49$, $p = .03$, Wilks' Lambda = .09, partial $\eta^2 = .04$, implied that students' motivation scores differed by grade.

A three-way significant interaction effect was found between time x motivation x school $F(5, 331) = 6.39$, $p < .01$, Wilks' Lambda = .91, partial $\eta^2 = .09$. Another significant three-way interaction effect was between motivation, school and grade, $F(5, 331) = 2.32$, $p = .03$, Wilks' Lambda = .97, partial $\eta^2 = .04$ suggesting that motivation dimensions changed differentially for students from different schools and grades over time. Follow-up repeated-measures ANOVAs were inspected for each of the six subscales of the MSLQ to examine the presence of significant differences across timepoints and whether the changes in students' motivation were related to school, grade, and gender. Bonferonni correction was utilised to address the number of dependent variables involved.

For the first dimension of motivation, *intrinsic goal orientation*, a statistically significant main effect for time $F(1, 336) = 83.43$, $p < .001$, Wilks Lambda = .80, partial $\eta^2 = .20$ indicated that overall students' *intrinsic goal orientation* significantly increased from Time 1 ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .76$) to Time 2 ($M = 5.34$, $SD = .85$). There were no significant interaction effects found for this subscale.

For the second dimension, *extrinsic goal orientation,* there was no significant main effect for time meaning that the overall students' scores on *extrinsic goal orientation* remained similar at Time 1 and Time 2. However, this was not true for all groups as revealed by a significant two-way interaction between time and school, F (1, 336) = 26.28, p < .01, Wilks' Lambda = .93 and partial η^2 = .07. As shown in Figure 7, students' motivation at the non-ISS increased 0.49 points from M = 5.78, SD = .92 at Time 1, to M = 6.23, SD = .68 at Time 2. On the other hand, students' mean score at ISS decreased .26 points from M = 6.25, SD = .80 at Time 1 to M = 5.99, SD = .85 at Time 2.

Further repeated-measures ANOVAs were employed to examine whether the changes in students' scores over time were significant within each school. The results are presented in Table 11 which shows significant decrease at the ISS, and significant increase at the non-ISS.

Table 11

Repeated-Measures ANOVA, for Interaction Between Time and School for Extrinsic Goal Orientation

School	T1 (*M/SD*)	T2 (*M/SD*)	F	p	partial η^2
ISS	6.23/.80	6.06/.85	$F(1,181) = 3.85$	.05	.02
non-ISS	5.76/.92	6.22/.68	$F(1,161) = 31.68$	< .001	.16

Due to significant interaction effects, one-way ANOVAs were further performed to compare both groups at Time 1 and Time 2. The results revealed

significant differences between ISS and non-ISS students' scores at each timepoint, at

Time 1, F (1, 342) = 26.25, p < .001, and at Time 2, F (1, 342) = 3.85, p = .05.
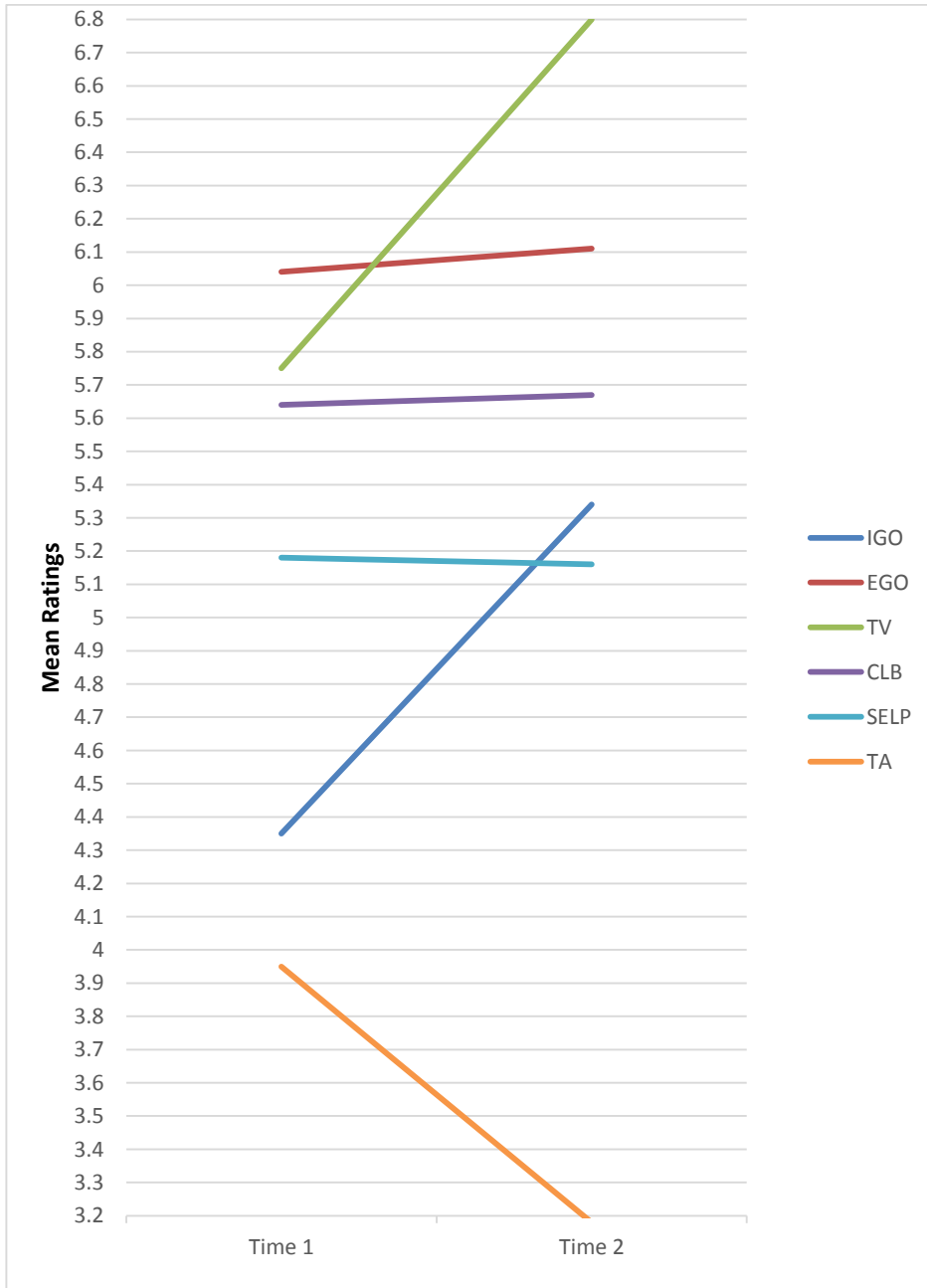
Figure 6. Changes in students' motivation over time (total sample).

Figure 7 presents this interaction effect. Thus, although ISS students started out with higher *extrinsic goal orientation*, they decreased to a significantly lower level than non-ISS students over the semester, conversely for non-ISS students.
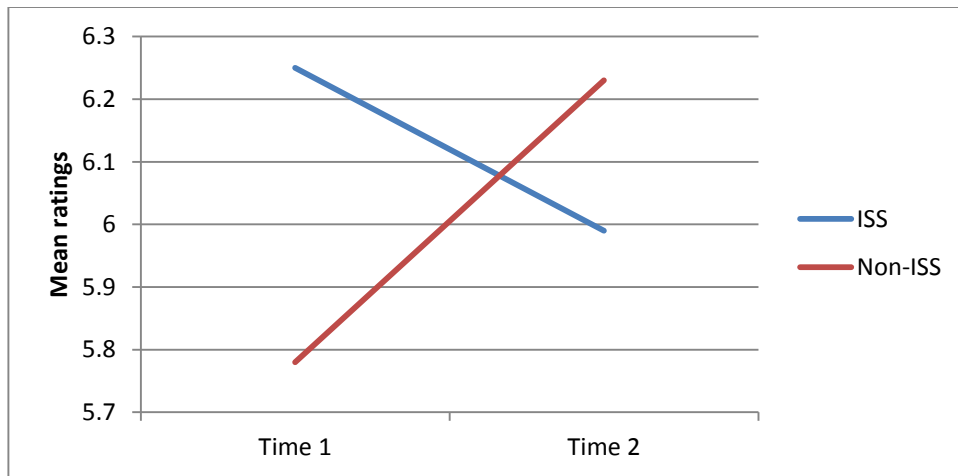
Figure 7. Interaction effect between time and school for *extrinsic goal orientation*.

For the third dimension of motivation, *task value*, a statistically significant main effect for time, $F (1, 336) = 8761.15$ $p < .01$, Wilks' Lambda = .04, partial $\eta^2 = .96$, showed that overall, students' scores on *task value* increased significantly from $M = 5.69$, $SD = .99$ at Time 1, to $M = 6.80$, $SD = .97$ at Time 2. No significant interaction effects were encountered.

For the fourth subscale, *control of learning beliefs*, no significant main effect for time was revealed. There was a significant two-way interaction effect of time and

school, F (1, 336) = 5.06, p = .03, Wilks' Lambda = .99, partial η^2 = .02, implying

that ISS and non-ISS students' score for this dimension changed differentially over

time. Due to the interaction effect being significant, repeated-measures ANOVAs

were conducted to detect significant differences in students' scores within each

school. The decrease for ISS students' *control of learning beliefs* was not significant;

however the increase for non-ISS students' scores was significant F (1, 161) = 9.38, p

= .003, partial η^2 = .06 (see Figure 8).

To examine whether there was a significant difference between ISS and non-

ISS students' scores at each of Time 1 and Time 2, one way ANOVA was conducted

at each timepoint. At Time 1, there was a significant difference between the scores of

ISS and non-ISS students, F (1, 342) = 9.37, p = .002, partial η^2 = .07. However, at

Time 2 there was no significant difference found. Figure 8 describes this interaction.

Thus, non-ISS students began with *lower control of learning beliefs*, but significantly

increased through the semester to reach similar levels as ISS students by Time 2.
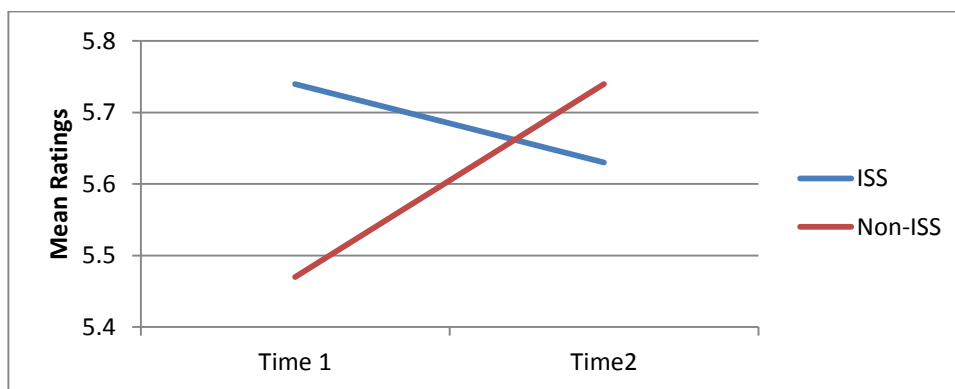
Figure 8. Interaction effects between school and time for *control of learning beliefs*.

For the fifth dimension, *self-efficacy for learning performance*, only a three-way interaction between time, school and gender was found to be significant. Figures 9a-b describe the three-way interaction effect. To examine whether the changes were significant for each group, further repeated-measures ANOVAs were conducted. The results indicated that the change in students' *self-efficacy for learning and performance* over the two timepoints was only significant for boys at ISS, F (1, 53) = 4.74, p = .03, Wilks' Lambda = .92, partial η^2 = .08 (Figure 9a) who declined over the semester, whereas other groups remained stable.
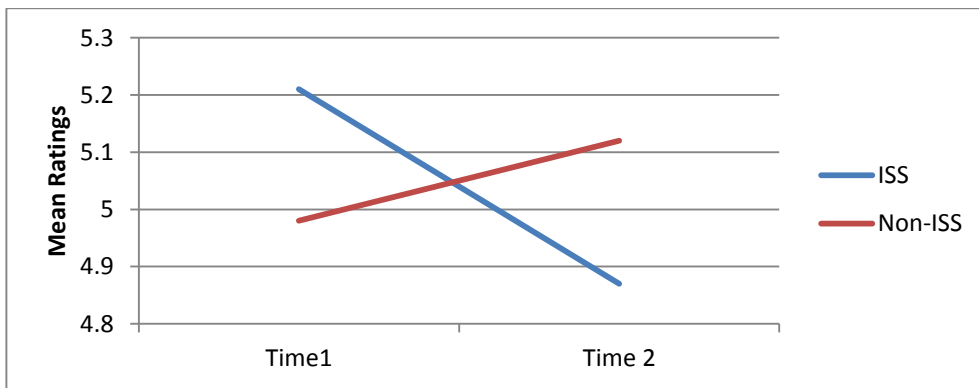
Figure 9a. Interaction effects between time, school, and grade *for self-efficacy for learning and performance* for boys.
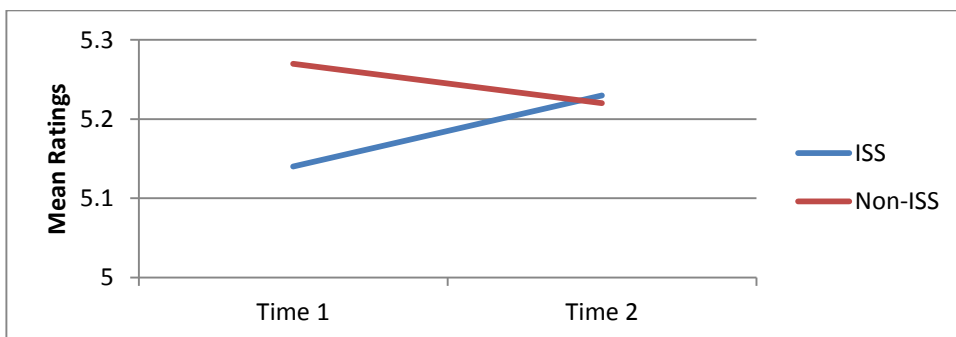
Figure 9b. Interaction effects between time, school, and grade *for self-efficacy for learning and performance* for girls.

One-way ANOVAs were calculated at each timepoint to see whether students' scores per group were significantly different. The results indicated a different pattern between boys and girls. For boys, students' scores differed significantly by school at Time 1, F (1, 106) = 4.88, p = .03, partial η^2 = .07 but not at Time 2. For girls, no significant differences by school were revealed at either of the two timepoints (see Figures 9a and 9b)

For the last dimension, *test anxiety*, only a significant main effect for time F (1, 335) = 86.80, p < .01, Wilks' Lambda = .79, partial η^2 = .21 was found. The time effect indicated that participants exhibited a significant decrease from Time 1 (M = 3.98, SD = 1.15*)* to Time 2 (M = 3.15, SD = .66) in their scores on *test anxiety*.

4.5. Research Question Two:

What are the Interrelationships between Students' Foreign Language Anxiety, Motivation, Achievement and Their Perceptions of Teachers' Classroom Behaviours?

To explore the relationships between the target variables, the FLCAS subscales and student-reported TSS subscales, Pearson correlation coefficients were used. In discussing the relationships between variables, the findings are presented in the following pattern; first the relationship between two variables is discussed for the total sample followed by groups, i.e. by school, grade and gender. Similarly, the

correlations tables are also organised for the total sample, by school, grade and gender for all variables. Reference to the same corresponding table will be made if the discussion is about the relationships between two variables for the total sample or by groups i.e school, grade and gender.

4.5.1 Relationships between students' foreign language anxiety and teachers' classroom behaviour.

The correlation coefficients of all the variables for the total sample are presented in Table 12. As shown by the table, the correlations within the FLCAS subscales were all positive and significant, suggesting that students who scored high in one subscale would also score high in the others. The strength of the correlations was large with all correlation coefficients $r > .50$.

The exploration of the relationships between students' foreign language anxiety and their perception of teachers' classroom behaviour revealed that all subscales of the FLCAS were significantly and negatively correlated with the student-reported TSS subscales, except *negativity* with which they correlated positively. Thus students who were highly anxious tended to perceive their teacher negatively and vice versa. In other words, the lower the students rated the teacher's positive classroom behaviours, the higher their anxiety would be. The strengths of the correlation between all of the FLCAS subscales with *negativity* were large, as indicated by the majority of correlation coefficients, which were above .50 (see Table 12).

Table 12

Correlations between FLCAS, MSLQ, Student-reported TSS and PET Scores for Total Student Sample at Time 2

	Anxiety			Student reported TSS				Motivation						Score
Factor	FFC	CA	FNE	E	R	N	S	IGO	EGO	TV	CLB	SELP	TA	PET
FFC	-	.63**	.75**	-.62**	-.57**	.42**	-.63**	-.33**	-.01	-.21**	.06	-.47**	.59**	-.22**
CA		-	.62**	-.56**	-.53**	.21**	-.55**	-.44**	-.19**	-.44**	-.08	-.60**	.66**	-.17
FNE			-	-.68**	-.64**	.33**	-.66**	-.34**	-.08	-.31**	-.04	-.44**	.66**	-.26**
E				-	.88**	-.36**	.85**	.33**	.12*	.32**	.07	.41**	-.57**	.15**
R					-	-.33**	.84**	.33**	.13*	.37**	.10	.43**	-.55**	.15**
N						-	-.42**	-.12*	.06	-.04	.14**	-.16**	.26**	-.18*
S							-	.36**	.14*	.36**	.09	.45**	-.57**	.11*
IGO								-	.38**	.63**	.45**	.56**	-.24**	.13*
EGO									-	.51**	.49**	.41**	-.03	-.07
TV										-	.47**	.60**	-.27**	.14**
CLB											-	.27**	.09	.03
SELP												-	-.45**	.20**
TA													-	-.24**
PET														

Note. **p < .01   *p < .05 (2-tailed)

Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief; SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

A more detailed inspection of the relationship between the subscales of the two measures indicated that the correlations between *structure* and *expectations* with all of the FLCAS subscales appeared to be the strongest, implying that *structure* and *expectations* were better predictors of students' anxiety than the other two dimensions of perceived classroom behaviour (i.e., *relatedness*, *negativity*). It suggests that students' perception about teacher's positive expectations toward them, as well as their clear understanding of the class rules and consequences of breaking rules, would decrease students' feeling of anxiety. Among teachers' positive characteristics, *relatedness* showed the smallest correlation coefficients with all the FLCAS subscales. This implies that teachers' positive expectations and clear class structure had larger relationships with students reduced feelings of anxiety, compared to whether the teacher cared and took personal interest in them, treated them fairly and considered their feelings.

4.5.2 Correlations between the FLCAS subscales and the student-reported TSS subscales by school, grade and gender.

Correlation analyses conducted by school revealed that all the correlations between the FLCAS and the student-reported TSS subscales were significant at both schools (see Table 13). The pattern of the correlations at each school was exactly similar to the pattern of the total sample. However, with regard to the strength of the correlations, the two schools showed a different pattern. At ISS, the FLCAS subscales showed the strongest correlation with *structure*, whereas at non-ISS with

expectations. This suggests that students' FL anxiety was affected differently by dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviour, depending on the school as the context of learning.

As shown by Table 14, correlations by grade shared similar patterns of correlation by schools and with the total sample. Stronger correlation coefficients were detected at Year 11 than at Year 10. Likewise, correlations by gender showed a similar pattern with stronger correlations found among girls compared to boys (see Table 15). Thus, Year 11 students and girls appeared more affected by teacher classroom behaviour in terms of their foreign language anxiety.

4.5.3 Relationship between students' motivation and teachers' classroom behaviour.

Relationships among motivation variables as measured by MSLQ subscales and students' perception of teacher's classroom behaviour measured by student-reported TSS subscales, were examined using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The distribution of students' responses on the student-reported TSS was described in the previous section. For the MSLQ subscales, not all scores were normally distributed. *Intrinsic goal orientation*, *control of learning beliefs*, *self-efficacy and learning performance* and *test anxiety* scores were normally distributed. On the other hand *extrinsic goal orientation* and *task value* scores were not normally distributed but negatively skewed. The literature lists several reasons for skewness of a continuous data distribution such as "ceiling effect", "floor effect" or a few extreme outliers

Table 13

Correlations between FLCAS, MSLQ, Student-reported TSS and PET Scores by School at Time 2

	Anxiety			Student reported TSS				Motivation						Score
Factor	FFC	CA	FNE	E	R	N	S	IGO	EGO	TV	CLB	SELP	TA	PET
FFC	-	.62**	.71**	-.59**	-.57**	.43**	-.62**	-.35**	-.01	-.16**	.07	-.52**	.55**	-.18*
CA	.65**	-	.56**	-.51**	-.46**	.19**	-.58**	-.99**	-.19**	-.34**	-.04	-.56**	.58**	-.17*
FNE	.80**	.68**	-	-.64**	-.63**	.40**	-.66**	-.36**	-.10	-.28**	-.05	-.44**	.60**	-.23**
E	-.68**	-.61**	-.72**	-	.85**	-.34**	.83**	.29**	.09*	.20**	.05	.35**	-.50**	.08**
R	-.59**	-.59**	-.66**	.92**	-	-.34**	.83**	.30**	.10*	.26**	.09	.38**	-.50**	.13**
N	.40**	.26**	.27**	-.41**	-.59**	-	-.43**	-.15*	.05	-.04	.17*	-.23**	.23**	-.18*
S	-.65**	-.53**	-.66**	.87**	.92**	.36**	-	.39**	.15*	.32**	.08	.47**	-.55**	.11*
IGO	-.32**	-.50**	-.32**	.38**	.36**	-.10	.33**	-	.37**	.61**	.45**	.57**	-.20**	.10
EGO	-.02	-.20*	-.07	.17*	.16*	.02	.12	.3	-	.60**	.56**	.38**	.02	-.09
TV	-.27**	-.54**	-.35**	.46**	.49**	-.07	.42**	.64**	.39*	-	.56**	.52**	-.16*	.05
CLB	.03	-.13	-.04	.09	.10	.07	.12	.43**	.39**	.36**	-	.29**	.18*	.03
SELP	-.52**	-.56**	-.05	.05	.38**	-.23**	.47**	.57**	.38**	.52**	.29**	-	-.41**	.12
TA	.66**	.74**	.72**	-.65**	-.59**	.31**	-.60**	-.29**	-.10	-.38**	-.01	-.48**	-	-.24**
PET	-.12	-.32**	-.31**	.28**	.24**	.09	.19*	.20**	.05	.29**	.17*	.31**	-.27**	-

Note. **p < .01 *p < .05 (2-tailed). The correlational values printed in red (lower triangle) refer to those at non-ISS and values printed in blue (upper triangle) refer to those at ISS.

Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief; SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

Table 14

Correlations between FLCAS, MSLQ, Student-reported TSS and PET Scores by Grade at Time 2

	Anxiety			Student reported TSS				Motivation						Score
Factor	FFC	CA	FNE	E	R	N	S	IGO	EGO	TV	CLB	SELP	TA	PET
FFC	-	.59**	.74**	-.62**	-.55**	.45**	-.63**	-.31**	-.04	-.21**	.04	-.45**	.61**	-.26*
CA	.69**	-	.62**	-.53**	-.51**	.21**	-.54**	-.43**	-.22**	-.46**	-.08	-.60**	.63**	-.28*
FNE	.73**	.63**	-	-.66**	-.63**	.23**	-.64**	-.36**	-.18	-.35**	-.10	-.45**	.64**	-.28**
E	-.63**	-.62**	-.72**	-	.88**	-.34**	.85**	.34**	.18*	.34**	.13*	.39**	-.52**	.14**
R	-.64**	-.61**	-.69**	.88**	-	-.32**	.84**	.35**	.20*	.41**	.17**	.41**	-.50**	.15**
N	.37**	.22*	.37**	-.40**	-.34**	-	-.42**	-.14*	.03	-.04	.11*	-.16**	.25**	-.16
S	-.63**	-.56**	-.68**	.84**	.85**	.42**	-	.37**	.18*	.38**	.17**	.45**	-.54**	.19*
IGO	-.37**	-.45**	-.28**	.31**	.30**	-.07	.33**	-	.47**	.64**	.49**	.61**	-.23**	.18**
EGO	-.08	-.12*	.15	-.02*	-05*	.15	.01	.13	-	.55**	.58**	.46**	-.06	-.05
TV	-.21**	-.43**	-.23**	.28**	.27**	-.05	.31**	.61**	.41*	-	.50**	.62**	-.28*	.16
CLB	.12	-.04	.11	.11	-.08	.23*	.11	.33**	.39**	.40**	-	.32**	.05*	.07
SELP	-.51**	-.59**	-.41**	.45**	.47**	-.17	.46**	.50**	.32**	.57**	.17	-	-.41**	.26**
TA	.56**	.71**	.71**	-.68**	-.67**	.28**	-.64**	-.26**	-.06	-.24	-.20	-.50**	-	-.27**
PET	.05	-.09	-.21**	.18**	.17	-.09	.13	-.00**	-.12	.09	-.08	.08	-.17	-

Note. ** $p < .01$ *$p < .05$ (2-tailed). The correlational values printed in red (lower triangle) refer to those at Year 11 and values printed in blue (upper triangle) refer to those at Year 10.

Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief; SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

(Alreck & Settle, 1985). For the present study, the outliers were identified using a histogram which showed a ceiling effect for the *extrinsic goal orientation* subscale. There were no outliers detected in this histogram. For *task value* there were five outliers detected. These outliers were checked and no error in calculation or data input was found. The reason for these extreme cases might be that the participants did not value English as a subject useful for learning other subjects, did not think learning English was important, or they extremely disliked English. These outliers were retained in the data set for correlational analysis.

Table 12 presents the correlation coefficients between the motivation dimensions and perceived teachers' classroom behaviour for the total sample. Not all variables were significantly correlated. For example, c*ontrol of learning beliefs* did not have significant correlations with student-reported TSS subscales except with *negativity*. *Negativity* was only correlated significantly with four out of six motivation dimensions: negative correlations with *intrinsic goal orientation* and *self-efficacy for learning and performance*; positive correlations with *control of learning beliefs* and *test anxiety*.

The strongest correlations were between *test anxiety* and all subscales of the student-reported TSS ($r = .26$ to $r = .57$). As for FL anxiety, these negative correlations, except positive for *negativity*, suggest that students were more likely to experience *test anxiety* if they perceived their teacher as not clear in *structure* (class rules and what happens if they break the rules), *positive expectations* (what the teacher expects from the students), and did not show good *relatedness* with the

students (may yell angrily or embarrass them). The positive correlation between *test anxiety* and n*egativity* implies that students were more likely to experience test anxiety if they had a negative feeling about their teacher's behaviour.

Other motivation dimensions showed positive correlations with the student-reported TSS implying that students' motivations were enhanced if they perceived their teacher's classroom behaviour positively. The highest positive correlations were for *self-efficacy* and *learning performance*. It indicates that students with positive perceptions of their teachers will be more motivated in terms of expectancy for success and self-efficacy rather than other types of motivation. Expectancy for success refers to "performance expectations and relates specifically to task performance" while self-efficacy is "a self-appraisal of one's ability to master a task" (Pintrich, et al., 1991, p. 9).

Small, positive, significant correlations ($r = .12$ to $.14$) were detected between *extrinsic goal orientation* and all student-reported TSS subscales except with *negativity*, suggesting that positive perceptions of teachers' behaviour did not have a large effect in raising students' *extrinsic goal orientation*. The relationships between *task value, intrinsic goal orientation* and the three positive subscales of student-reported TSS were small to moderate and positive ($r = .12$ to $.36$) indicating that the extent to which students' perceived teachers' classroom behaviour positively associated with these two motivation dimensions.

Table 15

Correlations between FLCAS, MSLQ, Student-reported TSS and PET Scores by Gender at Time 2

	Anxiety			Student reported TSS				Motivation						Score
Factor	FFC	CA	FNE	E	R	N	S	IGO	EGO	TV	CLB	SELP	TA	PET
FFC	-	.63**	.74**	-.65**	-.61**	.43**	-.64**	-.30**	.01	-.22*	.04	-.48**	.58**	-.27**
CA	.62**	-	.58**	-.60**	-.57**	.25*	-.59**	-.34**	-.14	-.43**	-.07	-.64**	.69**	-.31*
FNE	.76**	.65**	-	-.69**	-.65**	.35**	-.62**	-.22**	-.04	-.22**	-.01	-.35**	.70**	-.37**
E	-.59**	-.52**	-.66**	-	.88**	-.46**	.83**	.27**	.13	.33**	.04	.35**	-.58**	.29**
R	-.55**	-.51**	-.64**	.90**	-	-.41**	.83**	.22*	.08*	.35**	.05	.36**	-.58**	.27*
N	.42**	.16*	.32**	-.29**	-.25**	-	-.49**	-.10	.01	-.11	.02	-.18	.31**	-.20*
S	-.61**	-.52**	-.66**	.81**	.82**	.33**	-	.22*	.18	.33	.15	.42**	-.59**	.20*
IGO	-.34**	-.49**	-.39**	.36**	.38**	-.09	.40**	-	.29**	.56**	.51**	.55**	-.22**	.25*
EGO	-.01	-.21**	-.10	.12	.15*	.10	.02	.41**	-	.41**	.51**	.34**	-.09	-.04
TV	-.20**	-.45**	-.36*	.32*	.38**	-.03	.34**	.65**	.54*	-	.39**	.65**	-.35**	.25**
CLB	.06	-.08	-.06	.08	-.12	.24**	.09	.42**	.49**	.50**	-	.35**	.02	.13
SELP	-.47**	-.57**	-.48**	.44**	.46**	-.14**	.45**	.59**	.45**	.58**	.17	-	-.47**	.26**
TA	.60**	.65**	.64**	-.56**	-.54**	.23**	-.58**	-.25**	-.01	-.23**	-.12	-.43**	-	-.33**
PET	.-.14**	-.18**	-.21**	.07	.10	-.08	.13	.08	-.08	.10	.03	.00	-.18**	-

Note. **$p < .01$ level $p < .05$ level (2-tailed). The correlational values printed in red (lower triangle) refer to females and values printed in blue (upper triangle) refer to males. Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief; SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

4.5.4 Correlation between students' motivation and teachers' classroom behaviours by school, grade and gender.

When correlations were examined by school, more significant and stronger correlations were detected at ISS than at non-ISS (see Table 13). The strongest correlations at both schools, which were negative, were between *test anxiety* and all student-reported TSS subscales. Investigation of correlations by grade showed differences in the relationships between students' motivation and student-reported TSS for Year 10 and Year 11 students. More significant correlations were revealed for Year 10 students than Year 11. For example, *extrinsic goal orientation* showed positive and significant correlations with *positive expectations*, *relatedness* and *structure* for Year 10 students whereas, for Year 11 students, none of these correlations was significant. It suggests that Year 10 students would be more extrinsically motivated if they perceived the teacher to be clear in their expectations, class rules and consequences of breaking them, and maintained good relationships with the students, which was not the case for Year 11 students. In addition, *control of learning beliefs* correlated positively and significantly with all the student-reported TSS subscales Year 10 students. Interestingly, for Year 11 students, control *of learning beliefs* only correlated significantly with *negativity*. This implies that Year 10 students believed their own effort increased as their perception of positive teacher's classroom behaviour increased. In contrast, teacher's classroom behaviour did not affect Year 11 students' belief in their own effort in learning English.

Correlation coefficients between all motivation dimensions and student-reported TSS by grade are presented in Table 14.

An inspection of correlational analysis by gender revealed differences between the relationships of students' motivation and student-reported TSS for boys and girls. The major differences nested in the relationship between *extrinsic goal orientation* and the subscales of student-reported TSS. Girls' *extrinsic goal orientation* correlated significantly and positively with *relatedness*, suggesting that their *extrinsic goal orientation* improved as their perception of teacher's *relatedness* increased. Conversely, none of teachers' characteristics correlated significantly with boys' *extrinsic goal orientation*. In other words, teacher's characteristics did not have any effect on boys' *extrinsic goal orientation*. Correlation coefficients between all motivation dimensions and student-reported TSS by gender are presented in Table 15.

4.5.5 Relationship between students' foreign language anxiety and motivation.

The Pearson product moment correlation was calculated to assess the relationships between students' foreign language classroom anxiety and their motivations. These were measured both at Time 1 and Time 2. The correlation analysis was conducted for each time of measurement. Time 1 correlation coefficients for the total sample are presented in Table 16.

At Time 1, no significant correlations were detected between all the FLCAS subscales and *intrinsic goal orientation*. *Extrinsic goal orientation* showed negative

significant correlations with *communication apprehension* and *fear of failing the class* suggesting that students who scored high on these two subscales showed lower motivation to achieve good grades, to perform well in evaluation by others and in competitions. Both *task value* and *self-efficacy for learning and performance* exhibited significant negative correlations with all the FLCAS subscales. These suggest that students who experienced high *fear of failing the class*, *communication apprehension*, and *fear of negative evaluation* did not value of English as highly as an important subject and had low confidence in their ability to accomplish the task. *Control of learning beliefs* correlated negatively and significantly with *communication apprehension* and *fear of negative evaluation*, but no significant correlation was detected with fear *of failing the class*. The negative correlations implied that students who scored high in *communication apprehension* and *fear of negative evaluation* had lower belief that their effort in learning English would result in positive outcomes. As anticipated, positive and significant correlations were detected between *test anxiety* and all the subscales of the FLCAS suggesting that students who scored high in *fear of failing the class*, *communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation* were more likely to experience *test anxiety* compared to those who scored lower on those anxiety subscales.

Table 16

Pearson Correlations between FLCAS and MSLQ for the Total Sample at Time 1

No.	Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	FFC	-	.59**	72**	-.04	.03	.22**	.05	-.36**	.45**	-.02
2	CA		-	.65**	-.05	-.27**	-.50**	-.23**	-.59**	.37**	-.09
3	FNE			-	-.03	-.14**	-.32**	-.15**	-.38**	-.38**	-.01
4	IGO				-	.05	.05	-.03	.03	-.04	.17**
5	EGO					-	.60**	.57**	.52**	-.02	.08
6	TV						-	.53**	.70**	-.17**	.12*
7	CLB							-	.41**	.06	.03
8	SELP								-	-.32	.06
9	TA									-	-.11
10	PET										-

Note. **$p < .01$ *$p < .05$ level (2-tailed)
Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief; SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

Table 17

Pearson Correlations between FLCAS and MSLQ by School at Time 1

No.	Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	FFC	-	.53**	70**	-.04	-.05	-.18*	.08	-.38**	.49**	.06
2	CA	.67**	-	.60**	-.08	-.33**	-.53**	-.25**	-.66**	.38**	-.06
3	FNE	.74**	.67**	-	-.05	-.25**	-.36**	-.12	-.44**	.53**	.07
4	IGO	-.05	.01	-.02	-	.05	.05	.00	.15	-.04	.30**
5	EGO	.04	.21	-.06	.54**	-	.63**	.62**	.61**	-.06	.09
6	TV	-.03**	-.46**	-.30**	.03**	.54**	-	.63**	.77**	-.14**	.04
7	CLB	-.00	-.21**	-.17**	-.09	.50**	.42**	-	.47**	.07	-.01
8	SELP	-.36**	-.51	-.34**	-.11	.43**	.62**	.36**	-	-.23	.05
9	TA	.46**	.38**	.29**	-.04	.07	-.17*	.08	-.38**	-	-.04
10	PET	-.14	-.11	-.06	.06	-.05	.12	-.02	.05	-.16*	-

Note. **$p < .01$ *$p < .05$ level (2-tailed)
Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief; SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

Table 18

Pearson Correlations between FLCAS and MSLQ by Grade at Time 1

No.	Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	FFC	-	.61**	71**	-.04	-.02	-.23*	.03	-.39**	.44**	-.12
2	CA	.55**	-	.61**	-.10	-.29**	-.49**	-.19**	-.61**	.40**	-.20
3	FNE	.74**	.71**	-	-.08	-.17**	-.31**	-.13*	-.36**	.35**	.-25**
4	IGO	-.03	-.07	.07	-	.11	.10	.00	.05	-.08	.24**
5	EGO	.17	-.19**	-.05	.11	-	.60**	.53**	.54**	-.06	.27
6	TV	-.18	-.52	-.36**	-.10	.60**	-	.53**	.71**	-.22**	-.20*
7	CLB	-.10	-.31**	-.18*	-.12	.71**	.51**	-	.38**	.03	20*
8	SELP	-.31**	-.52**	-.45**	-.12	.47**	.67**	.50**	-	-.39**	.11
9	TA	.49**	.33**	.47**	.06	.11	-.03*	.13	-.12**	-	-.12
10	PET	.01	-.04	-.04	.22*	-.02	-.02	-.03	.08	-.06*	-

Note. **p < .01 *p < .05 level (2-tailed)
Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of
Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal
Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief;
SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test.

Table 19

Pearson Correlations between FLCAS and MSLQ by Gender at Time 1

No.	Subscales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	FFC	-	.62**	73**	-.02	-.09	-.25*	.10	-.38**	.48**	-.12
2	CA	.58**	-	.71**	-.10	-.20	-.48**	-.18**	-.62**	-34**	-.21*
3	FNE	.71**	.61**	-	-.01	-.11	-.37**	-.18	-.44**	.39**	.-25**
4	IGO	-.05	-.13*	-.05	-	.06	.01	.06	-.34	-.02	.24**
5	EGO	.01	-.30**	-.16	.05	-	.57**	.62**	.51**	-.02	.02
6	TV	-.20**	-.51**	-.31**	.08	.62**	-	.54**	.74**	-.23**	.18*
7	CLB	.07	-.25**	-.14*	-.02	.55**	.53**	-	.41**	-.05	.07
8	SELP	-.36**	-.58**	-.37**	-.05	.52**	.68**	.42**	-	-.32**	.03
9	TA	.44**	.39**	.38**	-.06	-.02	-.15*	.10	-.32**	-	-.17
10	PET	.02	-.03	.06	.14*	-.11	.09	.01	-.07	-.08	-

Note. **p < .01 *p < .05 level (2-tailed)
Abbreviation list- FFC: Fear of Failing the Class; CA: Communication Apprehension; FNE: Fear of
Negative Evaluation; E: Expectation; R: Relatedness; N: Negativity; S: Structure; IGO: Intrinsic Goal
Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Belief;
SELP; Self Efficacy for Learning Performance; TA: Test Anxiety; PET: Preliminary English Test

At Time 2, as shown by Table 12, more significant correlations between the subscales of the FLCAS and the subscales of MSLQ were revealed. *Intrinsic goal orientation*, which showed no significant correlation with any FLCAS subscales at Time 1, interestingly indicated significant and negative correlations with all the FLCAS subscales at Time 2. These correlations suggest that students who showed high *intrinsic goal orientation* (that is who participated in a task for reasons such as challenge, curiosity and mastery) experienced low *fear of failing the class*, *communication apprehension* and *fear of negative evaluation*. *Control of learning beliefs* correlated significantly and negatively with *communication apprehension* and *fear of negative evaluation* but, over 10 weeks period of study, these correlations become not significant. Four other motivation subscales, *extrinsic goal orientation*, *task value*, *self-efficacy and learning performance* and *test anxiety* shared exactly similar pattern of correlations with Time 1.

4.5.6 Relationship between students' foreign language anxiety and motivation by school, grade and gender.

An inspection of the relationships between foreign language anxiety and motivation by school revealed no major differences between the two schools at Time 1 (see Table 17). ISS and non-ISS shared exactly the same patterns for the relationship between four MSLQ subscales including *intrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance*, and *test anxiety* with all FLCAS subscales. At both schools, there was no significant correlation detected between

intrinsic goal orientation and all the FLCAS subscales, implying that students'

language anxiety did not have any significant association with students' *intrinsic goal*

orientation. Task value and *self-efficacy for learning and performance* exhibited

significant and negative correlations with all the FLCAS subscales at both schools

whereas *test anxiety* correlated positively and significantly with all the FLCAS

subscales.

Small differences between the two schools at Time 1 centred on the

relationships between *extrinsic goal orientation*, *control of learning beliefs* and the

FLCAS subscales. At ISS, *extrinsic goal orientation* only showed a significant

correlation with *communication apprehension* whereas at non-ISS this motivation

dimension exhibited significant and negative correlations *with communication*

apprehension and *fear of negative evaluation. Control of learning beliefs* showed a

significant negative correlation only with *communication apprehension* at non-ISS

while at ISS it correlated negatively and significantly with *communication*

apprehension and *fear of negative evaluation.* The differences in the significance of

the relationships between variables at these two different schools indicated that

students' motivation was affected by factors differently, depending on the context for

the learning process. The differences were further explored in the qualitative part of

the study as reported in the following chapters.

At Time 2, there were no differences revealed between ISS and non-ISS. At

both schools, most motivation dimensions exhibited negative, significant correlations

with all the FLCAS subscales as presented in Table 13. Positive and significant

correlations were revealed only between *test anxiety* and all foreign language anxiety dimensions. Interestingly, *control of learning beliefs* did not correlate significantly with any of the motivation dimensions at either school, suggesting that foreign language anxiety would not affect students' belief in the contingency of the study outcome on own effort.

An inspection by grade at Time 1 and Time 2 showed different patterns of relationships between the target variables at the two timepoints. At Time 1 (see Table 18), more significant correlations were revealed for Year 10 students compared to Year 11 students. For Year 10, there were only two correlations, which were not significant, namely the correlation between *fear of failing the class* with *extrinsic goal orientation* and *control of learning beliefs*. The remaining correlations were significant, showing a consistent direction. However, fewer significant correlations were detected for Year 11 students, suggesting that foreign language anxiety was less involved with Year 11 students' motivation.

At Time 2 (see Table 14), there were two major differences revealed between Year 10 and Year 11 students. For Year 10 students, all the correlations between FLCAS and MSLQ were significant, with negative correlations between all the FLCAS subscales and MSLQ dimensions, except *test anxiety*. For Year 11, two of the motivation subscales, *extrinsic goal orientation* and *control of learning beliefs* did not correlate significantly with any of the FLCAS subscales suggesting foreign language anxiety had less effect on students' motivation for Year 11 compared to Year 10 students.

The relationships between the target variables by gender showed that both girls' and boys' motivations were affected by foreign language anxiety. At Time 1, three motivation dimensions (*task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance, and test anxiety)* were significantly related to all foreign language anxiety subscales for girls and boys as indicated by positive correlation between the first two dimensions and negative correlations between *test anxiety* and all the FLCAS subscales (see Table 19).

Ten weeks later, a similar pattern was seen, with more significant correlations for both groups of students. This suggests that after 10 weeks of studying, the feeling of anxiety was more related to students' motivation. At this timepoint, four motivation dimensions, *intrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance*, were significantly correlated with all the FLCAS subscales for girls. For boys, three motivation dimensions, *intrinsic goal orientation, self-efficacy for learning and performance* and *test anxiety* were significantly correlated with all the FLCAS subscales. The directions of the relationships remained negative (see Table 15).

4.5.7 Relationships between students' foreign language anxiety, motivation, perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour and their achievement.

To examine the relationships between students' achievement and foreign language anxiety, motivation and perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour,

Pearson correlations were calculated between students' score on the PET test and their responses on the FLCAS, MSLQ and student-reported TSS. As presented in Table 12, for the total sample, correlations between two of the FLCAS dimensions, i.e. *fear of failing the class* and *fear of negative evaluation*, and PET scores were negative and significant. It shows that students who experienced high *fear of failing the class* and *fear of negative evaluation* were more likely to have lower achievement compared to their less anxious counterparts.

An exploration by school, grade and gender was also conducted to see whether the relationships differed depending on these groups. It was revealed that there was no difference between ISS and non-ISS in the pattern of the relationships between the FLCAS and students' achievement scores. All the FLCAS subscales indicated negative significant correlations with the PET score (see Table 13).

When the inspection was calculated by grade, differences between Year 10 and Year 11 students emerged. All the FCLAS subscales showed significant and negative correlations for Year 10 students but, for Year 11 students negative and significant correlations were only detected between *fear of negative evaluation* and PET scores. Two other subscales did not correlate significantly with students' achievement scores. This suggests that foreign language anxiety related to Year 10 students' achievement more than for Year 11 students (see Table 14).

An inspection by gender revealed that girls' achievement was more negatively related to foreign language anxiety compared to boys' as indicated by

more significant negative correlations found between girls' PET score and all the FLCAS subscales (see Table 15).

4.5.8 Relationships between students' perception of teacher's classroom behaviour and their achievement.

The relationships between students' achievement and their perception of teachers' classroom behaviour revealed that all student-reported TSS subscales, except *negativity*, correlated significantly and positively with students' PET score. However, the correlation coefficients were small ($r = .15$ to $r = .18$) implying that the extent to which students perceived teacher's classroom behaviour had only fairly weak effects on students' achievement. *Negativity* correlated negatively and significantly with students' achievement, implying that the more the students' thought negatively about their teacher the lower their achievement was.

When the investigation was conducted by school, the results revealed differences between ISS and non-ISS in the relationships between the student-reported TSS and the PET score (see Table 13). At ISS, all subscales of student-reported TSS, except *negativity*, showed positive and significant correlations with students' achievement. The correlation with negativity was negative and significant. At non-ISS, only *negativity* showed a non-significant relationship with PET score whereas the other correlations were positive and significant. This implied that students' achievement at non-ISS was more related to teachers' positive classroom behaviour than *negativity*.

Investigation by grade revealed a major difference between Year 10 and Year 11 students. Three out of four student-reported TSS subscales, except *negativity*, exhibited positive and significant correlations with Year 10 students' achievement implying that students who held a positive view of their teacher's classroom behaviour were more likely to have better achievement compared with those who did not. However, there were no significant correlations revealed for Year 11 students (see Table 14).

The analysis of relationships between teachers' classroom behaviour and students' achievement by gender revealed that boys' and girls' achievement related differently to perceived teacher's classroom behaviour. Boys' achievement was affected by their perception for teacher's *positive expectations* and *relatedness* as indicated by positive and significant correlations between these subscales. On the other hands, girls' achievement related only to their perception of teacher's positive expectations as the only significant correlation revealed (see Table 15).

4.5.9 Relationship between students' motivation and their achievement.

With regard to the relationships between students' motivation and their achievement, correlation analysis was conducted at the two timepoints. For the total sample, Time 1 PET score showed correlation with only two motivations dimensions, *intrinsic goal orientation* and *task value* (see Table 16). The absence of significant relationship between the majority of motivation dimensions and students' PET achievement score suggested that Time 1 motivations could not have a huge impact

on students' achievement. At Time 2, positive correlations were detected between *intrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance*, and students' PET score (see Table 12). As anticipated, *test anxiety* exhibited negative and significant correlation with students' achievement at Time 2.

An inspection of the relationships between MSLQ subscales and PET score by school at Time 1 revealed that motivation did not relate much to students' achievement at each school as indicated by the absence of significant correlations between most motivation dimensions and students' PET score. At ISS, only *test anxiety* correlated significantly with PET score (see Table 17). This negative correlation suggests that the more anxious a student was during tests, the lower his/her achievement would be. At non-ISS, only *intrinsic goal orientation* showed significant positive correlation with PET score. At Time 2, more significant correlations were detected, especially at ISS. Students' achievement at ISS correlated significantly with all motivation dimensions except *extrinsic goal orientation*. All significant correlations were positive, except for *test anxiety*. However, at non-ISS, only a significant and negative correlation was detected, that is, between *test anxiety* and PET score (see Table 13).

The exploration of relationships between PET scores and MSLQ subscales by grade showed differences between Year 10 and Year 11 students at both timepoints. Similar to the results of correlation analysis by school, at Time 1, students' motivation did not show a relationship to achievement score (see Table 18). For Year 11 students, PET score was only correlated significantly and positively with *task*

value and, for Year 10, was with *intrinsic goal orientation* and *control of learning beliefs*. At Time 2, students' motivation showed more correlations with students' achievement scores for Year 10 students. *Intrinsic goal orientation, self-efficacy for learning and performance* correlated significantly and positively with PET score, whereas *test anxiety* correlated negatively (see Table 14). Surprisingly, for Year 11 students, none of the correlations was significant, indicating that students' motivation did not have any relationship to achievement.

Correlation analysis by gender showed differences between boys and girls in the pattern of the relationships between their motivation and achievement at Time 1 (see Table 19). Boys showed more significant correlations compared to girls. For boys, *extrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance* as well as *test anxiety* correlated significantly with PET score. For girls, PET score only correlated significantly with *intrinsic goal orientation*. These differences suggest that different motivations related to boys' and girls' learning; however, it was not always true. At Time 2, boys and girls showed exactly the same patterns in relationships between their motivations and achievement scores. For both genders, significant correlations were only detected at Time 2 between PET score and two dimensions of motivation, i.e., *self-efficacy for learning and performance* and *test anxiety* (see Table 15).

4.6 Research Question 3: What is the Relationship between Students' FL

Anxiety and Motivation When Controlling for Their Respective Time 1

Score, and each of:

a. Students' Perceptions of Teachers' Classroom Behaviour;

b. Students' Achievement?

4.6.1 Partial correlations between FLCAS and student-reported TSS.

Partial correlations were conducted to explore the relationships between the

constructs of FLCAS measured at Time 2 and student-reported TSS, while

controlling for the respective Time 1 FLCAS score. For the total sample, strong

negative partial correlations were encountered between the constructs of FLCAS and

the constructs of student-reported TSS, except *negativity* which showed strong

positive partial correlations. An inspection of the zero-order correlations showed that

controlling for T1 FLCAS had very little effect on the strength of the relationship

between these two variables. The partial correlation results are presented in Table 20.

When the analysis was conducted for each school separately, the results

indicated a similar pattern, that controlling for FLCAS score at Time 1 had very little

effect on the strength of the relationship between Time 2 FLCAS and student-

reported TSS subscales. All directions of correlations were the same at both schools;

negative correlations between FLCAS and *positive expectations*, *relatedness* and

structure, but positive correlations with *negativity*. In terms of the strength of

correlation, generally stronger correlations between all FLCAS and student-reported

TSS constructs were found at non-ISS. Details of partial correlations at both schools are presented in Table 21.

Analysis by grade and by gender revealed generally similar results consistent with the total sample that controlling for Time 1 FLCAS scores had very little effect on the strength of the relationship between Time 2 subscales and student-reported TSS constructs. The direction of the relationships remained the same. The results of partial correlation analysis by grade and gender are presented in Tables 22 and 23. Partial correlations conducted between the FLCAS scores and PET for the overall sample revealed significant negative correlations (see Table 20). Comparison with zero-order correlations indicated again a very small effect of Time 1 scores on the strength of the relationship between PET and FLCAS construct measures at Time 2. When partial correlations were carried out by school, (see Table 21) slightly different results were encountered. At ISS, the correlation between PET scores and the three dimensions of the FLCAS reached statistical significance suggesting that increased FL anxiety scores were associated with reduced PET achievement. At non-ISS, the correlation between the FLCAS dimension *fear of failing the class* and PET reached statistical significance and the correlations of the two other FLCAS constructs with the PET remained significant and became stronger. This suggested that increased FLCAS scores at each school were negatively related to PET score achievement.

4.6.2 Partial correlations between MSLQ and student-reported TSS score.

To examine whether controlling Time 1 MSLQ scores affected the strength of relationship between Time 2 MSLQ and student-reported TSS constructs, partial correlations were similarly employed. For the total sample, small to large partial positive correlations were revealed between motivation dimensions and student-reported TSS subscales except with *negativity* which was negatively and significantly correlated. The strongest partial correlations were between *test anxiety* and teachers' classroom behaviours, which correlated negatively except with *negativity*. Surprisingly, none of the teacher's classroom behaviour dimensions showed significant partial correlations with *extrinsic goal orientation*. The majority of significant partial correlations between the variables were small. An inspection of zero-order correlations indicated that controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores, T2 motivations were associated with the change student-reported TSS scores. Medium correlation coefficients became small, as evident in the partial correlations between *intrinsic goal orientation*, *task value* and student-reported TSS subscales. Conversely, the correlation coefficients between *test anxiety* and student-reported TSS subscales moved from medium to large. However, controlling Time 1 MSLQ scores did not have any impact on the relationships between *extrinsic goal orientation* and student-reported TSS subscales, as all the partial correlations remained non-significant. The results of partial correlation analysis between MSLQ subscales and student-reported TSS subscales for total sample are presented in Table 24.

When partial correlation analysis was conducted by school (see Table 25), the direction of the correlations remained the same at both schools. Partial correlations between MSLQ subscales and student-reported TSS subscales were positive, with the exception of *test anxiety*, which remained in a negative partial correlation with all student-reported TSS subscales, except negativity, with which it correlated positively. Inspection of zero-order correlations for each of two schools showed that, at ISS, controlling for Time 1, relationships between the variables were indicated by very similar correlation coefficients. At non-ISS, an effect of controlling Time 1, MSLQ score was encountered only in the relationship between *intrinsic goal orientation* and all student-reported TSS subscales, as the correlation coefficients were reduced from medium to small.

Partial correlations by grade (see Table 26), controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores, similarly impacted the strength of the relationships between some of the target variables at both grades. At Year 10, some of the correlations became stronger, i.e., for partial correlations between *intrinsic goal orientation* and two student-reported subscales, *positive expectations* and *relatedness*. Conversely, some other correlations became weaker, moving from medium to small (as seen between *task value* and *positive expectations, structure; self-efficacy* and *relatedness*) and from large to medium (as seen between *test anxiety* and all student-reported TSS subscales except with *negativity* which was negatively and significantly correlated).

A large impact of controlling T1 MSLQ scores for Year 10 students was also shown by the change of non-significant to significant correlations, as between

extrinsic goal orientation and *positive expectations*, and between *control of learning beliefs* and *negativity*. The impact was also shown by change from significant to non-significant, as evident in the relationship between *control of learning beliefs* and *relatedness*. At Year 11, controlling Time 1 MSLQ scores impacted the strength of the correlations between the target variables differently. Most of the changes were from significant to non-significant correlations or vice versa, as seen between *intrinsic goal orientation* and *positive expectations*, *relatedness*; between *task value* and *negativity*; as well as between *self-efficacy for learning and performance* and *negativity*. This partial correlation analysis revealed that the correlation became stronger between *test anxiety* and all student-reported TSS subscales except *negativity*.

Partial correlation analysis for gender groups showed similar patterns (see Table 27). An inspection of zero-order correlations revealed that controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores had different impacts for boys and girls. For boys, the effects were evident in the relationship between two motivation subscales, *intrinsic* and *extrinsic goal orientation*, with all significant relationships becoming not significant. Some correlations, those between *task value* and *relatedness* and *task value* and *structure* became stronger, and some became weaker as shown, as between *test anxiety* and student-reported TSS subscales, *relatedness* and *negativity*. For these relationships, large correlation coefficients reduced to medium when Time 1 MSLQ scores were controlled. For girls, controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores only affected the relationship of two motivation dimensions with student-reported TSS subscales:

intrinsic goal orientation and *task value*. The strengths of these relationships became weaker as they moved from medium to small correlations.

Partial correlation between MSLQ Time 2 and students' achievement score as measured by PET for the total sample revealed that controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores produced effects only on the strength of the relationship between PET and two motivation dimensions, *self-efficacy for learning and performance* and *test anxiety*. Their relationships with PET became significant whereas, for the other motivation dimensions controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores showed no effects on the strength of their relationships with PET. These partial correlations are presented in Table 24.

When partial correlation was conducted by school, different patterns emerged for ISS and non-ISS. At ISS, significant partial correlations were found only between PET and *test anxiety*, whereas at non-ISS, all partial correlations were significant. Controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores produced stronger relationships between variables at non- ISS than at ISS. At non-ISS, non-significant correlations between three motivation dimensions (*task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance, test anxiety*) and PET score became significant. In addition, the significant correlation between intrinsic goal orientation and PET score became non-significant. At ISS, controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores only affected the relationship between PET and *test anxiety*, which moved from non-significant to become significant (see Table 25).

Analysis by grade showed different patterns of partial correlations for Year 10 and Year 11 students (see Table 26). For Year 10, there were two significant partial correlations encountered, i.e. a between PET and *self- efficacy for learning and*

performance (positive), and between PET and *test anxiety* (negative). An inspection of zero-order correlations revealed that controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores had a larger impact on Year 10 students than Year 11. At Year 10, significant correlations between PET and each of *intrinsic goal orientation* and *task value* became non-significant, whereas non-significant correlations between *self-efficacy for learning and performance, test anxiety* and PET became significant.

When partial correlation was conducted by gender, there were no significant partial correlations between PET and motivation subscales for boys. For girls, the only significant partial correlation was between PET and *self-efficacy for learning and performance*. An inspection of zero order correlations revealed that controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores had large effects on the strength of the relationships between PET and some MSLQ subscales: *extrinsic goal orientation, task value, self-efficacy for learning and performance* and *test anxiety* became non-significant for boys. For girls, controlling for Time 1 MSLQ scores only affected the strength of the relationship between PET and *intrinsic goal orientation*, whose significant zero-order correlation became non-significant. The summaries of partial correlation with achievement measures by gender are presented in Table 27.

Table 20

Time 2 Partial Correlations for FLCAS with Student-reported TSS, and FLCAS with

PET Score for Total Sample (with Time 1 FLCAS covariate)

Student-reported TSS	*r*/*p*/df FFC	*r*/*p*/df CA	*r*/*p*/df FNE
Expectations	-.62/.00*/335	-.55/00*/336	-.67/.00/335
Relatedness	-.58/.00*/335	-.53/.00/336	-.64/.00/335
Negativity	43/.00*/335	.20/.00*/336	.33/.00*/334
Structure	-.63/.00*/335	-.55/.00*/336	-.65/.00*/334
PET	-.18/.00*/336	-.22/.00*/337	-.26/.00*/336

Note. FFC = Fear of Failing the Class; CA = Communication Apprehension; FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation; PET = Preliminary English Test.

Table 21

Time 2 Partial Correlations for FLCAS with Student-reported TSS, and FLCAS with

PET Score by School (with Time 1 FLCAS covariate)

	ISS		
Student-reported TSS	*r*/*p*/df FFC	*r*/*p*/df CA	*r*/*p*/df FNE
Expectations	-.68/.00*/155	-.68/.00*/155	-.73/.00*/155
Relatedness	-.60/.00*/155	-.60/.00*/155	-.66/.00*/155
Negativity	.40/.00*/155	.26/.00*/155	.28/.00*/155
Structure	-.67/.00*/155	-.53/.00*/155	-67./00*/155
PET	-.14/.09/155	-.33/.00*/155	-.32/.00*/155
	Non-ISS		
Expectations	-.60/.00*/175	-.52/.00*/176	-.63/.00*/175
Relatedness	-.58/.00*/175	-.47/.00*/176	-.63/.00*/175
Negativity	.44/.00*/175	.20/.01*/176	.39/.00*/175
Structure	-.63/.00*/174	-.59/.00*/175	-.66/.00*/174
PET	-.18/.02*/176	-.19/.01*/177	-.21/.00*/175

Note. FFC = Fear of Failing the Class; CA = Communication Apprehension; FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation; PET = Preliminary English Test.

Table 22

Time 2 Partial Correlations for FLCAS with Student-reported TSS, and FLCAS with PET

Score by Grade (with Time 1 FLCAS covariate)

	Year 10		
Student-reported	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df
TSS	FFC	CA	FNE
Expectations	-.59/.00*/235	-.52/.00*/235	-.64/.00*/235
Relatedness	-.55/.00*/235	-.51/.00*/235	-.62/.00*/235
Negativity	.46/.00*/235	.23/.00*/235	.33/.00*/235
Structure	-.62/.00*/235	-.54/.00*/235	-.63/00*/235
PET	-.26/.00*/236	-.27/.00*/236	-.28/.00*/236
	Year 11		
Expectations	-.65/.00*/95	-.61/.00*/96	-.71/.00*/95
Relatedness	-.65/.00*/95	-.61/.00*/96	-.69/.00*/95
Negativity	.37/.00*/95	.17/.10/96	.34/.00*/95
Structure	-.64/.00*/95	-.56/.00*/96	-.68/.00*/95
PET	.04/.68/95	.10/.32/96	-.21/.04*/95

Note. FFC = Fear of Failing the Class; CA = Communication Apprehension; FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation; PET = Preliminary English Test.

Table 23

Time 2 Partial Correlations for FLCAS with Student-reported TSS, and FLCAS with PET

Score by Gender (with Time 1 FLCAS covariate)

	Male		
Student-reported	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df
TSS	FFC	CA	FNE
Expectations	-.60/.00*/103	-.65/.00*/103	-.68/.00*/103
Relatedness	-.56/.00*/103	-.62/.00*/103	-.60/.00*/103
Negativity	.28/.00*/103	.23/.02*/103	.28/.00*/103
Structure	-.59/.00*/103	-.59/.00*/103	-.66/00*/103
PET	-.14/.15/103	-.28/.00*/103	-.26/.01*/103
	Female		
Expectations	-.63/.00*/227	-.53/.00*/228	-.63/.00*/227
Relatedness	-.60/.00*/227	-.52/.00*/228	-.66/.00*/227
Negativity	.49/.00*/227	.19/.00*/228	.35/.00*/227
Structure	-.66/.00*/227	-.56/.00*/228	-.66/.00*/227
PET	-.19/.00*/228	-.19/.00*/229	-.26/.04*/228

Note. FFC = Fear of Failing the Class; CA = Communication Apprehension; FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation; PET = Preliminary English Test.

Table 24

Time 2 Partial Correlation for MSLQ with Student-reported TSS, and MSLQ with PET Score for Total Sample (with Time 1

MSLQ covariate)

Student-reported TSS	r/p/df IGO	r/p/df EGO	r/p/df TV	r/p/df CLB	r/p/df SELP	r/p/df TA
Expectations	.24/.00*/334	.06/.28/334	.25/.00*/334	.01/.87/334	.33/.00*/334	-.53/.00*/333
Relatedness	.24/.00*/334	.07/.20/334	.30/.00*/334	.04/.45/334	.35/.00*/334	-.51/.00*/333
Negativity	-.05/.35/334	.10/.07/334	.03/.58/334	.21/.00*/334	-.12/.03*/334	.23/.00*/333
Structure	.25/.00*/334	.08/.16/.334	.26/.00*/334	.04/.43/334	.37/.00**/334	-.52/.00*/333
PET	.06/.25/336	-.10/.06/336	.08/.13/336	.00/.95/336	.14/.01/336	-21/.00*/335

Note. IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Beliefs; SELP: Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance; TA: Test Anxiety.

Table 25

Time 2 Partial Correlation for MSLQ with Student-reported TSS, and MSLQ with PET Score by School (with Time 1 MSLQ covariate)

	ISS					
Student-reported	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df
TSS	IGO	EGO	TV	CLB	SELP	TA
Expectations	.23/.00*/173	.06/.43/173	.17/.03*/173	.01/.87/173	.32/.00*/173	-.47/.00/173
Relatedness	.24/.00*/173	.07/.36/173	.22/.00*/173	.07/.36/173	.34/.00*/173	-.49/.00/173
Negativity	-.08/.28/173	.09/.24/173	.03/.70/173	.25/.00*/173	-.19/.01*/173	.21/.01*/173
Structure	.33/.00*/179	.10/.20/173	.26/.00*/173	.06/.44/173	.43/.00**/173	-.52/.00*/173
PET	.08/.30/174	-.11/.14/174	.04/.60/174	-.05/.51/174	.12/.12/174	-23/.00*/174
	Non-ISS					
Expectations	.22/.00*/153	.07/.39/153	.32/.00*/153	-.02/.84/153	.34/.00*/153	-.59/.00*/152
Relatedness	.22/.01*/153	.07/.41/153	.37/.00*/153	-.01/.90/153	.37/.00*/153	-.54/.00*/152
Negativity	-.07/.40/153	.04/.67/153	-.04/.95/153	.14/.09/153	-.09/.26/153	.30/.00*/152
Structure	.18/.03*/153	.06/.46/.153	.28/.00*/153	.03/.71/153	.33/.00**/153	-.54/.00/152
PET	.07/.39/154	-.03/.75/154	.61/.00*/180	.10/.20/154	.18/.02*/154	-.17/.04/153

Note. IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Beliefs; SELP: Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance; TA: Test Anxiety.

Table 26

Time 2 Partial Correlation for MSLQ with Student-reported TSS, and MSLQ with PET Score by Grade (with Time 1 MSLQ covariate)

			ISS			
Student-	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df	*r*/*p*/df
reported TSS	IGO	EGO	TV	CLB	SELP	TA
Expectations	.24/.00*/233	.10/.14/233	.26/.00*/233	.06/.32/233	.30/.00*/233	-.48/.00*/232
Relatedness	.26/.00*/233	.13/.04*/233	.35/.01*/233	.11/.09/233	.34/.00*/233	-.46/.00*/232
Negativity	-.10/.11/233	.04/.54/233	-.00/.98/233	.17/.01*/233	-.15/.02/233	.26/.00*/232
Structure	.26/.00*/233	-.10/.11/233	.28/.00*/233	-.10/.13/233	.37/.00**/233	-.48/.00*/232
PET	.12/.07/235	-.10/.11/235	.10/.13/235	-.03/.65/235	.20/.00*/235	-23/.00*/234
			Non-ISS			
Expectations	.19/.07/93	.04/.60/93	.20/.05*/93	-.15/.14/93	-.39/.00*/93	-.63/.00*/93
Relatedness	.16/.13/93	.04/.51/93	.17/.10*/93	-.15/.15/93	-.41/.00*/93	-.62/.00*/93
Negativity	-.08/.46/93	.27/.01*/93	.27/.01*/93	.32/.00*/93	-.08/.47/93	.20/.00*/93
Structure	.20/.05*/93	.01 /.94/93	.01/.94/93	-.12/.23/93	.37/.00*/93	-.59/.00*/93
PET	-.13/.22/93	-.09/.37/93	-.09/.37/93	-.11/.31/93	.01/.89/93	-.11/.30/93

Note. IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Beliefs; SELP: Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance; TA: Test Anxiety

Table 27

Time 2 Partial Correlation for MSLQ with Student-reported TSS, and MSLQ with PET Score by Gender (with T1 MSLQ covariate)

			ISS			
Student-reported TSS	*r*/*p*/df IGO	*r*/*p*/df EGO	*r*/*p*/df TV	*r*/*p*/df CLB	*r*/*p*/df SELP	*r*/*p*/df TA
Expectations	.15/.15/100	.12/.23/100	.17/.09/100	23/.02/100	. 37/.00*/100	-.52/.00*/100
Relatedness	.17/.08/100	.15/.13/100	.25/.01*/100	-.07/.45/100	.41/.00*/100	-.45/.00*/100
Negativity	-.03/.77/100	.08/.44/100	.03/.75/100	.24/.02*/100	-.09/.36/.100	.23/.02*/100
Structure	.09/.37/100	.18/.07/100	.26/.01*/100	.01/.94/100	.34/.00*/100	-.43/.00*/100
PET	.04/.67/100	-.10/.34/100	.18/.07/100	.02/.81/100	.16/.10/100	-.16/.11/100
			Non-ISS			
Expectations	.25/.00*/226	.04/.60/226	.27/.00*/226	.04/.55/226	.31/.00*/226	-.54/.00*/225
Relatedness	.25/.00*/226	.04/.51/226	.31/.00*/226	05/.45/226	34/.00*/226	-.54/.00*/225
Negativity	-.06/.34/226	.11/.11/226	.03/.62/226	.21/.00*/226	-.13/.04*/226	.25/.00*/225
Structure	.30/.00*/226	03/.64/226	.26/.00*/226	.05/.42/226	.38/.00*/226	-.56/.00*/225
PET	.08/.21/228	-.10/.13/228	.05/.45/228	.01/.94/228	.14/.03*/228	-.23/.00/227

Note. IGO: Intrinsic Goal Orientation; EGO: Extrinsic Goal Orientation; TV: Task Value; CLB: Control of Learning Beliefs; SELP: Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance; TA: Test Anxiety.

4.7 Research Question 4: How Do Students' and Teachers' Perceptions Compare by Teacher?

The answer to research question four provides a direct comparison between students' and teachers' perceptions on aspects of teachers' classroom behaviour. In comparing students' and teachers' responses per classroom, one sample *t*-tests were used, with each individual teacher's factor score serving as the constant against which their respective students' responses were compared. Table 28 showed the mean difference between individual teachers' responses to each TSS factor and their students', per construct in the student-reported TSS. A negative value shows that students rated the classroom environment less positively than their teacher, whereas a positive value indicates the reverse.

Generally, there were significant differences between teachers and students with respect to their perceptions of the four constructs of student-reported TSS. Among 14 classes, only one class showed no significant differences between teacher and students perceptions (class no.9). As seen in Table 28, some of the constructs resulted in a negative perception on the part of an overwhelming majority of the students. Seven out of 14 classes shared a similar trend, showing teachers to rate themselves more positively than their students in terms of *positive expectations*, *relatedness* and *structure*; concordantly, students in those classes perceived the teachers less negatively than did their teachers. In only two out of 14 classes did students rate *negativity* higher than their teachers. The same teacher taught these two classes. Thus, students generally perceived their teachers to be less negative than the

teachers perceived themselves to be. The only other construct which students

perceived to be more positive than did the teachers was *structure*, and only in two

classes.

Table 28

One Sample t-tests of Class Mean with Teacher Style Scale

Class No./Teacher	Class n	Teacher Style Variable	Mean difference	t	df	p
1/A	24	Expectations	-1.59	-5. 93	27	.00**
		Relatedness	-1.37	-4.47	27	.00**
		Negativity	1.59	10.57	27	.00**
		Structure	-2.43	-8.10	27	.00**
2/A	23	Expectations	-2.07	-7.17	29	.00**
		Relatedness	-1.49	-5.09	29	.00**
		Negativity	1.46	7.36	29	.00**
		Structure	-2.32	-7.76	29	.00**
3/B	25	Expectations	-1.83	-5.97	28	.00**
		Relatedness	-8.52	-2.79	28	.00**
		Negativity	.25	1.51	28	.14
		Structure	.61	1.95	28	.06
4/D	24	Expectations	-1.92	-5.93	20	.00**
		Relatedness	-.81	-2.35	20	.03**
		Negativity	.94	4.29	20	.00**
		Structure	.77	2.45	20	.02**
5/C	25	Expectations	-1.49	-4.79	24	.00**
		Relatedness	-1.23	-4.17	24	.00**
		Negativity	-.90	-4.67	24	.00**
		Structure	-1.00	-2.72	24	0.13**
6/E	20	Expectations	-1.39	-4.43	27	.00**
		Relatedness	-.96	-3.22	27	.00**
		Negativity	0.63	3.00	27	.77
		Structure	-1.44	-4.92	27	.00**
7/E	22	Expectations	-1.98	-4.68	15	.00**
		Relatedness	-1.29	-4.07	15	.00**
		Negativity	.39	1.09	15	.29
		Structure	-2.06	-4.95	15	.00**

8/F	24	Expectations	-.72	-.22	27	.03
		Relatedness	-1.06	-6.33	27	.00**
		Negativity	-1.02	-1.03	27	.00**
		Structure	.52	1.50	27	.14
9/F	25	Expectations	-.66	-1.35	11	.20
		Relatedness	-.76	-1.70	11	-.11
		Negativity	-.41	-1.15	11	.28
		Structure	.97	2.07	11	.06
10/B	22	Expectations	-2.35	-8.89	30	.00**
		Relatedness	-2.35	-8.53	30	.00**
		Negativity	1.72	8.76	30	.00**
		Structure	-1.83	-6.88	30	.00**
11/C	24	Expectations	1.10	2.84	20	.01**
		Relatedness	2.24	6.33	20	.00**
		Negativity	-.47	-2.06	20	.05**
		Structure	1.16	2.93	20	.00**
12/H	24	Expectations	.68	2.65	28	.01**
		Relatedness	1.61	7.31	28	.00**
		Negativity	1.15	4.46	28	.00**
		Structure	1.04	3.68	28	.00**
13/G	26	Expectations	-.88	-2.85	24	.00**
		Relatedness	-1.33	-4.83	24	.00**
		Negativity	.33	1.42	24	.00**
		Structure	-3.60	-11.41	24	.00**
14/G	24	Expectations	-.37	-1.03	19	.32
		Relatedness	-1.17	-3.56	19	.00**
		Negativity	.04	.12	19	.90
		Structure	-1.00	-2.73	19	.01

Note. **$p < .05$.

These quantitative data indicated that students' achievement, foreign language anxiety and their motivation were influenced by teachers' classroom behaviour. The portrait of how the teachers behaved in the classroom and how the students felt about these behaviours will be explored in Chapter 5 describing the results of the qualitative phase of the data.

Chapter 5

Results: Qualitative Phase

5.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the findings obtained from interviews conducted with a selection of students, together with observations of each teacher in their classrooms. The first section depicts the findings derived from the interviews with 16 students. These students were from each of four groups which exhibited, over a ten week period,: i) the highest increase in anxiety level (IFLA); ii) the greatest decrease in anxiety level (DFLA); iii) the highest increase in motivation (IM); and iv) a significant decline in motivation (DM). Each group consisted of four students. The second section describes the results from the classroom observations, which were conducted in 14 classes, taught by eight teachers, four from International Standard School (ISS) and four from non- International Standard School (non-ISS). Each class was observed on one occasion for 90 minutes. The presentation of the classroom observation results are organised by teacher, followed by an analysis of the similarities and differences among the teachers in their classroom behaviours and a brief summary relating the results from the interviews and classroom observations.

5.2 Student Interviews

The purposes of the student interviews were:

a) to better understand foreign language anxiety experienced by individual students and their motivation for learning English, as well as to examine how students perceived these factors were influenced by their teacher's classroom behaviours.

b) to elicit other possible factors which may affect students' foreign language anxiety and motivation to learn English.

The interview used a semi-structured protocol (see Appendix H). This type of interview is considered more appropriate because the participants were young learners. A semi-structured protocol provides assistance in triggering and expressing their perceptions or thoughts. Semi-structured interviews offer the researcher the opportunity to prepare the questions in advance, participants experience freedom to express their thoughts and feelings and the process allows for topical trajectories during the interview that may stray from the protocol when necessary (Cohen et al. 2001).

The one-on-one interviews lasted between 25 and 35 minutes and were conducted in the school library at a time convenient to the participants. Before the interview, the researcher informed each participant that the interviews would be audio-recorded; no participants indicated any objection to this procedure. For each

interview, the researcher began with casual conversation to establish rapport with the participants and although, at first, some students seemed reluctant to speak, the researcher was able to assure them about the confidentiality of the interviews and they became relaxed and willing to share their experiences of their English class. The digital recorder did not appear to inhibit participants' responses; all names used in this study are pseudonyms.

These students selected for the interviews had all previously given their consent. The interview focused on students' perceptions, feelings and thoughts about their classroom environments and how they may influence the dynamics of their foreign language anxiety and motivation. To capture these factors, the researcher prepared a different interview guide for each group (see Appendix H). The interview was conducted in Bahasa Indonesia then transcribed to facilitate analysis. The transcriptions were then carefully translated into English by the researcher so as to allow for presentation in the thesis in an Australian English-speaking context. The following are the results of the interviews.

5.3. Students' Foreign Language Anxiety Experience at Time 1

The purpose of the interviews with the students from both anxiety groups, Increase in Foreign Language Anxiety (IFLA) and Decrease in Foreign Language Anxiety (DFLA) at T1 was a restropective description of their memory of their experiences at the beginning of the semester. In line with the quantitative findings, students described that they had experienced foreign language anxiety at the start of

the semester. Three anxiety-generating factors, which included unfamiliarity with a new learning environment, moving to a higher level of education (from junior to senior secondary college) and being a student of the prestigious ISS, were revealed. Students made oblique references to two dimensions of the FLCAS, i.e. *fear of negative evaluation* and *fear of failing the class*. The following interview segments illustrate students' *fear of negative evaluation*, stemming mostly from their classmates:

> At the first day of the English class, I felt a bit anxious because I was not familiar with my classmates and my teacher. English class was scheduled for the first day of the semester, so everything is new to me, my classmates, my teachers, the school environment, and I have no friends from my previous school in my class**. I did not know what type of English teacher I am going to have. You know…some teachers get angry quite easily, some tend to speak English all the time and I was worried that I could not understand**. And also, **I did not know what type of classmates I am going to have. They probably make fun of me if I say an English word incorrectly, or…if I don't know the correct answer to the questions**. So yeah [pause] everything is new and I am worried about it. (Interview no.1 Rahmad, Year 10, Non-ISS, 15 October 2012)

These comments resonate with the responses to item 31 on the FLCAS, "I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English". A total of 40.5 % endorsed this statement with 34 % agreeing with this item and 6.5 % strongly agreed. These comments strongly emphasise that *fear of negative evaluation*, especially from classmates, was a major factor in students' language anxiety at Time 1.

It was quite surprising that, despite being proud and happy about gaining entry to ISS, being a student of this international standard school also provoked considerable level of anxiety for some students. This was mainly because they know that they were expected to be good at English since one of the distinguishing features

of ISS is English is the medium of instruction for certain subjects. Although they were successful in passing the English entrance test, students who were not very confident about their English ability felt anxious about this. It seemed that the feeling was not only experienced by the students at the entry level of the school but it continued throughout the school grades as described by Yanti and Oki, Year 10 and Year 11 students from ISS.

> As an ISS student I am worried that the English teacher expects us to be fluent in English or at least better than those at non-ISS. You know, to gain entry to this school was really difficult. We have to pass an interview test in English and other kinds of test such as maths and science. Some of the subjects are also taught in English, so [pause] yeah I think the English teachers here expect me to be fluent in English, but [pause] I don't think I am very good at English. **Because students here are highly selected ones, I am worried that many students have better English. For reading and grammar, well maybe I am okay, but not in speaking. So, [pause] this makes me feel worried.** (Interview no 2, Yanti, Year 10, ISS, 15 October 2012)

Yanti's remark was in line with item 7 of the FLCAS "I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am" which was endorsed by 42% of ISS students (27% agree and 15% strongly agree with the statement) indicating that many students from ISS shared the same experience.

Similarly, Oki, from Year 11 underscored the point that the type of school they are in contributed significantly to feelings of anxiety at T1. For Oki, this feeling originated from his learning experience in the previous year and continued into the beginning of the second year in the school.

> This is the beginning of my second year at this school. I still remember that I felt nervous and anxious, similar to what I felt previously at my first year in this school because,… you know,… **the teacher told us that we have to be better than the first year students, we have to show the quality of ISS school and**

of course after studying for one year this quality should be reflected in your performance. Many people or parents believe that the quality of an ISS student is reflected through his/her English performance,…and I completely agree with that. And you know what… It is just easy for people to know whether or not you are good at English. If, for example people want to know whether you are good at Math or not, you need to sit a Math test. But for English?.... They simply ask you a question in English,… then if you go … mmmmm, mbbbhh, or remain silent, people already know that you do not have a good proficiency in English. So,… yeah , it is okay if students from other schools beat you in other subjects such Math, Chemistry or others, but not in English. That's what I thought.

When probed why he felt so anxious in the class, Oki added:

And what makes me worried the most is that, **the lesson moves soooo fast… probably because the teacher knows that ISS students are all good at English,… she just quickly moves, although actually I did not really understand the lesson**. So …because I am not really good at English, this makes me nervous and anxious. (Interview no 3, Oki, Year 11 ISS, 15 October 2012).

This remark echoes responses to item 25 in the FLACS, "English class moved so quickly I worry about being left behind"; 69 % of the ISS student endorsed this statement either strongly agreeing (20%) or agreeing (49%), indicating that over half of ISS students felt anxious due to the fast movement of the lesson.

Dina, a grade 10 student from a non-ISS, felt that being a new student at a new education level caused anxiety for her at the beginning of the semester. It is a requirement of the Indonesian education system that students complete three years of junior secondary school then continue on to the senior secondary level at a different school. Dina voiced similar concerns to those reflected in the following comments:

I felt nervous because I am now a senior secondary student. My brother told me that at this level, I am expected to be more independent. Especially in English,

I felt that I was not quite ready because **I think my English was not as good as my friends'**. It was really hard for me to understand the study material with the guide of my tutor, let alone to study it independently. I understand that I am now in a higher education level and need to study harder but I still cannot imagine how to study English independently at this senior secondary school. So what I am mostly worried is about the changes involved by moving from junior to senior secondary school. (Interview no 4, Dina, Year 10, Non-ISS, 15 October 2012 – emphasis added).

These remarks echo the wording of item 23 in the FLCAS, "I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do" from the subscale of *fear of failing the class*. More than half of the participants endorsed this item with 14 % strongly agreeing and 37 % agreeing with the statement. It is interesting to note that the majority of those who endorsed this statement were from ISS, suggesting that being in very competitive environment, such as that found in the ISS, can and does provoke considerable anxiety for the students.

Overall, the results of the interviews support the findings from the quantitative data, which showed that students experienced moderate levels of anxiety at T1. Most students, both from IFLA and DFLA groups indicated they experienced two types of anxiety, *fear of negative evaluation* and *fear of failing the class*. Although these dimensions of anxiety were not explicitly mentioned by the students in these terms, they did point to other factors, such as a new school environment, the status of being an ISS student and also being a student at a higher educational level, as triggering anxiety.

Remarkably, at T1 students did not worry too much about the teacher's classroom behaviour as an anxiety-generating factor. Only one out of eight students in

both the IFLA and DFLA groups expressed concern that the teacher's behaviours created feelings of negativity that provoked anxiety at T1:

> I did not know what type of English teacher I am going to have. **You know,… some teachers get angry quite easily, some tend to speak English all the time and I was worried that I could not understand. Thinking of these made me really anxious, teacher's negative comments would surely embarrass me and in this situation,** if the teacher speaks in English only, it becomes harder for me to get what she means. (Interview no. 5 Rahmad, Year 10, non-ISS, 16 October 2012)

5.4 The Dynamics of Students' Language Anxiety Over a 10-week Period

Students from IFLA and DFLA groups reported different experiences during the 10 week period. Unlike the results of T1 interviews, in which students were mostly worried and anxious about their new school environment and status, at T2 students reported that their feelings of anxiety were affected mostly by what they experienced during the instructional semester. These include teachers' classroom behaviour, students' belief about the language (English) and students' belief about English language and the teaching materials. It is noteworthy that teachers' classroom behaviour appeared to be the most prominent factor to affect students' level of anxiety. Three out of four dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviour, i.e., *negativity, relatedness* and *structure,* affected students' level of anxiety either negatively or positively. This confirms that teachers play a key role in students' learning experience. The following section discusses how each factor contributed to the increase or decrease in students' levels of anxiety

5.4.1. Negativity.

As anticipated, this dimension affected students' level of anxiety negatively. In other words, students experienced an increase in their anxiety level due to their teachers' negative comments. For instance, Rahmad from the IFLA group described his embarrassment and humiliation, which originated from the first week of his English class and intruded into his current study. He stated:

> I remembered the day I was asked by the teacher to answer a question following a reading text. I did not fully concentrate at that time and I did not know which question she asked me to answer. As I was not brave enough to ask the teacher, I asked my friend beside me. She was also not sure, so it took a little while before I said anything. The teacher was not patient then asked me to stand in front of the class. At first, I guessed she will tell me which question or at least gave me the clue. **To my surprise, she made me feel stupid in front of others by telling the whole class that I did not pay attention and therefore could not answer just a very simple question. Can you imagine, everybody stared at me and … and…. her negative comments really made me not only anxious but also down**. I feel like I was the most stupid person in the world. Since then, I always feel that the same thing is going to happen again to me during the class, or it might be even worse than that… I feel highly anxious when I have to come to my English class. (Interview no. 6, Rahmad, Year 10, Non-ISS, 16 October 2012)

These comments reveal the teachers' classroom behaviours that negatively impacted on Rahmad's valuing of the task and disrupted his attention. His remarks are consistent with item 18 "the teacher might react negatively toward your mistake" and item 11 "feedback you get from the teacher is sometimes too negative" in the *negativity* subscale of student-reported TSS. These two items were endorsed by 70% and 62.8% of the participants respectively by rating them above 4 on a 7–point scale suggesting that these negative experiences were shared by many students.

Another student, Oki, reported similar experiences:

> The class was noisy, you know,[pause], I guessed the teacher could not gain respect from my class. Every time we study English, the class was always

noisy. It was really a boring class. The teacher read the text loudly to the whole class, but instead of listening to her, the class kept doing something else. With the exception of students in the front row, most students talked to each other, so it was hard to listen to what the teacher said. I had no idea what was going on because of the noise, then suddenly the teacher called my name out angrily and asked me to answer a question from the reading text. I was panicked,[pause] and the class started to be a little bit quiet but everyone stared at me. I did not know what to say, [pause] I can feel my heart beat faster, I went blank, Can you feel how terrible it was? Then the teacher like,… wrote something under my name on the list she held on her hands. Later my friend told me that the teacher may put a mark on my name, probably to remind her that I did not behave well and was unable to answer. **I hate this,… Since then,… I always feel anxious in the English class, I am afraid the teacher will ask me a question again, on the spot and …. I was worried that I could not answer it**. (Interview no.7 Oki, Year 11, ISS, 16 October 2012)

These concerns relate to item 15 on the *negativity* subscale, "to what extent do you feel that the teacher yell angrily at the students who misbehaves". Item 15 was endorsed by 52.7% of the participants with ratings above 4 on a 7 point scale.

Strong endorsement of items in the *negativity* subscale suggests that teachers' negative classroom behaviours and comments were strongly related to students' anxiety. Negative comments from the teacher lead students to *fear of negative evaluation*, especially by their classmates. Oki elaborated that this type of anxiety was more dominant than *fear of failing the class*:

It was embarrassing if your friends know that you cannot understand or answer a question, which is just easy for them. So if the teacher asked me a question, and she wants me to answer it on the spot which unfortunately I could not, [pause] It's just like,[pause] mmmm [pause] telling the whole class that I am dumb [pause]. You don't want to be labelled as a dumb person, do you? **I don't care if I did not get a very good mark on my report,[pause] my parents would not be angry. My friends would not see my report, so they won't know.** But [pause] if every time the teacher asked you a question and you cannot answer it, then your friends know how stupid you are. That's why I don't like the teacher's way, I mean [pause] asking questions and

wanting students to answer it on the spot. **I don't want to lose face in front of my friends** (Interview no 8 Oki, Year 11 ISS, 16 October 2012)

In contrast to the teacher's negative comments that increased students' anxiety, the teacher's gentle correction of students' errors and the absence of negative comments during the class were associated with the decrease in students' anxiety. As cited by Arvi, his teacher's way of correcting students' mistakes not only made him less anxious but also encouraged him to take every opportunity to participate actively in classroom activities. As he observed:

> When I studied English in junior secondary school, I always felt that my heart beat faster every time I was asked to perform the task. I was worried that my teacher would comment negatively or harshly corrected my answer if I make a mistake. I felt the same on the first day of my English class here because I thought it would not be much different. But after several meetings, **I noticed that my English teacher always corrected students' mistake gently and she never made us feel embarrassed because of our mistake.** Since then I felt more confident and never feel afraid of making mistakes. That way I always participate actively because I am sure that I would never receive negative comments. (Interview no. 9 Arvi, Year 10 ISS, 16 Oct 2012).

Similarly, Tina explained that her anxiety declined when a positive learning atmosphere was created by the teacher who avoided giving negative feedback to the students. Tina said:

> In this class, the teacher never asks us to perform or answer questions without preparation. If she wants us to perform orally like giving a short speech or retelling a story in our own words, she always gives us enough time to prepare either in class, or even days or weeks. She gave clear instructions, so [pause] you know, if everything is clear, you don't have anything to worry about. All you need to do is prepare yourself to meet the teacher expectation. **More importantly, after our presentations or our answer, the teacher always provides us with constructive feedback, not commenting negatively on our errors.** (Interview no.10, Tina, Year 11, non-ISS, 16 October 2012).

Arvi's and Tina's remarks referred to the teacher's positive behaviour which contrasts with item 18 "the teacher might react negatively toward your mistakes? ". However, not many students had similar experiences to Arvi and Tina. The majority of the participants (62,8%) endorsed item 18, indicating that most of the students' felt that their teacher commented negatively on their mistakes.

5.4.2 Structure.

This dimension is concerned with an explicit set of rules from the teacher in order that the students know exactly what they have to follow and what the consequences are if they do not follow these rules. Lack of clear rules, especially those related to the task the students need to perform in class, resulted in an increase in the level of students' anxiety. As seen in the following comment from Yanti, a non-ISS student, who mentioned she felt more anxious after learning English for several weeks, there was an oblique criticism of her teacher's classroom behaviour with regard to this dimension.

> I don't understand why sometimes **the teacher does not stick to what she previously said and keeps changing the rules of the class. At the beginning of the lesson she asked us to read a text, only read it and find the difficult words. But then, after several minutes,**[pause] **she asked me to answer the question no.1**. I did not prepare,[pause] I did not even have time to look at the questions. I felt anxious because she called out my name several times as I still did not say anything. If she was clear from the beginning that we were expected to answer the questions orally, then I would prepare myself. Usually [pause] she asked us to write the answer of questions of a reading text in our exercise book [pause] But that day she changed. (Interview no. 11, Yanti, Year 10, ISS, 16 October 2012).

When probed about her feelings and perceptions of her teacher's classroom behaviours she added:

> **Well, I perceived the teacher as unpredictable**. I mean, [pause] she did not always stick to the rules she has said, although sometimes she did. And that made me anxious, and even more anxious from week to week. As I told you, I am not very good at English, but I did not want to appear as a foolish person in front of my friends. That's why I always try to prepare for the class. **But with her unpredictability, my preparation is useless and I always feel nervous** in case I cannot answer her questions or do well in class. (Interview no. 12, Yanti, Year 10, ISS, 16 October 2012).

Yanti described the unpredictable situations she experienced during the class. This unclear structuring of the class increased her feelings of anxiety. Yanti's views and experiences were consistent with those of other participants. Less than half of the participants (39.2%) endorsed item 9 in the TSS scale, "the teacher has a set of class rules to follow" suggesting that the majority of participants agreed with Yanti about the lack of structure and the impact this had on their learning.

5.4.3. Relatedness.

The interviews with students from the DFLA group revealed that these students felt anxious at the beginning of the semester, with the sources of anxiety similar to those mentioned by the students from the IFLA group. After 10 weeks, their anxiety had reduced as a result of the enjoyable learning atmosphere created by their teacher and most of the students cited the teachers' positive classroom behaviours as an important factor in helping to decrease their anxiety. Students' comments

reflected the teachers' positive behaviours in terms of *relatedness*.   This was

illustrated by two ISS students, Reni (Year 10) and Iwan, (Year 11). Reni observed:

> I never thought that learning English would be enjoyable. When I was in
> junior high school, I did not like English this much. I always felt that I would
> never be successful in this subject. But, now I started to like it. **Although I
> still feel a bit anxious but [pause], not as much as I first started at this
> school. I feel more relaxed during the English class now**. (Interview no. 13,
> Reni, Year 10, ISS, 17 October 2012).

When probed about what made her like English class, Reni added:

> **I like my classmates and my English teacher. They never discouraged me
> although I made mistakes**. (Interview no. 13. Reni, Year 10, ISS, 17 October
> 2012).

They were equivalent to item 2 "In this class, to what extent do you feel that you

enjoy interacting with your teacher? This item was endorsed by 58.1% of the

participants indicating that over half of the students perceived themselves to have a

good relationship with their teachers.

Reni went on to say:

> It was very different from the class when I was still at junior high school**.
> Before, when someone made mistake, people laugh at him, made fun of
> him even after class. But in this class, my teacher told us not to do that.**
> She said making fun of each other's mistakes prevents us from being
> successful learners. And it seems my classmates agree with that. They were all
> good, they were eager to learn. So in every activity they participated actively.
> (Interview no. 14, Reni, Year 10, ISS, 17 October 2012).

Reni's remarks mirror item 22 in the *relatedness* subscale in the student-

reported TSS "to what extent do you feel that the teacher considers your feelings?"

This item was not strongly endorsed by the majority of the students. Slightly less than

a third of the participants (30.7%) rated this item above 5, which suggests that the

majority of the students perceived that the teacher did not take their feelings into

account during the teaching and learning process. In line with this, over half of the participants (53%) endorsed item 23 "some students are treated better than others" implying that the majority of the participants felt that they were not treated equitably. Although the majority of the participants felt they had no problems with teacher-student interaction, the fact that they did not endorse item 22 and 23 indicates that they did feel unfairly treated by the teacher.

Iwan voiced the same view as Reni by describing that he felt comfortable in his English class because of the type of activities (in group or in pairs) used by the teacher during the ten-week period. He said:

> At the beginning of the semester, I never felt relaxed during the English class because I was worried that I could not answer the teacher's question or do well in class. But after learning for two or three weeks, **I started to be familiar with my teacher's style of teaching. It seems that she prefers us to do the task in groups or at least in pairs so we could support each other.** And the way she divided us into groups I think was very fair. She asked us to count from one to four; everyone with the same number belongs to the same group. So nobody had the opportunity to choose their group member. And more importantly, the teacher always gives us time to prepare before we are asked to present our task. So yeah, I always feel that I am ready for every task and never worried about not being able to perform well. (Interview no. 15, Iwan, Year 11, ISS, 17 October 2012).

5.4.4 Other factors affecting students' level of anxiety.

In addition to the three dimensions of teachers' behaviour, the interviews also revealed two further factors that positively and negatively affected the students' level of anxiety- students' belief about the language and the teaching materials used in class.

While the first factor contributed more to the increase in students' anxiety, the latter decreased these feelings.

5.4.4.1 Students' belief about the English language.

Students' beliefs about two aspects of the English language, namely grammar accuracy and pronunciation, emerged in the interview as anxiety-generating factors, especially in speaking activities. These can be detected in the following comment:

> The more I learn English grammar, the more anxious I am when I have to speak in English in the classroom. It has sooo many rules and they are very different from our language, Indonesian. **I really think that when we speak the language, the grammar should be correct. It is embarrassing to speak if your grammar is wrong. Because it may sounds funny, people may laugh at you, or think that you not really educated because you speak broken English**. So when the teacher asks me to speak, before I utter any sentence, I think about the rules of grammar first, whether it is right or wrong. **It makes me really anxious during speaking activities**. Although **I know my teacher or my friends understand that I am still learning and it is okay to make mistakes, I do feel worried about speaking using incorrect grammar**. (Interview no. 16, Ida, Year 10, non-ISS, 17 October, 2012).

Ida's concern above reflects her anxiety aroused mainly due to her belief in the importance of using correct grammar. Other factors, such as friends and teacher's negative evaluation were not of as much concern, as she made clear.

Yanti had different beliefs about the aspect of the language that increased her anxiety. According to her, the pronunciation should be correct and should be like a native speaker. Because it is very difficult for her to have correct pronunciation, she was always nervous when she had to speak as reflected in her comments below:

> English is so difficult, especially when you have to speak it. Well, Reading, Writing, and Listening are fine, **but speaking is really difficult for me and makes me nervous. Every word in English is pronounced differently from**

how it is written. And not just that, when you say a word in a language, you should say it like the native speaker of the language says it. Otherwise you will be misunderstood. And the more I learn the language, I feel like it gets more difficult and it makes me more anxious when I speak it (Interview no. 17, Yanti, Year, 10, ISS, 18 October 2012).

5.4.4.2 Teaching materials.

It is interesting that the teaching materials used in the schools participated in the present study were cited as a potential source of reducing feelings of anxiety due to the lower level of difficult. As Arvi observed:

> I was anxious at the beginning of the semester. I thought the lesson will be more difficult as now I am at higher level of education and also in an International Standard School. I expect to have a very academic reading, maybe like IELTS test materials. But then, I found that the texts were fairy tales. The vocabularies were easy. **If the text was easy, of course the exercise following the text was also easy. I could get 100% correct**. Since then I never feel anxious about English class. (Interview 18, Arvi, Year 10, ISS, 18 October 2012).

5.5 Manifestation of Students' Anxiety

The last part of the interview asked about the manifestation of students' anxiety. Students cited different reactions when anxious, ranging from an increase heartbeat, sweating, shaking, and going blank, to an inability to sleep before their English class. For example, one highly anxious student, Rahmad, reported:

> Well, I was highly anxious before and during the English class. I don't know why [pause] but I felt sometimes **I could not sleep well the night before the English class.** Not always though [pause] but sometimes [pause] especially if I know that in the class the teacher will ask us to perform or there will be a test. **I always imagine something bad will happen, like my experience in the earlier week**. During the test, I always feel nervous. I always think that my friends will do better than me, or I will get a very bad grade. (Interview no. 19, Rahmad, Year 10, Non-ISS, 16 October 2012)

When asked whether he also experienced the same thing with other subjects, he replied:

> **No, [pause] I am fine with other subjects. It is probably because in other subjects you do not have to speak**. We just write the answer on the book, so no one knows whether you are right or wrong except the teacher. Well, in some lesson we have a class or a group discussion but they are all in our language, in Bahasa Indonesia [pause] but in English class, I must talk in English. I could not avoid this class because it is a compulsory subject [pause]. If only I could drop it. (Interview no. 20, Rahmad, Year 10, Non-ISS, 16 October 2012)

Rahmad's remarks above clearly indicate how different the students felt when learning a foreign language and learning other subjects. This is because language is considered a part of learners' identity and learning a language involves an adjustment of self-image. It involves not only learning the system and rules of the language, such as grammar, but also incorporates social and cultural aspects of the target language and, therefore, impacts the social nature of the students. It was understandable students felt more anxious when learning a language compared to learn other subject.

The following three examples illustrate students' experience when they felt anxious in the class. Their statements clearly showed how anxiety negatively influenced their performance. They admitted that they went blank and could not think properly.

> I felt my heart beat faster and my palms sweat when I thought the teacher would call my name to answer a question. And when the time comes [pause] when it is my turn, **I went blank and could not say anything. It was really hard for me.** (Interview no. 21, Oki, Year 11 ISS, 16 October 2012)

> Whenever I feel nervous, I just cannot find a word to say. Even though the teacher gives me a clue, I sometimes cannot comprehend it, [pause] so **I just remain silent, all I could do is just take a deep breath to calm down**. (Interview no. 22, Yanti, Year 10, ISS, 16 October 2012)

Panic [pause] of course, If I have to write, especially in the whiteboard, I feel very panicky and nervous. My hands trembled, I often misspelled the words I wrote on the whiteboard, **even a very simple word like 'school'. You know, if I am not anxious or nervous, I could write it correctly** (Interview no. 23, Ida , Year 10, Non-ISS, 15 October 2012).

The quotes are examples of the manifestation of students' anxiety, ranging from panic and trembling hands (interview no.23) to restlessness and inability sleep the night before the class and the desire to drop English as a subject (interview no.19). The worst manifestation of anxiety was reported by Rahmad, who was avoidant and wanted to stop taking the subject which, in his situation, was impossible because English is a compulsory subject. Being in this situation for an extended period of time may cause not only deterioration of a student's performance but also result in a loss of self-confidence.

5.6 Interviews with the Students from IM and DM Groups

This section presents the findings from the interview with the group of students who showed the highest increase (IM) and the highest decrease (DM) in motivation over the 10 week period. The questions focused on three dimensions: i) what motivated students to study English; ii) how did the teacher's classroom behaviours affect their motivation to learn English; and iii) what other factors may affect their motivation to study English.

5.6.1 Factors that motivate students to learn English at Time 1.

Students from both IM and DM groups were asked what motivated them to learn English. The results from the interviews were congruent with the quantitative findings, which showed that students scored the highest on the *extrinsic goal orientation* subscale, followed by *task-value*. The majority of the students in the interviews cited that they were mostly motivated to achieve a good grade on their school report so as to please their parents and to maintain pride in being a student at an ISS, a high status school. Weni, a student who showed the highest increase in motivation over the 10 weeks, put it this way:

> Well, **to me having a good grade in English is really important.** That's why I study hard. Since I was in junior secondary school, I've never got bad marks for English. My parents are very happy with that. I also understand that at this level, the lesson is becoming more difficult. So to keep getting a good mark in this subject, I also take an English course outside school. (Interview no. 24 Weni, Year 10, non-ISS students, 18 October 2012).

Weni's remarks align with three items from the *extrinsic goal orientation* subscale of the MSLQ. For instance, Item 7, "Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now", item 11, "The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade', and item 13, "If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most other students". These three items were endorsed by the majority of the participants with 93.9%, 90.4%, and 95.6% respectively.

Another student added that she devoted a significant amount of time to studying English and tried to use every occasion to learn more and practise the language. This student seemed to have self-motivating strategies by indulging in

enjoyable L2 activities such as listening to English songs and communicating with

English native speakers through Facebook.

> I really wanted to have a good mastery of English, and I know that it is not easy and it takes time. **Therefore I am trying to use different strategies that I find interesting and make me use English, such as listening to English songs, and communicating with my friends on Facebook.** I have several contacts who are native speakers of English and live in English-speaking countries. (Interview no. 25, Wulan, Year 10 non ISS student, October 17)

Another motivating factor cited by the students was 'to please the parents',

which was included in the extrinsic goal orientation subscale, as indicated by Indra,

a Year 10 student from a non-ISS. He observed:

> **To me, it is important to get a good grade because I want to make my parents happy**. I have a cousin, she is really good at English, and now she gets a scholarship to do her doctorate overseas, in Australia. My parents often said to me to be like her. They always said that if I want to be successful in my future, I have to be good at English. (Interview no. 26, Indra, Year 10, non-ISS students).

Indra's remarks were congruent with item 30 "I want to do well in this class because

it is important to show my ability to my family, friends and employer". Most of the

participants of the study seemed to have similar motivation to Indra as the majority

of the participants (86.9%) rated this item above 5 on a 1-7 scale.

A year 11 student from the ISS, Wati, cited a different reason but still showed

that her motivation to study English was related to an *extrinsic goal orientation*:

> I know that it was not easy to gain entry to this school. We have to pass a series of tests including an interview in English. People know that if we are accepted in this school, it means that we must be good at English. **The pride of being an ISS student as someone with good English keeps me motivated in learning English.** (Interview no. 27, Wati, Year 11, ISS, 18 October 2012).

Two out of the eight students showed *task-value* motivation by citing that English is important for their future life. These students referred to extrinsic factors, such as the utility value of English. This was voiced by Wulan, a year 10 non-ISS student, who put it this way:

> **I do think that English is really important, because it opens doors to many opportunities in the world**. If you don't want to be left behind, you should master English. As you can see, many good jobs or positions in multinational companies require their employees to be fluent in English, oral and written. I want to learn this subject very seriously so I can be fluent and I hope it is easy for me to get a good job in the future. (Interview no.28, Wulan, Year 10, non-ISS, 18 October 2012).

Wulan's remarks were congruent with item 10 "It is important for me to learn the course material in this class", item 23 " I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn" and item 27 "Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me" in *task-value* subscale of MSLQ. These items were endorsed by 93%, 93% and 88.6% respectively, implying that the majority of the participants of the study understand the importance of English and this motivates them to learn.

5.6.2 The dynamics of students' motivation over a 10-week period.

When asked about the role of the teacher in motivating them to study English, the students' from IM and DM groups responded very differently. Students from the IM group had positive perceptions of their teachers, stating that the types of activities such as group work, paired work and role play used by the teacher were not only enjoyable but also provided them with opportunities to learn from others as they were working on different type of tasks. Students seemed to realize that everyone has a

different ability in mastering language skills and, through group or paired work, they took advantage of learning from each other. For example, a student with good pronunciation could be a model for others in the group. Students also found that role-play was a less stressful way to learn English expressions in context. They could learn from writing the dialogues to practising them as the language is used in life. This way, they can have the sense of community and environment as suggested in the theory of L2 acquisition. In other words, students from IM groups enjoyed the experience of collaborative learning under the directions of a skilful or resourceful teacher. They expressed appreciation when the teacher gave clear instructions and explanations as well as encouraging comments, which sustained the motivation of well-motivated students and helped the less motivated to stay focused and to engage in their classroom activities. There were references to the dimensions of *structure*, lack of *negativity* and *relatedness* in some of the students' remarks during the interviews.

In contrast, students from DM groups expressed their disappointment with their learning experiences. With regard to the teacher, students mentioned at least three characteristics of teachers which contributed greatly to the decrease in their motivation to study. These characteristic classroom behaviours included *unclear structure of the class*, *negativity* and *unfair treatment* (relatedness). There were two other teacher characteristics cited by the students, these were inadequate teaching skills and classroom management and low level English mastery. In the following sections, the way teacher's classroom behaviour affected students' motivation positively or negatively is described under each dimension of the behaviour, followed

by other factors that students named that affected their motivation over the instructional semester.

5.6.2.1 Structure.

In order that communicative activities in a language class such as group and pair work run appropriately, a clear set of rules is necessary. Students reported that having these clear rules and knowing the consequences of not following them were associated with their engagement in doing the task and helped in increasing their motivation to study. On the other hand, if things were not clear, students were not sure of what they had to do, which resulted in lower student participation and a decrease in motivation. Budi illustrated this by saying:

> I always feel like coming to English class because the teacher always gives us challenging and interesting tasks, which we discuss, in a group or in pairs and sometimes we do a role play. The type of tasks always varies from week to week so I never get bored. I know sometimes it is not easy to get the group or the pairs work accordingly to complete the task because some students tend to be disruptive during the activities. They like to make noise or just chat about things outside the topic of discussion. Some choose to be in one group with their close friends and use this group work to share their own stories and take them off task. But before the activities begin, **my teacher explains the rules that we have to strictly follow.** For example, it is the teacher who decides the members of a group, students are not free to choose their own group. In a role play, for example, **all students are expected to participate actively, from writing the dialogue to performing the role play.** My teacher also speaks English very clearly. **She also makes sure that we know and understand the rules before she proceeds to another task.** And you know what I like the most from studying English with the teacher? She never **gets angry if we make mistakes**. (Interview no. 29, Budi, Year 11, ISS, 16 October 2012).

Budi's remarks seemed to support item 9 from student-reported TSS, "To what extent do you feel that your teacher has an explicit set of class rules to follow?"

Endorsement of this item was quite strong as over half of the participants (51.2%) rated this item 5 and above on a 1-7 scale. This suggests that the majority of the students had a good perception of their teacher in terms of *structure*. In addition, Budi's interview above showed how students' motivation to learn was maintained by the teacher's positive behaviours, especially with regards to how mistakes were dealt with in the classroom.

On the other hand, unclear structuring of the class was perceived by the students as associated with a decrease in their motivation to study. Betty observed:

> I always feel unsure of what the teacher wants from us. For example, one day she asked us to read the text and then discuss the answer in groups. I expected that after we finished the group discussion, we will discuss in the class discussion. But what happened is the teacher chose one person from each group to come to the front to tell the story in his/her own words. So we felt that what we have discussed was useless, and we could not do well on the performance task, because we did not prepare for that. **There were no clear rules for the students to follow** (Interview no.30, Betty, Year 10, non-ISS, 18 October, 2012).

Betty's remarks reveal that the teacher did not have a set of explicit rules for conducting the activities in the class, which resulted in confusion and a decrease in students' motivation. This contrasts with students' responses to item 9 in the TSS which asks, "To what extent do you feel your teacher has an explicit set of class rules to follow". As the interview results with the IM group of students showed, over half of the students (51.2%) rated the item 5 and above, indicating that less than half of the students perceived their teacher as unclear when structuring the class.

5.6.2.2 Negativity.

Teachers' *negativity* included negative feedback and comments. This often took place when the teacher did error correction or warned misbehaving students. One of the dangers of error correction done in a harsh manner is that students may lose motivation more generally. Students were aware that error correction is important because it is the basis of their improvement so they do need their errors to be corrected. Error correction without negative comment was cited by the students as one of the factors that could help sustain their motivation. Weni explained:

> What keeps me motivated to study is that I can always practise and volunteer to answer questions in the classroom without any fear of making mistakes because I know if I make mistakes **my teacher won't react negatively or be sarcastic about that.** Most of the time my teacher just uses body language to let me know that I made a mistake, for example rising her eyebrow, or repeating the mistake. This gives me the chance to correct my own mistake. Sometimes, even my friend did not realise that I have made a mistake. She (my teacher) treats it just like 'a slip'. So if you have nothing to worry in studying, of course you will always be motivated to study. (Interview 31, Weni Year 10, non-ISS, 18 October, 2012)

In contrast to the interview above, one student mentioned that the teacher's negative comments contributed significantly to a decrease in his motivation. Surya observed that his teacher seemed not to be aware that comments and negative feedback when correcting errors hurt the students and made them feel humiliated. Some students refrained from volunteering to answer questions or even chose to remain silent even though the teacher pointed at them to answer. They were too afraid

of making mistakes and were not prepared to receive any negative comments from the teacher. This was illustrated by Surya as follows:

> I am not very interested and motivated to study English lately. I guess I became lazier and lazier. I attended the class just because it is compulsory. I often have a bad experience in class, I receive negative comments and I feel it was very discouraging. I was quite enthusiastic before. I voluntarily answered the teacher's questions. **When I got it wrong, the teacher did not only tell me that it was not correct but also commented negatively, like saying "I should have mastered that rule, even the first grade of junior high school can answer it correctly"**. Since then I choose to remain silent in class and just study English before exam. (Interview 32, Surya, Year 11, non-ISS, 16 October 2012).

Surya's description above clearly illustrated how his enthusiasm to participate in the class turned into withdrawal from classroom activities because of teacher's discouraging comments. Instead of receiving appreciation for his efforts to voluntarily answer the questions, he felt humiliated as a result of the comments by the teacher and decided not to take part in further classroom activities.

Another student expressed her considerable resentment when she talked about her negative experiences during her English class and vividly expressed her emotional reaction toward the teacher, as seen in the following quotation:

> **I did not like my English class**. It is not actually the subject, but the way the teacher teaches us. I really felt that she should not say something so negative when she corrected our error. **Her comments made me embarrassed and I felt that I am the most stupid person in the world. I just did not understand why she should say such negative comments. Well, I guess everyone prefers to just be silent, rather than participating and receiving negative comments.** It was even worse when sometimes she used our mistake as an example and wrote it on the whiteboard. Although she meant to give an example, to me it was just like announcing to others that I made a stupid mistake. (Interview 33, Shinta, Year 10, non-ISS, 12 October 2012)

5.6.2.3 Relatedness.

Weni stressed that a good relationship between the teacher and students is an important factor in helping his motivation increase over the course of the 10 week period. He is clearly referring to the dimension of *relatedness* in terms of the quality of relationship with the teachers, including friendliness and fairness to students. This can be detected in the following comment:

> I think it is important to maintain good relationships between the teacher and students. If you don't like the teacher or the teacher does not like you for certain reasons, of course, you don't feel like coming to the class. What I like from my English teacher now is that **she is friendly** and **always treats everybody fairly.** You know, [pause] some teachers tend to show that they have a favourite student in the class, and it sometimes makes us jealous or feel that we are treated unfairly. But my teacher, no,.. not at all. (Interview no. 34, Weni Year 10, non-ISS, 18 October, 2012).

Weni's remarks underscore the importance of fair treatment of all students because this contributed to making the students feel comfortable and positively affected their motivation.

By contrast, Surya, a Year 11 Non-ISS student from the DM group observed how students felt about unfair treatment in the English class and how this negatively affected motivation.

> English lessons are not interesting to me. Because most of the time we are just reading the text or doing written exercises. At first, the teacher explains a little bit, gives instructions and asks us to read. After giving us some time to answer the questions, then she asked us to answer the question orally. She usually asks for volunteers. Well, at the beginning of the semester, I was quite active. I always raise my hand to answer the questions. **But she always choose the same person, I guess because she is sure that the student will always answer correctly. I know the students she chooses are the clever ones. So,… yeah since I know her style,… I don't bother to volunteer to**

answer the questions.   (Interview no. 35, Surya, Year 11, non-ISS, 18 October 2012).

The last sentence in this interview indicates that unfair treatment lead to a decline in Surya's motivation and his withdrawal and disengagement from trying to respond to the teacher's question.

5.6.3 Other factors that affected students' motivation.

In addition to teacher's classroom behaviour, students reported some other factors that contributed to the decrease in students' motivation. These factors were the teacher's inadequate teaching and classroom management skills, low level English mastery and inappropriate teaching materials. With respect to the first factor, students mentioned that they felt bored during the class due to repetitive activities such as learning the language rules, completing grammar exercise in the textbooks, reading the texts and then answering questions that followed the text. These repetitive activities were the pattern of the class. The pace of the lesson was not varied and no interesting activities such as using games, songs or role-play to overcome classroom artificiality were involved. This was described by Betty as follows:

> Well, I don't like my English class. I just don't know why [pause] but **I guess I don't like the way the teacher conducts the class. It's a boring class, I think. Most of the time the teacher just sits in the front and when explaining the lesson, she uses English all the time. The class activity is only reading the text and answers the questions that follow the text.** I also feel that the text used is not at all useful to help me to be able to use English for my future, either for further studies or for my workplace. (Interview no. 36, Betty, Year 10, non-ISS, 18 October 2012).

Another student, Rina mentioned that his teacher did ask them to do tasks in groups or pair, but it seemed that these activities failed to work as they were intended to, due to the teacher's lack of classroom management skills. For example, when the teacher asked them to sit in groups, the class suddenly turn into chaos because it was not well controlled by the teacher. Students seemed to wander around either to find partners or friends with whom they usually hang out after school or just to walk around the classroom aimlessly. Rina put it this way:

> Well, sometimes I think learning English in class is just a waste of time. **Very often the class just turns into chaos because the activities we are supposed to do were not under control. It seemed that it was too difficult for my teacher to manage the class.** I remember, the teacher asked us to sit in groups of four. But, she did not give clear direction on how to form the group. As a result, some of my friends moved from one group to another, some wandered around aimlessly. Then before everyone settled, the teacher talked, giving instructions and explaining the task we have to do in the groups. She speaks in the middle of the sea of sounds caused by students' movement. Her voice was hardly heard, soo all activities did not run as intended. It's completely a waste of time (Interview no. 37, Rina, Year 11, ISS, 18 October 2012).

The second factor, the teacher's lack of English mastery, resulted in a reliance on the L1 language to explain the lesson. Students' commented that this practice resulted in classroom activities relying on the grammar-translation method. This caused students to expend less effort in trying to understand the meaning from a context because they knew the teacher would translate afterwards. Those who really wanted to master English found this discouraging and decreased their motivation to learn English at school. In contexts where English was studied as foreign language, such as Indonesia, students' main exposure to English was in their English class and

having teachers who had not mastered English caused them lose this opportunity. As

Surya's remarks:

> I felt less motivated to study English now compared to the beginning of the semester. I did not feel like it is an English class at all. **Most of the time the teacher speaks in Bahasa Indonesia. Only when she gives commands does she speak English. But when she explains the lesson, asks questions, or has other interaction, it is all in Bahasa Indonesia**. So I feel like I do not learn a foreign language, I am just learning a subject, like Math or Physic. You know, when you learn a foreign language, you should practice using it. But if my teacher herself does not use the language, how could I speak it? (Interview no. 38, Surya Year 11, non-ISS, 18 October 2012).

The third demotivating factor cited by the students was teaching materials, which

were too easy or did not meet students' expectations. Students often thought that these

materials were not challenging enough and would not help them improve their skills.

Rina commented on the reading text used in her class as follows:

> We learn about narrative text and the text we read is about the tales, for example the tale about how Lake Toba was formed. **Well [pause] to me it was not interesting at all.** It was useless. The vocabulary you learn from the text was like [pause] you know what kind of vocabulary is used in a tale, right? **It won't help me to enrich the vocabulary I need for further study. I wanted to continue to the faculty of medicine. I need to learn the vocabulary used in science. It is really irrelevant to my needs.** (Interview no. 39, Rina, Year 11, ISS, 18 October 2012).

This revealed that Rina's motivation decreased because she did not value what she

was learning and thought the materials used in class were not useful for her future

career aspirations. However, it seemed that Rina belonged to a minority of students

since over half of the participants endorsed six items measuring task value in the

MSLQ. While Rina thought that the material presented was not at all interesting to

her, 78.2% of the students endorsed item 17, " I am very interested in the content area

of the subjects". In contrast to Rina's view that the course materials were irrelevant to

her needs, the majority of the participants (93%) endorsed item 23, "I think the course

material in this class is useful for me to learn".

Her reply to a further question asking whether or not she was concerned about

her grade was quite surprising:

> Well, of course a student wants a good grade, but I don't think getting a good grade in this class reflects my true ability in English. What I want is my real ability, that I can speak and I can understand when people speak English. **I don't mind if the reading material is difficult, but it really gives me the opportunity to learn new things**. Not the childish story like the reading materials I have just mentioned to you. (Interview no. 40, Rina, Year 11 ISS, 18 October, 2012).

Later in the interview, Rina revealed that she was quite intrinsically motivated

but disappointed with the learning situation as none of the aspects, including teacher's

teaching skills and reading material, could keep her motivated. Rina's remarks printed

in bold reflected her intrinsic goal orientation and were equivalent to item 16 "In class

like this I prefer course material that arouses my curiosity, even if it is difficult to

learn" in the *intrinsic goal orientation* subscale. This item was endorsed by 74% of

the participants. Rina's comments on the reading materials showed the importance of

meeting students' expectations and interest as these play a significant role in student

motivation. As she mentioned, her intrinsic interest in English decreased over time

because of her perceptions that the teaching materials she was being exposed to would

would not enable her to achieve her goal of learning English effectively.

While Rina, from the ISS thought that the type of reading text demotivated her

to study, a student from non-ISS talked about his difficulties in learning English due

to differences between English and her L1, Bahasa Indonesia. Considering these differences, she felt demotivated and never thought that she could be a successful learner. As she observed:

I don't think I would be able to have a good mastery of English. **This language is too difficult, the way you say it, is very different from the way it is written. So I always mispronounce the words. And the verbs,… we have to use different forms depending on when the action take place, whether in the past, now, or in the future. In Bahasa Indonesia, we only have one form of the verbs and we can use it in different occasions**. So, it is too difficult to remember all these rules, how could we speak the language if before we speak we have to make sure what form of verbs we have to use… oooo soo difficult. (Interview no. 41, Betty, Year 10, non-ISS, 18 October, 2012)

On the other hand, a student from ISS referred to teaching materials as one factor that increased his motivation. This motivation originated from the feeling of successful experience in completing the task and obtaining a better grade. As she said:

I enjoy studying English very much now, because I know I improve a lot. **I know the meaning of many vocabulary items, I can understand reading text used in class, and I can use the vocabulary in my writing as well.** Before, when I was in junior secondary school, I did not feel this way. I felt that English was too difficult, well because maybe the text and the grammar we were studying were too difficult. I sometime felt desperate because of too many vocabularies that I did not understand in the text. To do my homework, I always depend on someone else, my friend or my older sister to help me. But now, I like feel that English is not too difficult. I can comprehend the reading text used in class quite easily, and I can answer the comprehension questions with very little assistance form my teacher. I am satisfied with my achievement and as you can see, I can get better mark for English in my academic report last semester. (Interview no. 41, Weni, Year 11, non-ISS, 18 October, 2012)

In addition to factors that negatively affected students' motivation as described above, an ISS students cited that direct exposure to the real use of English,

as they experienced in learning Mathematics and Science, had contributed to an increase in their motivation to learn. As Wati described:

> I know that I need English and have seen how English is used to understand other subjects because I am studying in ISS. It makes me feel more motivated to study, because I experience directly that my good mastery of the language helps me to understand other subjects. It was really different from my experience when I studied English at Junior Secondary School. I studied English just for the sake of the subject itself. I did not see any real practical use in my life because everything here was in Indonesian. Our official language is Indonesian. **But since I started studying here, I know that I need English to understand a lot of things in the world.** (Interview no. 42, Wati, Year 11, ISS, 17 October, 2012).

To conclude, the results of the interviews with the students from IM and DM groups were consistent with quantitative findings that most of the participants exhibited *extrinsic goal orientation* and *task value* dimensions in relation to their motivation. However, motivation fluctuated during the 10 week period and the change was mostly influenced by their perception of the teacher's classroom behaviour, although some other factors also contributed to the increase or decrease in students' motivation. Students who showed an increase in their motivation cited three dimensions of teacher behaviour, *relatedness, structure* and lack of *negativity* as factors contributing to an increase in their motivation. On the other hand, students who exhibited a decrease in motivation reported experiencing unfair treatment and unclear classroom structures, which made learning more difficult. It is interesting to note that none of the students from eitherbgroup cited *expectations*, another dimension in students' reported-TSS, as factors that influenced the decrease or increase of their motivation.

5.7 Classroom Observations

As stated by Verschuren (2003), observation reveals behaviour. The aim of conducting classroom observations for this study was to gather direct insights into a teacher's classroom behaviour. In addition, the use of classroom observation offered advantages such as providing the researcher with the opportunity to check on what was obtained through the interviews with students (Patton, 2002) and to clearly see the setting and the actual behaviour of the subject observed (Creswell, 2005). As discussed in Chapter 3, I used two techniques to record the data gained through classroom observation - a classroom observation protocol and a video recording. The analysis of classroom observation data focused on the aspect of instructional practices, especially those related to teachers' classroom behaviours in terms of the four dimensions measured by the Teacher Style Scale (TSS) and other factors that emerged from the observation.

5.7.1 Teacher A.

Teacher A was from an International Standard School (ISS) and taught three classes, two Year 10 and one Year 11 class. The first observation was undertaken with one of the Year 10 classes. The lesson was conducted in a language laboratory where students sat in booths using headsets. The teacher sat in the front and communicated with students through the headset. As a non-participant observer, the researcher sat in an inconspicuous place at the back and took note of teacher behaviours and how students responded; the lesson was also video-recorded.

At first, the teacher introduced me to the classroom and explained the purpose of my visit. She also encouraged students to participate actively, to act and behave normally and not to be scared or shy because of my presence. Then she introduced the topic of the lesson which I expected would focus on listening skills since the lesson was conducted in a language laboratory. To my surprise, the lesson was concerned with reading skills, with a narrative text and the task of reviewing the tenses of simple, present and present continuous. The teacher began by handing out a text which was an Indonesian fairy tale about the history of a lake. Then, students were given time to read the text individually and silently. During this time, the teacher circulated around the class to check students' activities. She then returned to her seat in front of the class and asked students to volunteer to answer the questions. The teacher read a question and asked who could answer. Some students volunteered by raising their hand and the teacher chose who was to answer. When there were no volunteers, the teacher randomly asked a student to answer. In the event that one student answered incorrectly, the teacher tried to lead him/her by asking follow-up questions to elicit the right answer. If he/she still could not answer, then the teacher moved to other students without making any comments to the one who was not able to answer correctly.

After all the questions had been successfully answered, the teacher moved on to teaching the simple present, and present continuous tense. Unlike the question and answer about the narrative text, which was conducted almost entirely in English, the teacher explained the grammar in Bahasa Indonesia. Firstly, the rules of using the two

tenses were explained followed by some examples taken from the narrative text. Then the teacher drilled the class by mentioning a sentence in Bahasa Indonesia and students gave choral responses of the translation spontaneously. The teacher continued the activities by asking the students to volunteer to write the answer on the white board.

The class ended with the activity of retelling the story of the narrative text. The teacher encouraged the students to use the vocabulary in the text and make their own sentences to tell the story. The teacher first provided some examples then the students were given time to prepare themselves to retell the story using their own words. After several minutes, students were invited to tell the story. One student volunteered, she stood in front of the class and successfully retold the story using her own words.

The same teacher was observed teaching Year 11 students the following week. Although the class seemed more active, the teaching and learning processes were very similar to the Year 10 class as described previously. Teacher-centred approaches with grammar-translation method were the order of the day with no communicative activities involving student-student interactions were recorded during the observations.

5.7.2 Teacher B

Teacher B taught Year 11 students at ISS. The lesson was conducted in a normal classroom where students sat in a traditional classroom arrangement. Students'

chairs and tables were arranged in rows facing the whiteboard. When we entered the

classroom, it looked really messy with students' chairs facing different ways.

Students were noisy and the presence of the teacher and me in the classroom did not

make them refrain from the activities they were engaged in. Most of them were

chatting in small groups. The teacher greeted the students and introduced me to the

class. Without trying to draw students' attention, the teacher handed out a narrative

text to the noisy class. I sat in one corner at the front of the room and took notes using

the classroom observation protocol while the lesson was video-recorded.

The teacher started by asking student to listen while she read the text aloud.

Her voice was barely audible due to the noise made by the students. However, she

seemed to ignore the messy and noisy classroom and continued reading the text until

finished, after which she asked students to volunteer to read the text. The majority of

the students did not pay attention and no one volunteered. She then chose one student

to read a paragraph from the text aloud. Most of the students were off-task, they

talked to each other and I even heard someone singing. One student was busy with his

mobile phone.

During the next part of the lesson, the teacher asked questions about the

grammar in the text and wrote 'simple past tense' on the white board. The students

were then asked to state the pattern of past tense, some answered but the majority did

not. The teacher emphasized the use of the past form of the verb for simple past tense

and asked students to find sentences in the past tense in the text. Again, the majority

of the students did not pay serious attention to the teacher's requests. One student

noisily talked to her friend beside her. The teacher showed some degree of anger and asked that the student move to a different seat. The class continued to discuss the example of simple past tense found in the text. The teacher kept asking questions, students did not answer and the teacher herself answered the majority of the questions.

The last activity was a group discussion. The teacher divided the class into groups of four and asked the students to discuss the answer to the questions that followed the reading text. It seemed that there was no clear instruction on how students could form a group of four which resulted in noise and chaos with students trying to find friends to be in the same group. Two students just sat at the back because they could not be accommodated in the groups. The teacher seemed to not pay attention to this. She then moved around to monitor students' activities. While the teacher was giving instructions to one group, students in other groups seemed off-task. Some students did discuss the topic but the discussion was in Bahasa Indonesia or in their local language, not in English.

The other Year 11 class taught by this teacher was observed on the following day and a similar set of interactions were observed with the only difference being that this class was not as noisy as the one from the previous day and more students were on task.

5.7.3 Teacher C

Teacher C taught two classes of Year 10 in ISS. She started by greeting the class and introduced me to the students briefly. Then she continued by introducing the topics of the three reading texts she was going to give to the students, which were current news taken from a newspaper. To activate students' prior knowledge about the text, she wrote a phrase related to the first text on the white board and elicited, from the students, other words related to it. The first text was about an Indonesian maid working in Singapore. The teacher wrote 'TKI' on the whiteboard, which stands for 'Tenaga Kerja Indonesia' and is translated into English as 'Indonesian workforce'. Then she encouraged the students to tell what they knew from the news about the topic. Some students voluntarily raised their hands and the teacher chose who to answer. She continued with the second item and wrote the word 'Robot' on the whiteboard. This topic seemed of interest to the students as many of them responded spontaneously to the teacher's questions. They could name the Indonesian team who won the prize in the International Olympics of Robotics. Then the teacher wrote, 'earthquake', the topic of the third text, on the whiteboard. Having experienced a terrible earthquake in 2009 themselves, I expected that students would talk a lot about this topic. However, most of them showed less enthusiasm compared to the second topic concerning the robot. Following on from this activity, the teacher divided the students into groups of six. The teacher herself decided the members of each group and students sat in the groups as she directed. She then handed out three reading texts to each group and assigned a different topic for each group to read then discuss the

answers to questions that followed the text. After the discussion, these groups were asked to present what they understood about the topic while the other groups were assigned the task of checking whether the answers presented were correct. The students were enthusiastic and engaged by this task. However, the discussions among students were in Indonesian and the only English used was when they read the part of the text so as to answer the questions. After around 20 minutes, a representative of each group was asked to stand in front of the class to report the group's answers. Each answer was then discussed with the whole class and the students were encouraged to participate, to agree or disagree with the answers given. The teacher acted as a facilitator of the discussion. The class ended after the three groups finished each of their presentations.

Following the group presentations, the teacher assigned students to do a short role-play in pairs based on the prompt provided by the teacher. The prompt was written in cards and distributed to each pairs. The prompt required students to talk over the phone, different situations were provided for each pair. The situations included calling a medical centre to cancel an appointment, calling a travel agent to cancel their flight booking, and etc. Students' were asked to write down their own dialogue in pairs within 20 minutes preparation time. Then, they were asked to perform their role play. Two pairs of students' volunteered and could perform the dialogues quite well. The class ended after these two pairs performances as the bell rang.

5. 7. 4 Teacher D

Teacher D taught in Year 10 at ISS. She started the class by asking students to take their English workbook and open it at a particular page. She then read the instructions which asked the students to listen to the dialogue read by the teacher and to answer eight questions about the dialogue after that. The teacher started reading the dialogue between two people about why they had failed when making a cake. To signify different speakers; she moved her position to face in different direction each time she read a line from a different speaker. She read the dialogue twice before giving the students time to write their individual answers to the questions on a piece of paper. After 10 minutes, the students were asked to stop. Some students asked for more time but the teacher rejected this request.

The second activity was similar to the first in which the teacher read the dialogue between two people. This time the students were asked to fill in the blanks based on what they had heard. Again, the teacher read the dialogue twice, after which she signalled that a particular individual was to answer a question, mostly by pointing to the student or calling the student's name. One student supplied the wrong answer; the teacher showed her displeasure by a negative comment before moving on by pointing to another student to supply the correct answer. The rest of the time the teacher expressed her concern at the class not taking the task seriously. She commented on the incorrect grammar mentioned by the student previously. However, the comment was not constructive and did not help the students understand why it was incorrect but was, rather, an expression of her surprise and anger that students

still made mistakes on the use of such a simple grammatical rule. She went on to expand on how to study and prepare before coming to class. Her verbal and facial expressions indicated her displeasure rather than giving advice to the students on how to successfully prepare and, as a result, this was perceived by the students as negative feedback rather than positive advice.

5.7.5 Teacher E

Teacher E taught two classes of year 10 at the non-ISS. At the time of the observation, the lesson was on the grammatical rule concerning the use of the 'if clause' in a 'conditional sentence'. The teacher started the class by handing out a text followed by exercises on that topic; she then proceeded to explain the definition of a conditional sentence followed by an example. This grammar explanation was not accompanied by writing on the whiteboard or any other visual aids. The teacher repeated the definition and the usage of the conditional sentence several times in an attempt to make sure the students understood. She then asked a student to write an example of a conditional sentence on the white board. Following this, students were asked to individually complete the language exercise on the hand-out distributed by the teacher at the beginning of the lesson. During this activity, the teacher circulated around the class to monitor student activity. The exercise took up the majority of the lesson time available. During the last 30 minutes, the teacher asked the students to stop and called out students' names randomly or asked for volunteers to write up the answer on the whiteboard for their fellow students and the teacher to verify. When a

student supplied a wrong answer the teacher explained in detail why it was not correct. She used the wrong sentence from the student to elaborate the teaching points. The lesson ended with the teacher's short explanation about the pattern of a conditional sentence, again without the use of any visual aids to assist with memory or understanding. No cooperative learning took place. Most of the time, students work individually and the teacher-centred approach was clearly observable.

5.7.6 Teacher F

Teacher F taught two classes of Year 11 at a non-ISS school. She greeted the class, explained that the topic of the lesson was a popular news item. She began by showing three pictures on the whiteboard using an LCD projector and invited a whole class discussion of each picture. The first picture she showed on the screen was about a robotic competition, the second was a picture of a baby covered in blood, which lead to the topic of abortion and the third showed a scene of a car crash. She asked the class some questions about each picture and the students responded very positively. They answered the questions spontaneously, expressing their opinion about each picture. In the event that the questions were yes or no questions, students responded chorally in an enthusiastic manner. This question and answer session was conducted fully in English, lasted just on 15 minutes and was a really communicative interaction, not only between the teacher and the students but also among students.

After this class discussion, the teacher asked the students to count themselves one to five in English and those who had the same number went into the same group.

This resulted in four groups of five students. The groups were then given different texts and asked to read the text, answer the questions following the text and be prepared to present the content of the reading text to the rest of the class. The students were given twenty minutes to do this task. During this, the teacher circulated around the class and sometimes talked to the groups. Students seemed engaged in this activity and it was observed that no students were off-task. After they finished this activity, the first group stood in front of the class and reported on what they understood from the text. Instead of choosing a student as a representative of the group, the results of the discussion was presented by each member of the group who were each able to contribute a piece of information. This presentation was followed by a question and answer session in which other groups were encouraged by the teacher to ask questions. Again, communicative dialogue occurred among the presenting group and other class members. During this session, sometimes the teacher commented on the discussion or asked question as a clue to lead the members of the presenting group to come to the correct answer. The class ended with a brief conclusion from the teacher regarding the topic discussed and the classroom activities they had just done. All these activities were conducted in English.

The last activity was game. Students seemed excited and enjoyed this activity very much. The game called 'Find someone who…..'. The teacher handed out a piece of paper which contained a list and students were asked to find the person who has the characteristics mentioned in the list. They have to write the person's name on their checklist and move on to the next person to find out whether the person meets

one of the other characteristics on the master list. The students mingle around the class asking questions like: "Excuse me, do you have fried rice for breakfast this morning?" The objective is to talk to as many people as possible within the time limit in order to get a name for each characteristic.

The game ran well. Before the game the teacher give clear explanation by writing down example of characteristics similar to those on students' list and asked students to think of how they could form questions based on the prompt and how to answer them. After making sure that the students know how to do it, then the teacher signal that they can start the game. The majority of the students seemed enthusiastic to complete their lists and participated actively in the game.

5.7.7 Teacher G

Teacher G taught Year 10 at a non-ISS school. At the time of classroom observation, the topic was focussed on a grammar point, 'conditional sentence'. First, the teacher wrote a sentence on the whiteboard, 'If Rina was rich, she would buy a new car'. Then she asked the class some questions related to the use of conditional sentences. Some examples of the questions were: 'Is Rina rich?', 'Does she have a new car?' No student answered the questions so she asked again and called out a student's name to answer the question. The students answered, hesitantly, that Rina is not rich and does not have the car. The teacher then asked questions to lead the students to discover what a conditional sentence expresses. She confirmed by stating that a conditional sentence is a sentence that expresses the situation that is contrary to

the fact. Following this explanation, she handed out a piece of paper, asked students to read the text and underline the conditional sentence they found in the text. Students were given fifteen minutes to read and to do the task individually. During this time, the teacher circulated around the class to monitor students' activity. If students seemed off-task or were doing something else, the teacher approached the students and asked whether they had difficulties.

After fifteen minutes, students were asked to stop. The teacher asked for volunteers to write the first conditional sentence they found in the text on the whiteboard. One student volunteered. This continued until all of conditional sentences in the text were written on the whiteboard. When there was no volunteer, the teacher pointed to one student to answer. The teacher then checked the sentences on the white board one by one and asked the class whether the answer was right or wrong. After each conditional sentence, she explained briefly that a conditional sentence is used to describe the situation which is contrary to the fact.

The next activity was a group discussion. Students were asked to form a group of four based on their seating arrangement. Then, they were given a piece of paper explaining a situation which required them to produce conditional sentences. Each group was assigned a different task. Students were given 20 minutes to do this and at the end of the activity, each group was asked to present their work in turn. Firstly, the group described the situation given to them, then the conditional sentences they produced in response to the situation. The correctness of each sentence produced by each group was discussed based on two points of view, the suitability within the

given context and the grammar. Other groups were invited to produce other possible conditional sentences when the assigned group produced the sentences which were not contextually acceptable or to correct the grammar of the sentence. The activities continued until the class ended.

5.7.8 Teacher H

This teacher taught a Year 10 class at a non-ISS. The class started with the teacher introducing the topic, which was similar to some Year 11 classes observed and described above. This class had a narrative text as their topic with embedded simple past tense and past continuous tense as the grammatical rule to be learned. The teacher handed out the text about the history of Lake Toba in North Sumatera to the whole class. As with other lessons observed, comprehension questions and exercises on the grammatical rule followed the text presented. Students were asked to read the text individually, silently, for 10 minutes. Then the teacher asked one student to read the first paragraph aloud. Each paragraph of the text was then read aloud by different students appointed by the teacher. This activity continued until the whole text was read and the teacher asked students to answer the comprehension questions individually and write the answer in their books. During this activity, the teacher sat at her desk and did her own work. Some students did the task seriously, once in a while looking up the meaning of the words in a dictionary while some others, especially those in the back rows, seemed off-task, chatting with friends. Unlike the previously observed teacher, this teacher did not circulate around the class and the

students' progress was not well monitored. After around twenty minutes, the teacher asked them to stop and nominated a student by name to write the answer to the first question on the whiteboard. This activity continued until all the answers were written on the board. The remaining time was used to discuss whether the answers were correct or not.

5.8 Similarities and Differences across the Teachers Observed

Based on these classroom observations, the following were common features shared among the class observed. All the classrooms have similar seating arrangements in which students sit in rows facing the whiteboard and the teacher's desk is in front of the class. This kind of seating arrangement did not facilitate cooperative learning, which required spaces for students to move to perform activities. The seating arrangement mirrored a teacher-centred type of classroom and the majority of the teaching practices were still teacher-centred. In most of the observed classes, teachers were the most dominant participants. Students respectfully followed what the teacher said. There was no evidence of students being disrespectful of the teacher.

The second similarity is the use of L1 in most of students' activities. Despite the teachers' effort to use English as a medium of instruction, genuine communicative dialogue between the teacher and students or among the students themselves rarely took place. The teachers used English mostly to explain and to give commands, although sometimes the teachers switched code to Bahasa Indonesia. During the

group or paired work activities students mostly discussed in L1 although, when they presented the result of the discussion, the target language was used. None of the observed teachers encouraged students to use English to discuss the tasks even when they were circulating around the class during these activities.

In most of the observations, the majority of the students were passive. Students' responses were restricted to answering the teacher's questions or directions. It was a rare student who took the initiative to ask a question to display their genuine interest in the topic. The occasions on which students did ask questions were after a group presentation. The questions were addressed to the presenter group concerning the topic presented. However, this was also in response to the teachers' requirement that students ask questions rather than on any impetus deriving from the students themselves.

Most teachers relied heavily on verbal explanations, especially when explaining points of grammar. Although, at the ISS schools, the classrooms were equipped with LCD projector and monitor, these were not used during the classes when observations took place. The use of visual aids, real pictures or flash cards, were very limited. The only materials used by the teachers were hand-outs provided by the teachers and distributed at the beginning of the class. In most of the tasks given, students were almost always required to produce their answers, either individually or in groups, for the teacher to check. The answers to the exercises were written on the whiteboard or reproduced orally by the students.

The interactions between teacher and students were characterised by the teacher providing directions or asking questions and the students responding. On most occasions, the teachers invited an answer from students in the class rather than signalling particular individuals. This resulted in unequal participation among students, in which certain individuals volunteered to answer most of the time. When providing feedback, most teachers directly corrected students' wrong answers. Some teachers asked other students to correct or just moved on to the next question. Only three out of eight teachers led students with questions to come to the correct answer.

Despite sharing many similarities, the classrooms observed also reflected differences in some instances which appeared to be related to teacher experience and stage of their teaching career. In a class with a younger teacher, more teacher-student interactions were recorded. Unlike other classes, where teachers tended to use lengthy explanations, this teacher was able to minimize teacher talk time and avoid a teacher-centred approach by raising students' interest through the use of pictures related to the topic. She then elicited students' prior knowledge by using skilful questioning techniques.

Another noticeable difference was found in a class with a veteran teacher with more than 30 years' experience in teaching English. A teacher-centred approach was observed in this case and there were very few communicative interactions between this teacher and her students. Most of the time, the teacher asked questions and issued commands and the students responded chorally. An exercise on grammar was mostly given in the form of drilling, using the grammar-translation method. The teacher

mentioned a sentence or a part of a sentence in Indonesian language, then students responded chorally with the English translation. This often occurred spontaneously. Sometimes, the teacher chose a particular student to answer or translate the question into English by calling out a student's name.

5.9 Summary of Interviews and Teachers' Classroom Behaviour

This chapter examined the findings obtained through interviews and classroom observations. These qualitative findings explained the results of the quantitative findings in more detail. From the data obtained through the students' interviews and classroom observations, the findings could be summarised as follows.

The students' interviews confirmed the quantitative findings that students do experience increases or decreases in the level of their foreign language anxiety and motivation over the instructional semester. They cited several factors associated with the dynamics of these two variables including teachers' teaching skills, teachers' classroom management skills, teaching materials and being ISS students, but the most prominent factor was teachers' classroom behaviours. Students' stated three dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviours which affect the level of their foreign language anxiety and motivation - structures, negativity and relatedness. The teachers who offered a positive side of each dimension could have positive effects on the students, that is, a decrease in foreign language anxiety and an increase in motivation. On the other hand, teachers with negatively-oriented behaviours brought the opposite effect to students' language anxiety and motivations.

The data obtained from classroom observations were in line with the results of the students' interviews. Some teachers' were observed to have clear structures in their class, a clear set of rules to be followed by the students when they were assigned a certain task. They also let the students know the consequences of not doing the task which ensured students' serious engagement in the task. For example, this was observed in the class by teacher (F). No students seemed off the task which indicated that they were quite well motivated to do that task. Applying this dimension to EFL teaching also means that teacher-enhanced cooperative learning through group work or paired work could maximize inter-student interactions. This way, the teacher not only brought students' motivation level up but, at the same time, also reduced their anxiety about doing the task. Speaking in front of the teacher, who students see as an authoritative figure, may be difficult for some students and trigger high levels of anxiety. However, speaking in a group or in paired students work may be less stressful and, therefore, could enhance on-task behaviour. Students' interviews confirmed that students' enjoyed cooperative learning which also allowed them to learn from each other (see interview no. 13 and 29).

On the other hand, teachers with less clear structures were not able to maximize inter-student interactions, as seen in the class by teacher B. It was obvious that the teacher did make an attempt to apply cooperative learning and to assign students to work in groups but, due to a lack of clarity in the instructions; students did not do the task as it was designed. As a result, some students just strolled around

pointlessly and some were simply off-task. These classroom situations were cited by the students as the cause of a decline in their motivation (see interview 37).

With regard to the dimension of negativity, students' interviews showed that they felt the teachers' comments sometimes were too negative and the quantitative data confirmed that many of the participants agreed with this. Students cited that teacher's negative comments mostly occurred during error correction. In addition to increasing their level of anxiety (see interview no. 6 and 7), excessively negative feedback also made the students less motivated to study and, even, want to drop the subject. Lack of negative comments from teachers not only decreased students' motivation but also helped in sustaining students' motivation (see interview no.31). However, during the classroom observations, negative teachers' behaviour was not very often observed. Only in one out of 8 teachers was this dimension noticeable (see description of Teacher D). Limited time devoted to the observations and the presence of the researcher as an outsider in the class may have had an influence on teacher behaviour.

Unlike the two other motivation dimensions that influenced both students' foreign language anxiety and motivations, relatedness was reported by the students as having more influence on students' motivation than foreign language anxiety. In other words, good relationships with the teacher were associated with an increase in students' motivation whereas students who were treated unfairly felt demotivated. However, relatedness did not have any negative impact on students' anxiety. Students who maintained a good relationship with the teacher felt less anxious in class but did

not report that being unfairly treated made them more anxious. During the classroom observations, unfair treatments of students were not apparent except teacher B, who tended to give opportunities to answer the questions to one particular student. This was probably due to a teacher-centred approach, which was obvious in some of the classes, and also to the short period of observation. It is important to note that students did not mention one of the dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviour, expectation, as having an influence on the dynamics of either foreign language anxiety or achievement.

Chapter 6

Discussion

6.1 Chapter Overview

The present study investigated, first, how students' foreign language anxiety and motivation changed over time and, second, how students' perception of their teachers' classroom behaviour influenced their experiences of anxiety and motivation to learn English. In addition, it examined the interrelationships between foreign language anxiety, motivation, and students' achievement and, finally, whether students' and teachers' perceptions of the teacher's classroom behaviours were in agreement.

The intention of this study was to extend previous research studies on foreign language anxiety and motivation experienced by English language learners. As far as foreign language anxiety is concerned, this research goes beyond measuring the level of students' foreign language anxiety or identifying its sources. It examines how students' perceptions of their teachers' classroom behaviours impact their levels of foreign language anxiety over an instructional semester and how this influences their achievement. This was made possible by a mixed-method design in which the students' language anxiety was measured across the whole sample at two timepoints; then, a selection of students was interviewed to explore their classroom experiences. In addition, classroom observations were conducted to directly examine teaching behaviours and to gauge the classroom atmosphere. With respect to students'

motivation, the present study examined multiple components of motivation longitudinally (expectancy, values and affect) to identify changes in motivation over an instructional semester, an aspect identified by Wigfield and Cambria (2010) as being absent from other studies of motivation.

The findings are discussed under five themes. The profile of students' foreign language anxiety and motivation is outlined first. Changes in students' language anxiety and motivation levels are then explored, based on the theoretical foundations. Following this, the roles of students' perceptions of teacher's classroom behaviour in influencing students' language anxiety and motivation level are examined, finally, the interrelationships among variables, and the comparison between teacher's and students' perception of teacher's classroom behaviours are considered.

6.2. Profile of Students' Foreign Language Anxiety

Quantitative findings revealed that Indonesian high school students experience medium levels of foreign language anxiety during the process of learning English in the classroom. The highest of the three aspects of anxiety at the two timepoints was *fear of failing the class*, followed by *fear of negative evaluation*. Students felt least anxious about *communication apprehension*, as indicated by its lowest score among the three dimensions of the FLCAS.

This finding was not in agreement with previous research (Franzten & Magnan, 2005; Kim, 2009; Liu & Jackson, 2008; Woodrow, 2006; Young, 1991) which found that the most commonly-cited anxiety was related to communication

apprehension experienced by the students during oral performances, oral exams and speaking in and out of class. The discrepancy between the findings of the present study and those of previous research studies could be explained in relation to the different contexts. When one considers the Indonesian high school context, as elaborated below, it is quite understandable why the students scored higher on *fear of failing the class* and *negative evaluation* dimensions than on *communication apprehension*.

Communication apprehension* is a type of anxiety mostly experienced by students in relation to speaking activities. Previous research has reported that English classrooms in Indonesia were lacking in oral communicative activities (Kaluge, Setiasih, & Tjahyono, 2004) therefore, students did not experience *communication apprehension* as highly as the participants of the studies cited above. Since the introduction of English as a foreign language into the Indonesian curriculum in 1945, the approach used to teach it has been the grammar-translation method. This approach has been very dominant and, although this curriculum was replaced by the Communicative Approach in 1984, the textbooks developed to implement the new approach were still very structurally oriented. In other words, there was an incompatibility between the curriculum, being communicative, and the syllabi, which were structurally oriented (Lie, 2007). For example, the topic of pragmatics was not integrated in the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing), but presented in a separate chapter in the textbooks. Thus, the communicative approach was not fully implemented.

With respect to teaching methods, a teacher-centred approach is very commonly employed in the Indonesian context (Kaluge, Setiasih, & Tjahyono, 2004). There is a lack of individual interaction between the teacher and students, which is probably due to teachers' expectations of what it means to teach in Indonesia. To employ communicative activities in the classroom, teachers need to have a good command of English. Unfortunately, research has indicated that many English teachers in Indonesia are themselves, poor users of English (Hamied, 1997; Ridwan, Renandya, & Lie, 1996). As a result, teachers have relied heavily on structurally-oriented textbooks focussing on grammar points rather than facilitating students to use English in communicative activities.

These occurrences were evident in the classroom observations conducted for the present study; activities requiring students to speak English in the classroom context were rare. Students mostly sat quietly and passively during the class, appearing familiar with these practices and this type of teaching process. It is likely the same practices have been experienced since the students started learning English at junior secondary school or, even, from primary school for those who attended private schools. Thus, students take for granted that, in English class, they will learn more grammar and complete more reading exercises than engage in speaking activities. It is not surprising, then, that students in this study exhibited the lowest levels of *communication apprehension* compared to the other two dimensions of the FLCAS across the two timepoints. In other words, low *communication apprehension* did not mean that the participants in the present study were confident with their English

capabilities in speaking but, rather that they expected to perform little speaking during the English class.

6.3 Profile of Students' Motivation

Student participants reported a high level of motivation, as indicated by their scores on the MSLQ. Among the six motivation dimensions measured by the scale, students scored the highest on *extrinsic goal orientation* at the two timepoints, suggesting that Indonesian high school students in this study were more extrinsically motivated. This finding clearly supports the view that, in many countries where English is learned as a foreign language, extrinsic or instrumental motivation is dominant. This finding is consistent with previous research studies conducted in some countries in Asia where English is learned as a foreign language in high schools, such as China (Kyriacou & Zhou, 2008; Liu, 2007; Yang, Liu & Wu, 2010), Dubai (Qashoa, 2006), Thailand (Choosri & Intharaksa, 2011; Kitjaroonchai, 2012) and Indonesia (Lamb, 2004). Although these studies have used the term *instrumental motivation*, it is similar to extrinsic motivation or *extrinsic goal orientation* as examined in the present study (Lens, Paixao, & Herrera, 2009). In other words, students were motivated to learn English not for the sake of the language itself but because of positive consequences it could bring for their future life. For example, students in previous studies reported that they wanted to learn English for employment-based reasons as workplaces offer a higher salary to those with good English competence. Considering the growing importance attached to English as a

foreign language in the Indonesian context, it is not surprising that Indonesian students were highly extrinsically motivated.

The interviews with students clearly indicated that their learning goals tended to be determined by their social context. In other words, their motivations to learn English were determined by the way society valued knowledge of English so that obtaining a good grade was one of the desired purposes of learning. It was not surprising that it was one of the main objectives for most of the students as, in most cases, the learners' social *milieu* (that is friends, relatives and family members) conveyed the values of the general society in relation to learning English (Csizer, Kormos & Sarkadi, 2010). For instance, in one interview, a student indicated that he had been motivated by the success of a relative who was awarded a scholarship to study for a doctoral degree in an English-speaking country.

The second highest motivation score on the MSLQ was *task value*. The items listed under this dimension underscored the perceptions about the importance of the subject, in this case English, as well as students' interest in it. The items measured students' perception of the importance of English to them, such as their use of English in other subjects, and whether they were drawn to learn the English language. Given the importance ascribed to English in students' lives, it was not unexpected that they scored high on this dimension. As is the case in other Asian countries, Indonesian students were acutely aware of the growing importance attached to English in a globalised world. The awareness of the importance of English,

either for future career-related purposes or to help understand other subjects, were all well-described by the students during the interviews.

This finding lends further support to a previous study conducted in a similar high school context in Indonesia by Lamb (2004), who argued that it was not easy to distinguish integrative and instrumental motivations as separate concepts. He reported that high school students who participated in his study viewed English as an important language in the globalisation era because they had been told that English would be used in Indonesia. In addition, they viewed English as a part of their future identity as a "doctor, painter, designer, or astronomer" (Lamb, 2004, p. 26)

Students' scores on the three other MSLQ dimensions of motivation were all rated above the scale midpoint. This indicates that, generally, Indonesian students were motivated to learn English, which is consistent with the findings from other studies conducted by Lamb (2004) in an Indonesian high school context. It was interesting to note that students scored the lowest on the dimension of *test anxiety* equally at Time 1 and Time 2 confirming that the students who participated in this study were more positively than negatively motivated.

6.4. Changes in Students' Foreign Language Anxiety

Two major changes were identified in students' scores on foreign language anxiety dimensions, *fear of failing the class* and *fear of negative evaluation*. Each change is discussed in detail below.

6.4.1 Changes in students' scores on *fear of failing the class*.

The quantitative analysis examining students' foreign language anxiety at two times, at the beginning and at the end of instructional semester over the two timepoints lends support to the theory that foreign language anxiety is a state anxiety, which fluctuates over time (Speilberger, 1972). The three dimensions of foreign language anxiety showed different tendencies over an instructional semester. What is interesting is that a significant decrease was detected on the students' score of *fear of failing the class*, which was the highest rated among the three dimensions of the FLCAS at both timepoints. The decrease on this dimension was experienced by all groups of participants regardless of school, grade, and gender. This decline could be related to the system of assessment to decide whether the students fail the subject or not.

The assessment of students' achievement in Indonesian high schools utilizes what is called *Kriteria Ketuntasan Minimum* (KKM) (translated as Minimum Mastery Criteria). Every subject has its own KKM score, which is determined by a Subject Teacher Forum known in Indonesian as Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran (MGMP) at the beginning of each semester. For example, the KKM score for English at the schools where the present study was conducted was 80 out of a possible score of 100. Students who did not achieve this score at the first test re-sat it to improve their results so as to achieve the KKM score. It was very unlikely that a student would not achieve this KKM score after the second test. The opportunity provided for the students to re-sit the test seems to contribute greatly to the decrease in students' score

on *fear of failing the class*. This was reflected in the students' remarks during the interviews. They were not too concerned about the consequences of failing the class because they knew there would be another chance to improve their score and to meet the required grade. As the same assessment system was applicable at the two types of school involved in this study and across grades, it was predictable that the students' score of *fear of failing the class* would decrease across the two timepoints.

6.4.2 Changes in students' scores on *communication apprehension*.

The second dimension of the FLCAS, *communication apprehension*, increased significantly for students in Year 11 at both schools but not in Year 10. Analysis by gender and school did not reveal significant changes. This challenges previous research findings by Liu (2005) that the more experienced the students, the less anxious they tend to be. The only significant increase on Year 11 students' score implied that there were particular causes, which were only applicable to these students. In fact, there were two causes that emerged from the interviews with the students. The first related to two of the teachers' classroom behaviours, *negativity* and *structure*; and the second, to the participant's stage of schooling.

When probed about how teachers' negative behaviour made them feel anxious, the students' elaborated on the feelings aroused by teachers' sarcastic and negative comments, resulting in the students experiencing a faster heartbeat, shaking hands and dry mouth and throat, all signs of anxiety. When these happened, students went blank and could not say anything, despite making their best effort to produce an

utterance. This finding accords with previous research examining anxiety from the students' perspectives (Worde, 2003). Although Worde's study involved much older students compared to the participants of the present study, students reported that teacher-related factors were the most bothering aspect of the classroom learning experience.

Furthermore, students explained how unclear structuring of the class contributed to the increase in their *communication apprehension*. What they meant by unclear structuring of the class were the abrupt changes from one classroom activity to another as directed by the teacher. In other words, the teacher did not stick to the activity she had previously mentioned but tended to change abruptly, causing confusion. These situations left students unprepared to do the new unplanned activity, especially if it was related to oral performances ranging from responding to the teacher's single question or an individual oral presentation.

The increase in *communication apprehension* due to inadequate time to prepare for presentations was in line with findings of a previous study conducted among learners of English in Sarawak, Malaysia (Tom, Johari, Rozaimi & Huzaimah, 2013). Unclear structuring of the class, such as abrupt changes of classroom activities, created a degree of uncertainty in students or lower predictability of expectations. As argued by Turner (1988), lack of predictability can lead to anxiety. The more unpredictable the situation is, the more likely an individual experiences *communication apprehension*.

Students' explanations with regard to the increase in their score on *communication apprehension* confirm at least two out of six potential sources of foreign language anxiety identified by Young (1991). Young identified one of the sources of students' foreign language anxiety as instructor-learner interaction. In this study, this was reflected in students' description of teachers' negativity. Another source of anxiety, according to Young, is classroom procedures. This was reflected in unclear structuring of the class as described by the students.

Classroom observations conducted in Year 11 classes at both ISS and non-ISS confirmed the results of the interviews. Teachers at this grade level tended to make negative comments after students' oral or writing performance on the whiteboard. Although meaningful communicative activities such as oral presentations or dialogues did not take place very frequently, some activities which required students to speak in front of others, such as oral quizzes or being called on to respond orally in English, were observed in almost every class session. Teachers' negative responses were given immediately after a poor oral performance or incorrect answer was written on the whiteboard. In many observed classes, after giving negative comments, the teacher asked some follow-up questions which required students to spontaneously clarify their previous incorrect answer. These follow-up questions escalated students' anxiety because they were required to speak after just receiving negative feedback. In addition, it appeared some teachers made negative comments quite intentionally in an effort to challenge students to study even harder and to always produce correct answers in the classroom.

This was in line with what Brandl (1987) found in a study where the majority of instructors believed that students needed to be slightly intimidated to boost their motivation and to facilitate their performance. In a similar vein, researchers have argued that some anxiety is considered necessary to make students strive to do their best (Alpert & Haber, 1960; Bailey, 1983; Liu, 2006; Oxford, 1999). However, negative comments given by some teachers in this study were found to be important factors serving to increase students' anxiety levels. Gudykunst (1993) contended that people have minimum and maximum thresholds of anxiety; when a person experiences anxiety above his/her maximum threshold, he/she does not want to communicate with others. The fact that students in the present study could not say anything was evident in the classroom observations and confirmed by the interview results, indicating that students are likely to have experienced anxiety above their maximum threshold.

It is unfortunate that Year 11 teachers seemed to not be aware that their comments brought detrimental effects to students' learning outcomes. As observed, the teachers gave negative comments repeatedly, suggesting that they were not aware that their comments would make students anxious and impede both students' performance and progress. This finding is in agreement with previous research conducted in Vietnam, which found that English teachers did not consider foreign language anxiety as a serious problem and assumed that only very small numbers of students suffered from anxiety (Trang, et al., 2013).

The second cause, the stage of schooling, also contributed to the increase of Year 11 students' *communication apprehension*. In the Indonesian education system, Year 11 marks an important milestone during the senior secondary school. At Year 11, students begin to study the subjects related to the stream of their choice. Students are streamed into three divisions: the Natural Sciences stream, the Social Sciences stream and the Language stream. It was critically important for students to choose the stream very carefully as their future studies and career would be limited to the field related to the chosen stream. For example, students who were in Social Science stream could not continue to study for a major in the Natural Sciences field such as engineering or biomedical science. In other words, in Year 11, students embark on a pathway to their careers and future life, which may contribute to their level of anxiety, especially in English classes. Their English score is important for entry into these different fields at the university level.

One of the important findings of the present study was the absence of gender differences, a finding that lends support to the work of Rosenfeld and Belko (1990) who proposed "gender is not significant in communication anxiety" (p. 125). Two other studies involving learners of English in Japan and in an immersion program in Canada (MacIntyre et.al., 2002; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004), reported similar findings, although this does not appear to be consistent with research by MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan (2002) who found that boys' anxiety level remained constant across Year 7 to 9 while girls showed a decrease in anxiety from Year 8 to 9. The study of the role of gender in foreign language anxiety has revealed inconsistent

results, with some claiming that females were less anxious than males (Hasan &

Fatimah, 2014; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983) whereas

others have shown that males were less anxious (Kitano, 2001; Öztürk & Gürbüz,

2013; Park & French, 2013; Rafek, Ramli, Iksan, Harith &Abbas, 2014).

The absence of gender differences in language anxiety reported by the

participants in the present study may be attributed to the learners' cultural

background. Park and French (2013) argue that females tend to be more reticent in

interactions because they have grown up in a male-dominated society. The reverse

cultural context, a matrilineal society, was applicable in West Sumatra, the province

where the present study was conducted. The Minangkabau, the ethnic group who

reside in West Sumatra, represent the world's biggest matrilineal society. In such a

society, women are dominant and there are two key principles that endorse women's

dominance in the household and in society more broadly (Blackwood, 2000). First is

matrilineal inheritance of property, which means the ancestral property is inherited by

daughters from their mothers; the second is matrilocal residence which means that

married couples live with the wife's family. These features are reflected in West

Sumatran girls' interactions in their daily life and may contribute to girls being less

anxious in the classroom, resulting in no differences between girls and boys.

6.4.3 The stability in students' scores on *fear of negative evaluation.*

As far as *fear of negative evaluation* was concerned, the present study

revealed that it was relatively stable across the two timepoints. The results of the

interviews provided further insight into students' feelings with regard to this. One

student cited that *fear of negative evaluation* by classmates was more dominant than

formal negative evaluation given by the teacher in academic records. This finding

reinforced previous research studies examining foreign language anxiety experienced

by Asian students as they considered evaluation from friends more important because

of the fear of 'losing face' (Lucas, Miraflores, & Go, 2011; Ohata, 2005). The

findings of the present study also provide empirical evidence that this feeling was not

only shared by students learning English in a foreign country, such as Japanese

learners of English in the US as reported in Ohata's study, but also experienced by

foreign language learners studying the target language in their home country.

Although the present study revealed that the classroom environment did not aggravate

this dimension of anxiety, students did experience moderate levels of *fear of negative*

evaluation until the end of the semester.

6.5 Changes in Students' Motivation

The results of quantitative analyses revealed that, in general, students'

motivation to learn English in high school changed over time. Some dimensions of

students' motivation changed differentially, depending on school and grade level,

providing further support to previous findings by Pintrich (2003) that motivation was

highly context-dependent and a dynamic variable influenced by learning

environments (Dörnyei 2005; Ushioda 1996). The increases and the decreases of the

motivation dimensions over an instructional semester are discussed separately in the following sections.

6.5.1 Increase in motivation dimensions.

That students generally exhibited an increase in three dimensions, *intrinsic goal orientation*, *task value* and *extrinsic goal orientation* challenged the common phenomenon that student' motivations to study in general tended to decline across the school year. It has been argued that "over the course of the school year, students' motivation on average declines or becomes less adaptive as the students entered the junior high school or middle school years" (Pintrich, 2003, p. 680). In line with this, empirical evidence from the United States and Western Europe reported that students' motivation declined over time (Lamb, 2007). With respect to the increase in *intrinsic goal orientation* in particular, this finding of the present study was inconsistent with those of Wigfield, Eccles, and Rodriguez (1998), who argued that, over the school years, learners tend to be less intrinsically motivated to study. In a similar vein, a study conducted in an Asian context revealed that intrinsic motivation of Japanese learners of English in Japan declined from the third through the sixth grade of elementary school (Carreira, 2011). Although this study was conducted over a relatively shorter time frame compared to these previous studies, the reverse tendency was exhibited by the participants. This may be an indication that the students were in an advantageous learning environment which, enhanced their motivation.

It was considered important to find the causes of the increase in *intrinsic goal orientation* experienced by the participants in the present study for at least two

reasons. One is that intrinsic motivation has been confirmed as a predictor of a number of positive outcome variables in learning, including perceived competence, perceived autonomy, lower anxiety and a positive attitude toward language learning (Clement, Dörnyei, & Noel, 1994; Ehrman, 1996; Noels et al. 1999, 2000, 2001; Tachibana et al., 1996). Another is that this has not been a common phenomenon reported by previous research and the discussion offers new evidence for researchers in this area to consider.

Studies conducted by Noels et al. (1999, 2000), Noels, Clement and Pelletier (2001) and Deci and Ryan (2000) suggested that perceived competence and autonomy are two antecedents of *intrinsic motivation*, which play an important role in sustaining it. The results of interviews with the student participants and classroom observations indicated that perceived competence contributed to an increase in participants' *intrinsic motivation*. Perceived competence is developed through accomplishment of moderately-challenging tasks (Bronson, 2000). The feeling of satisfaction resulting from success experiences in completing reasonably challenging tasks creates a sense of competence, which results in the development of learners' intrinsic motivation. In the case of the present study, the teachers may have set the tasks at an appropriate level of difficulty so the students gained confidence in their ability to do the tasks. This was supported by one student from the group who showed an increase in motivation (IM), who throughout the semester became more confident and felt more competent in English, especially when she could complete the tasks with very little assistance from the teacher. She acquired new vocabulary and

developed her skills by doing the assignments and all the tasks. Another student explained that he was becoming more interested in English compared to the start of the semester as he found the lessons were interesting. The teachers used different teaching techniques to raise students' interest in the language.

It was also evident in some classroom observations that teachers could create an enjoyable learning environment by using various types of activities such as group performances, role plays and games. These findings are in agreement with those of Young (1991), who showed that students' motivation to learn was associated with instructor and instructional practices and the types of activities used in the classroom. Furthermore, the interview results revealed the important role of the teachers in increasing students' motivation over time by implementing various teaching techniques such as using group and paired works, role play, providing authentic materials and clear classroom procedures. This is in line with one of four proposals designed to improve language learners' motivation - increasing students' language-related values and attitudes, increasing their goal orientation, making the curriculum relevant and creating realistic learners' beliefs (Dörnyei, 2001)

A further factor identified by Noels et al. (1999, 2000), perceived autonomy, did not appear to play a role in the present study. Perceived autonomy refers to the freedom students felt in being able to set their own sub-objective within the main objective of learning and may include choosing their own learning content according to their abilities and interest. The classroom observations and interviews revealed that the students did not experience this kind of freedom. This is quite

understandable in the highly centralised education system in Indonesia. The system is characterised by the implementation of national curricula, which function as guidance for all schools' instruction and national examinations. Thus, there is a widespread fear that the provision of student autonomy may result in differences in the mastery of learning materials and may lead to the students' failure in their national examination. At this stage, the present study provided empirical evidence that the two antecedents of intrinsic motivation do not have to work together to develop students' intrinsic motivation but either one of the two is sufficient to perform its function. However, more research to study these two antecedents of intrinsic motivation is needed, especially in non-Western contexts.

With regard to the increase in the score for *task value*, students from the IM group stated that, as they learnt English during the semester, they were becoming more aware of the increasing importance attached to the language. This was especially apparent in the ISS, where other subjects including Mathematics and Sciences were taught in English, which expanded students' exposure to English and provided a highly utilitarian reason for learning English and increasing their valuing of English.

The absence of gender differences in students' scores on *task value* did not parallel previous research studies conducted in Western contexts which found that female students perceived English as more interesting and important than their male counterparts (e.g Wigfield, Eccles, Mac Iver, Reuman, & Midgley, 1991; Wolters & Pintrich, 1998). This discrepancy could be explained in at least two ways; first, the

status of English as a compulsory subject tested in national examinations in Indonesia and, second, students' awareness of the increasing importance attached to English. With respect to the first reason, all students sit the national examination for English at the end of Year 12 and their score is one of the determinants of successful graduation from senior secondary school. Thus, it is understandable that male and female students hold a similar view about the importance and value of English. In addition, in an increasingly globalised world, Indonesians are becoming more aware that English is an important language to learn. The mastery of English can open doors to wider opportunities, not only in academic fields but also for future careers. This view may well have raised male students' perceptions of English to equal females.

With respect to *extrinsic goal orientation*, only students at non-ISS experienced a significant increase; no significant changes were exhibited by their counterparts at ISS. This finding is unlike that reported by Lasagabaster (2011), who compared the motivation and language proficiency of students studying in two different approaches: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and EFL settings in secondary schools in Spain. These approaches shared similarities with the two different school types, ISS and non-ISS, that were the subject of the present study. The first approach, CLIL, shared similarities with the ISS in which students learn some content subjects in English (Mathematics and Science) and the second approach (EFL) was similar to the non-ISS, in which students learn and are exposed to English only through their formal English lessons. While the present study revealed a significant increase in non-ISS students' *extrinsic goal orientation*, Lasagabaster's study found that CLIL

students were better motivated. This discrepancy in the findings could be explained as follows.

The MSLQ manual clearly defined *extrinsic goal orientation* as "the degree a student perceived his/herself to be participating in his/her task for reasons such as grades, rewards, performances, evaluation by others and competition" (Pintrich et al., 1991, p. 10). It seemed that non-ISS students were more enthusiastic about obtaining a good grade in English and, therefore, their study behaviors were regulated by this type of motivation. Conversely, in the ISS environment, in which students have acquired a better mastery of English since they enrolled, obtaining a good grade in this subject was not their ultimate goal. They were more confident with English and possibly took it for granted that they would get a good grade in English as they have used this language in more difficult contexts, to study sciences and mathematics. Thus, the effect of achieving a good grade seemed to diminish among ISS. This explanation supports the theoretical model that different motivational constructs may be applicable at different stages of the language learning process (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). In this case, non-ISS and ISS students could be viewed as being at different stages of their development. ISS students could be considered to be at a more advanced stage due to their greater level of exposure to English and it is, therefore, not surprising that they were not solely driven by an ambition to get a reward such as a good mark.

6.5.2 Decrease in motivation dimensions.

As previously mentioned, research studies conducted in various contexts including the United States, Western Europe and Asia have provided a growing body of empirical evidence which suggests that students' motivation tends to decrease throughout the school year (Bernaus, Moore & Azevedo, 2007; Carreira, 2011; Lamb, 2007; Pintrich, 2003; Tachibana, Matsukawa, & Zhong, 1996, Zhang, 2007). With respect to some dimensions of motivation, student participants in the present study reported corresponding results to previous findings. It was revealed that, over the two timepoints, students' *test anxiety*, *control of learning beliefs* and *self-efficacy for learning and performance* tended to decrease.

Test anxiety was the only dimension which showed similar significant decreases across school, grade and gender groups as indicated by the absence of significant interaction effects between variables. This is understandable due to the type of test students need to undertake during the semester and the way the tests were assessed and marked. In the Indonesian schooling system, students sit formal tests twice throughout the semester, a mid-semester test and an end-of- semester test. Based on the researcher's observations, the skills tested on both tests were only receptive skills (listening and reading) in the form of multiple-choice tests. The absence of productive skills tests, especially a speaking or oral test which was previously reported as one of the anxiety provoking factors (Worde, 2003), may contribute to the decrease in student' test anxiety. In addition, the multiple-choice test could be considered less challenging because students can guess answers from the

available options. Furthermore, the system of assessment that provides an opportunity for students to re-sit the test before awarding their final mark (see section 6.3.1) may also contribute to a decline in the *test anxiety* score.

Students' *control of learning beliefs* showed a significant decrease in non-ISS only; while the change in this score at ISS between the two timepoints was not significant. According to the MSLQ manual (Pintrich et.al, 1991, p. 12) *control of learning beliefs* refers to "students' belief that their effort to learn will result in positive outcome". The interviews conducted with non-ISS students, supported by the findings obtained through classroom observations, revealed that the deterioration of ISS students' scores on this dimension was associated with at least three factors, namely teachers' classroom behavior, learning content and materials, and classroom environment. In terms of teacher's classroom behavior, students cited the issue of *relatedness* as one of the demotivating factors. Students who felt that they were unfairly treated by the teacher reported experiencing frustration and thought that their best effort would never bring good results since the teachers would not pay enough attention to their work. In fact, teacher-related factors have been reported consistently from previous research studies as one of the demotivating factors in learning a foreign language. For example, Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) reported that Japanese high school learners of English exhibited a decrease in their motivation due to a teacher's favouring of students with good English ability. In the present study, the survey, interviews and classroom observations revealed that teacher-related behaviours acted as a demotivating factor at ISS.

Students also cited several other teacher-related behaviours that demotivated them, namely teacher's inadequate teaching and classroom management skills, low level English mastery, inappropriate teaching materials and students' belief about the target language. Teachers with a lack of classroom management skills could not ensure that the activities and the class ran appropriately, resulting in a noisy and disorganised class. Lack of teaching skills resulted in repetitive classroom activities which made students bored and demotivated. All these teacher related aspects were also reported in previous research (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Another factor that played an important role in the decrease in students' *control of learning beliefs* was learning content and materials. A highly demotivated student from non-ISS cited that big differences between English and Indonesian which include grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation led him to believe that his own effort would not bring good results. This student's remarks are compatible with the findings reported by Sakai and Kikuchi (2009). As far as learning the materials were concerned, a non-ISS student indicated that the topic of the reading texts used in the classroom did not meet her expectations. As described at the start of this chapter, the majority of the students in the present study was extrinsically motivated and wanted to learn English for career-based reasons or to pursue further studies. Reading texts such as fairy tales used as learning materials in their classes were considered by the students as having very little or no contribution to the improvement of their English to the level they wanted to achieve. They expected more academic reading texts with vocabulary related to the subjects they were

studying. Similar to this, participants in the study by Sakai and Kikuchi (2009)
reported that learning materials contributed to the decrease in students' motivation. In
contrast to the participants of the present study who cited that the reading texts were
too easy and childish, Sakai and Kikuchi's participants reported that the passages
used were too long and difficult with too much focus on grammar.

Students' belief about language teaching was revealed as one of the
demotivating factors for the participants in the present study. Believing that their
grammar should be appropriately correct when speaking has caused students to
refrain from trying to speak the language. In Indonesian context, the strong belief in
this factor could be the results of grammar-translation method used in teaching
English in Indonesia for an extended period of time.

Self- efficacy for learning and performance refers to expectancy for success
and self-confidence. In other words, students believe that they will be successful in
mastering the course material and gaining good results. Compared to the dynamic
nature of other dimensions, the change in *self-efficacy for learning and performance*
between the two timepoints occurred in the smallest group, which was only for boys
at non-ISS. It was quite puzzling as classroom observations and interviews did not
detect any evidence applicable only to boys at non-ISS. The fact that boys' *self-
efficacy* declined over time differs from the findings of a very recent research study
investigating learners of French (D'Lima, Winsler, & Kitsantas, 2014). That study
reported that students' self- efficacy continued to increase over a semester with males
consistently showing higher levels of self-efficacy at both timepoints compared with

their female counterparts. The discrepancy could be explained in terms of students' age in that the participants of D'lima's et al. study were university students. At the university level, overall academic self-efficacy was more evident compared to a younger age. In contrast, prior work involving middle school students in the US found no differences in gender (Pajares & Graham, 1999) adding conflicting results concerning gender differences in the dynamicity of students' self-efficacy in learning a foreign language. The discrepancy may be due to cultural differences between the places where the studies were conducted.

After comparing students' motivation by school, grade and gender, it could be concluded that there were few differences between the groups. As far as grade level was concerned, participants did not differ in motivation between Years 10 and 11, unlike previous studies in which students' motivation declined through the school year (Bernaus, et al., 2007; Carreira, 2011; Lamb, 2007; Pintrich, 2003; Tachibana et al., 1996). Similarly, with respect to gender, participants in the present study did not exhibit significant differences, adding conflicting results to the studies on students' motivation in learning a foreign language.

The only noticeable difference by schools was significantly higher increase in *task value* scores for ISS students' compared to the scores of non-ISS students. Interview revealed that ISS students' value English highly because they see their real use of English through learning contents subjects, science and mathematics in English. This finding lend support to a previous study by Lasagabaster (2011), who reported that students from CLIL program with greater exposure to English, similar to ISS,

were more motivated to learn English compared to their counterparts who had less exposure to English.

6.6. Relationships between Teacher's Classroom Behaviour, Students' Foreign Language Anxiety and Motivation

6.6.1 Relationship between teacher's classroom behaviour and students' foreign language anxiety.

With respect to correlations among the variables, the first objective was to examine the association between the three dimensions of students' foreign language anxiety and the four dimensions of students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours. As anticipated, with the exception of *negativity*, students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours correlated negatively with students' foreign language anxiety. This was true when the examination was conducted involving all participants and by school, grade and gender.

It appeared that, among the four dimensions of teacher's classroom behaviors, students' perceptions of teachers' *expectations* and *structure* played a more important role in influencing students' language anxiety than their personal relationships with the teacher, as reflected in stronger correlations between those two dimensions and foreign language anxiety. Although previous research conducted in different contexts reported that students' close interpersonal relationship with the teacher could lessen their feelings of anxiety (Bracken & Crain, 1994), the findings of the present study suggest that, in this context, it is not necessarily as powerful as learners' perceptions

of *expectation* and *structure*. In other words, for the participants in the present study, teachers' clear expectations of the students and well-structured classes were more important in mitigating participants' anxiety than their relationship with the teacher.

The interviews provided further explanations as to why those dimensions were more influential with regard to students' feelings of anxiety than *relatedness*. When clear *structures* and *expectations* were missing, classroom activities did not run as expected by the students and they were often left with insufficient time to prepare to speak because teachers changed classroom activities abruptly and did not follow the structure of the class as planned. Lack of time to prepare has also been identified in previous studies as a source of anxiety in speaking (Horwitz, 1986; Mak, 2011; Young, 1990). In a study also conducted in Indonesia (Marwan, 2008), it was reported that this was one of the factors that triggered students' anxiety, with the situation being exacerbated when the teacher's expectations were not clearly communicated to the students. As students were not ready and were not sure of what was expected of them, when they were asked to perform they experienced fear *of negative evaluation* not only from the teacher but also from their classmates. Similar findings were reported by Young (1990) with respect to speaking in front of others. In that study, students worried they would appear foolish or ignorant in front of their peers, a finding which corroborated the assertion that peers play an important role in influencing individual students' engagement. Studies conducted in Asian contexts have revealed that one characteristic of Asian students is fear of 'losing face' in front of others. In communal societies such as in Indonesia, gaining trust from others is

important so it is hardly amazing, then, that students in the present study who rated their teacher low on *structure* and *expectation* were those who were higher on foreign language anxiety.

The positive and strong significant relationships between all the FLCAS dimensions and students' perception of *negativity* confirmed that teachers' negative comments contributed to students' foreign language anxiety. A body of research has previously reported similar findings (Mak, 2011; Worde, 2003). The student interviews identified aspects of the teachers' classroom behaviours that could be categorized as negative. One important point mentioned by the students was error correction. In support of previous research by Worde (2003) and Young (1990), the student participants of the present study reported that harsh error correction was the prominent cause of their anxiety. In addition, students quoted that their feelings of anxiety escalated if the teacher used their errors to elaborate teaching points because they felt that their errors were publicized, lending further support to a study by Mak (2011). This was noticeable during some classroom observations although it did not occur frequently. Unfortunately, the teacher did not seem aware that elaborating on students' errors provoked students' anxiety.

6.6.2 Relationship between teacher's classroom behaviour and students' motivation.

With the exception of *test anxiety*, the results of the correlational analyses clearly indicated that the majority of students' motivation dimensions showed positive and significant relationships with their perceptions of teachers' classroom

behaviours, a finding that could explain why good teacher-student interpersonal relationships identified in the literature (Brekelmans & Wubbels, 1991; den Brok, Brekelmans, & Wubbels 2004; Wubbels & Brekelmans, 2005) were one of the major factors to impact students' motivation.

The strongest significant correlation between motivation dimensions and students' perception of teachers' classroom behaviours was negative, that is between *test anxiety* and three dimensions of teachers' behaviour (all except *negativity*). Students who rated the teacher low in *expectation*, *structure* and *relatedness* were more likely to experience an increase in *test anxiety*.

Research on test anxiety has revealed factors related to this construct and situation which may evoke this feeling. These include self-referenced factors such as fear of failure, fear of negative evaluation from others and threat to esteem or position as important to the test anxiety construct (Lowe, et al., 2008; Meijer, 2001; Zeidner, 1998). Evaluative situations such as the nature of the task, difficulty, atmosphere, time constraints, examiner characteristics, mode of administration and physical settings were also identified as associated with students' test anxiety (Zeidner, 1998). In addition, students who perceived themselves as having lower competence reported experiencing higher test anxiety (Zeidner & Matthews, 2005). However, none of the existing findings relate students' anxiety to their perception of teachers' classroom behaviour and, therefore, the present study provided new evidence. Further research involving students from different contexts and levels is called for to further confirm the findings.

The highest positive and significant correlation was between *self-efficacy for learning and performance* and all student-reported TSS subscales except *negativity*. This suggests that, in this particular context, students' perception of teachers' classroom behaviour had stronger associations with students' positive expectations of their performance and their confidence in mastering the tasks than with other dimensions of motivation such as *intrinsic* or *extrinsic goal orientation*. In other words, students who believed that they would receive an excellent grade in the class and were certain that they could master the skills being taught were more likely to perceive their teacher more positively.

Relationships between students' perception of their teachers' behaviour and motivation have been studied previously and the construct of relatedness has attracted many researchers' attention using different terms, such as connectedness and belonging (Furrer & Skinner, 2003) and emotionally supportive teaching (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013). Previous studies have revealed that students' perceptions of their positive relationship with the teacher were predictive of students' academic self-concept, intrinsic motivation for schoolwork, engagement and help-seeking behaviours (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Huges, Wu, Kwok, Villarreal & Johnson, 2012; Katz, Kaplan, & Gueta, 2010; Marchand & Skinner, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2013; Skinner, Furrer, Marchand, & Kinderman, 2008). The present study provides evidence to further support previous research findings that students' perceptions of relatedness with the teacher were positively and moderately related with multiple

dimensions of motivation including *self-efficacy for learning and performance, task value* and *intrinsic goal orientation.*

The analysis of the relationships between students' perception of teachers' classroom behaviour and their motivation to study showed some interesting differences between boys and girls. With regard to gender, in general, positive perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour seemed to be more important for girls' motivation than for boys', providing support for previous findings by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2013). One noticeable tendency is that girls' positive perceptions about their relationships with the teacher were strongly associated with their *extrinsic goal orientation*, more than any other motivation dimensions. As most of the items listed under *extrinsic goal orientation*s in the MSLQ were about students' motivation to get a good grade. A possible explanation for this is that girls tend to believe that a good relationship with the teacher will result in getting a good grade. However, no firm conclusion can be drawn about this until it is further examined in future research.

It is also important to note that teachers' *negativity* did not affect boys' motivations as indicated by the absence of significant relationships between this variable and all motivation dimensions for boys. For girls, teachers' negative behaviour significantly affected their *self-efficacy for learning and performance* and *test anxiety*. Gender differences in students' perception of teachers' negative behaviour revealed in the present study were not in line with previous research findings conducted in a different setting which found that one type of teachers' negative behaviour, called directly-controlling teacher behaviour, was as harmful for

girls' motivation and anxiety as it was for boys; (Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon & Roth, 2005). The negative behaviours examined by that study included giving frequent directives, not allowing critical opinion and interfering with students' preferred learning approach. The discrepancy may be due to differences in the gender of the teachers who participated in the studies. Previous studies reported that, in relation to emotional and personal issues, students preferred teachers of the same gender as themselves (Martin, 2005). In other words, girls prefer female teachers and they may take the comments and feedback given by these teachers more to heart than from male teachers. This may be an explanation for the present study: because only female teachers participated in the study, teachers' negative comments related to emotional and personal issues affected girls more than boys.

6.7 Relationship between Students' Achievement and Other Examined Variables

6.7.1 Achievement and foreign language anxiety.

The results of the Time 1 data collection indicated no significant correlation between students' foreign language anxiety and students' achievement. There are at least two plausible reasons for this. One reason may be because Time 1 data collection was at the very beginning of the semester, students may not have been thinking about any achievement tests at that time. The second is, students may not have sufficient classroom experience to precisely rate their foreign language anxiety.

The major finding obtained from T2 was that there was an inverse relationship between students' foreign language anxiety and achievement. Generally, this finding

maintained previous research findingsin relation to different contexts and different target languages that foreign language anxiety hinders language achievement (Aida, 1994; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Horwitz, 2001, MacIntyre & Gardner, 19989; Samimy, 1994; Skehan, 1989). However, when scrutinizing foreign language anxiety dimensions closely, each dimension of foreign language anxiety associated quite differently with students' achievement. For the total sample, negative and significant correlations were revealed between each of *fear of failing the class* and *fear of negative evaluation* with achievement. The correlation between *communication apprehension* and PET scores as a measure of students' achievement failed to reach statistical significance. This was inconsistent with previous research findings focusing on the association between foreign language anxiety and oral communication achievement, which reported that foreign language anxiety significantly hindered students' oral performance (Cheng, e. al., 1999; Hewitt & Stephensons, 2012; Philips, 1992). The absence of a significant relationship between *communication apprehension* and achievement score in the present study could be likely explained by the type of test involved to measure students' achievement. As the PET test used in the present study only included a reading and writing test, it is not surprising that there was no significant relationship with the *communication apprehension* detected.

An important finding was the differences between the two schools. Fewer but stronger correlations were found at non-ISS than at ISS. This finding provided new empirical evidence regarding the relationships in two different types of school. None

of the previous studies conducted between 1986 and 2010, as described in a very recent, systematic and comprehensive review by Al-Shboul et al. (2013) on the relationships between foreign language anxiety and students' achievement, attempted to compare the relationships between these variables in these different types of schools.

As far as the investigation by grade was concerned, it was revealed that Year 11 students' scores on the FLCAS dimensions exhibited a lower correlation with the PET score. For this grade, only *fear of negative evaluation* showed an inverse and significant correlation with achievement whereas other relationships were not significant. This implied that Year 11 students' achievement was less affected by foreign language anxiety compared to their grade 10 counterparts. The finding was in substantial agreement with a previous study by Chen (2007) comparing two consecutive levels, the fifth and the sixth graders in Taiwan. Chen's study reported that the correlation between foreign language anxieties appeared to be stronger in the lower level grade (fifth graders) than the higher one (sixth graders). That stronger correlations between foreign language anxiety and achievement were exhibited by Year 10 students can be interpreted in the context of the Indonesian high school, since at this year level students had just started a new phase in their high school education. Unlike in Australia, where students proceed from Year 9 to Year 10 at the same secondary school, in Indonesia students commence Year 10 at a different senior secondary school, called *Sekolah Menengah Atas* (SMA). At the time of the data collection, Year 10 students were in a very new academic environment with new

teachers and new classmates who may have contributed to a feeling of anxiety and competition. This was confirmed by an interview with one Year 10 student who indicated that he was very nervous in the new academic environment.

6.7.2 Achievement and motivation.

One noticeable tendency revealed by the correlation analyses was that students' motivation at Time 1 showed fewer significant correlations with their achievement scores compared to those measured at Time 2. This was true when the analysis was conducted either for all participants or separately by school, grade and gender, implying that closer to the end of the semester, when students prepared themselves for the end of semester test, their motivation started to play a more important role in influencing their achievement. This suggests that motivation played a different role at different stages of learning (Lamb, 2007).

It is important to note that two of the motivation dimensions, *intrinsic goal orientation* and *task value* consistently showed significant and positive correlations with students' achievement over time indicating that these two types of motivation played an important role in encouraging students to perform at their best. With regard to *intrinsic goal orientation*, the findings were congruent with the prior works (Ellis, 1998; Gardner, 1985; Noels, et al., (2001) which showed that intrinsic motivation led to sustained and long-term success in foreign/L2 learning. In the Asian context, the present study supports previous research investigating Chinese learners of English, which showed that students' intrinsic motivation correlated significantly with

students' achievement (Wang, 2008); although that study utilized a different scale to measure *intrinsic motivation*, the items were in accordance with the definition of intrinsic goal orientation used in the present study.

The present study, similarly, found *self-efficacy for learning and performance* was strongly and positively correlated with students' achievement. In their review of motivational research, Graham and Weiner (1996) showed that self-efficacy displayed stronger relationships with students' academic outcomes than any other motivational construct. Researchers focused on self-efficacy have demonstrated why this dimension of motivation is very influential in relation to students' academic performance, citing grounds including: students' willingness to commit to doing more challenging tasks, persistence in undertaking tasks despite the presence of obstructions (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Schunk, 1982); and the use of more learning strategies (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). Some of these reasons were identified in the present study. For instance, a student explained that, to obtain a good grade in English, she tried different learning strategies including reading English magazines, watching English movies, listening to English songs and communicating with her Facebook friends from other countries using English.

The analysis conducted by school, grade and gender revealed almost no differences between the groups in the strength of the correlations between *self-efficacy for learning and performance* and student achievement. As far as gender was concerned, this is not consistent with previous research investigating gender differences involving these variables by D'Lima et al. (2014). That study reported

that male students showed higher self-efficacy than their female counterparts. The difference is likely due to a different setting and the academic subjects under investigation. D'Lima's et al. study did not focus on students' foreign language achievement but rather students' general achievement during their first semester at university as measured by their Grade Point Average (GPA). Studies have reported that gender differences in self-efficacy vary with the particular academic subject area under scrutiny (Jacobs, Lanza, Osgood, Eccles, & Wigfield, 2002; Wigfield, Eccels, J.S, Mac Iver, Reuman, Mudgley, 1991). Moreover, there have been too few research studies focusing on the role of this dimension in foreign language learning (Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006). Findings from the present study provide evidence of the role of self-efficacy in influencing students' achievement in foreign language learning.

The absence of significant correlations between *extrinsic goal orientation* and students' achievement scores sits in contrast to prior research findings. A study by Chiang, Yang, Huang, and Liou (2014), investigating the relationship between Taiwanese university students' motivation and their English learning achievement using the same MSLQ scale, reported significant and positive correlation between these variables. The discrepancy could be related to the learning environment of the study. Chiang et al.'s study used a 3D virtual learning environment which provided students with a real-world, learning setting. This enabled students to simulate real-life situations and to practise without having limitations in terms of time and space. This vivid environment where students could immerse themselves during oral practices was not available in a traditional classroom, the subject of the present study where

teacher-centered approaches with a focus on grammar, reading and vocabulary were predominant. The communicative activities in which students engaged and conversed in the target language were rarely practised. The interviews also revealed that students were demotivated in this monotonous classroom atmosphere and therefore did not put their best effort into studying. In line with the findings of the present study, Lasagabaster (2011) argued that the lack of oral practice and teacher-centered methodology in secondary school diminished students' motivation.

Taking into account all of the motivational dimensions measured in the present study, correlational analyses by school revealed that motivations played a more influential role in students' achievement at ISS than at non-ISS. This finding was consistent with Lasagabaster (2011), who found that the motivation of students with more exposure to English correlated positively with their English achievement. On the other hand, having to study English as a foreign language and as a compulsory subject at school has been reported by a number of research studies as one of the demotivating factors (Chambers, 1999; Davies & Brember, 2001; Marrion, Burden & Lanvers, 2002). Therefore, it was to be expected that non-ISS students' motivation showed fewer significant correlations with achievement.

Interview data and classroom observations were consistent with these findings. A student from ISS indicated that learning other subjects in English, such as Mathematics and Science, had showed her examples of how English is used in a real life situation.Thus, direct exposure to the use of English outside the English lesson could sustain students' motivation to learn it.This is in line with Krashen (1985) who

argued that, in content-based instruction approaches, students were exposed to meaningful and comprehensible input in context which was considered essential in foreign language learning. In addition, classroom observation revealed that ISS students were more enthusiastic and engaged during the teaching and learning process compared to their non-ISS counterparts. At Time 2, correlational analyses by grade revealed surprising results in that none of the dimensions of motivation correlated significantly with achievement of Year 11 students. The absence of significant correlations between variables under scrutiny for these Year 11 students was difficult to explain.

Correlation analyses conducted at Time 1 and Time 2 by gender revealed more significant correlations between motivation dimensions and students' achievement for boys than for girls. It was quite surprising that, at Time 1, only intrinsic motivation correlated significantly with girls' achievement and at Time 2 no significant correlations were revealed. This suggests that, for girls, foreign language anxiety played a more important role in determining students' achievement than motivation.

Although the topic of the relationship between foreign students' motivation and language achievement is quite well researched (Lasagabaster, 2011; Liu, & Huang, 2011; Masgarot & Gardner, 2003; Wang, 2008) none of these studies examined gender differences in the relationships between motivation and language achievement. Therefore, this study provides new empirical evidence that motivation

is more influential for boys' language achievement, however further research is needed.

The relationship between test anxiety and students' achievement is also well-researched and, as anticipated, among the six motivation dimensions measured by the MSLQ, *test anxiety* was the only dimension which showed a negative correlation with students' achievement. Although the correlation was not very strong, it suggests that students who were highly anxious during the test would perform worse than their less anxious counterparts, supporting previous research findings by Aida (1994), In'nami (2006), and Young (1991). This negative correlation held for the analysis conducted for all participants and also by school and gender, suggesting that the negative correlations did not affect the nature of the relationship between test anxiety and students' achievement. However, examination by grade revealed slightly different results. Negative correlations were noted for Year 10 but not for Year 11 students.

There are several reasons why students experienced test anxiety including (1) lack of preparation including failure to organize text information and poor time management and study habits; and (2) worrying about past performance on exams, how friends are doing and the negative consequences of failure (Birjandi & Alemi, 2010). Some of the reasons were cited by the students during the interview, such as poor time management and worry about how their friends were doing. None of the students in the interviews mentioned they were worried about the consequences of

failure, confirming students' remarks explained in the previous section that they could re-sit the test if they failed.

6.7. 3 Achievement and teachers' classroom behavior.

The results of correlational analyses between students' achievement and teachers' classroom behavior added new empirical evidence in the field of foreign language teaching due to the student-reported TSS by Watt and Richardson (2007; see Spearman &Watt, 2013) which was used to measure students' perception of teacher's classroom behaviour. Especially in the Indonesian context, this research has the distinction of being the first to investigate students' perceptions of teacher classroom behaviors using the student-reported TSS and its relationship with students' achievement.

The results backed previous research studies (den Brok et. al, 2004; den Brok, Fisher & Scott, 2005, Fisher, Waldrip, & de Brok, 2005; Kyriakides, 2005; Wubbels & Levy, 1993; Wubbels, Berekelmans, den Brok, & Tartwijk, 2006) in which students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours correlated significantly with students' achievement. Similar to the present study, the aforementioned research studies also used standardized tests as a measure of students' achievement. With the exception of *negativity*, all correlations were significantly positive. These results are not consistent with those reported in those earlier studies which revealed strong correlations between students' perception of teacher interpersonal behaviour and achievement. The present study revealed only weak relationships between students'

achievement and teachers' classroom behaviour which may be due to relatively short acquaintance with their teacher. Students in the present study only had 10 weeks of interaction with their English teacher and may not have formed strong perceptions of their teacher's behaviour, unlike the students who participated in previous studies who had a greater chance to interact with the teacher over a longer period of time.

It is interesting to note that, although correlational analyses involving all participants revealed significant relationships between all dimensions of student-reported TSS and students' achievement scores, this was not true for all groups. It was unexpected to find that girls' achievement was not at all influenced by their perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour. This was indicated by no significant relationships between any dimensions of students' reported TSS and PET scores. On the other hand, for boys, all dimensions of student-reported TSS were significantly correlated with their achievement scores. This finding was not congruent with previous research conducted in foreign language learning. There are some possible explanations why gender differences may occur. The first explanation relates to teacher's talk time. A large body of research has documented that teachers devote more time talking with boys than girls (see Croll, 1985; Dart & Clarke, 1991). These researchers have argued that this was due to differential teacher treatment rather than "discrimination" or "favoritism" (see Sunderland, 2000 a, p. 208). This was evident in some classroom observations conducted for this research and throws light on why boys' perception of teachers' classroom behaviours significantly influenced their achievement. Although girls outnumbered boys in the majority of the classes,

teachers spent less time talking to girls. It would appear that most of the teachers did so to maintain boys' attention as they seemed more off-task than girls. In addition, what was reported in previous studies with respect to the types of questions addressed to boys was also true in this study as noted during the classroom observations. Swann and Graddol (1988) reported that teachers tend to ask more challenging and open questions of boys than girls. Kelly's meta-analysis (1988) revealed that boys get more instructional interactions, more difficult questions, more academic criticism and slightly more praise than girls. In the context of the present study, these noticeable differences in questioning of boys and girls may be due to the teachers' perceptions that boys were not expected to do well in a language and not as skilled in communicating (Clark, 1998), whereas girls are often perceived to be superior in language performance and achievement. Thus, devoting more time to directing more challenging questions to boys could be seen as one of the teachers' efforts to facilitate boys to perform better. Lower levels of academic criticism, less challenging questions and less time devoted to girls in classroom interactions point to why girls' perception of teachers classroom behavior did not significantly relate to their achievement. For girls in this study, foreign language anxiety was the stronger predictor of their achievement when compared to their perception of teachers' classroom behavior or motivation.

Another important finding related to students' grade. Year11 students showed no significant relationships between any dimensions of student-reported TSS and their achievement whereas the reverse was true for Year 10 students with the

exception of *negativity*. Unlike differences in gender, the differences between grades were quite difficult to explain as there were no available studies comparing students' achievement in relation to teachers' classroom behaviours at these two levels. One possible explanation was provided by the results of classroom observation. Year 11 teachers did not exhibit extremely strong enactment of any dimensions of student-reported TSS and this measure, therefore, may have had less relevance in assessing these teachers' classroom behaviours in determining students' achievement.

Correlational analyses by school indicated a slight difference between ISS and non-ISS with more significant correlations at non-ISS. With the exception of *negativity*, all correlations at non-ISS were significant while, at ISS, only two dimensions, *negativity* and *structure*, showed significant relationships with students' achievement. It is interesting to note that, for students at non ISS, only positive dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviour correlated positively with their achievement whereas students' perception of *negativity* did not significantly associate with students' achievement. The differences between ISS and non-ISS in terms of the relationships between student-reported TSS and their achievement seemed to show that non-ISS students were more advantaged on at least two points. First, ISS students obtained only positive influences from teachers' classroom behaviour so the better the students perceived their teachers' classroom behaviour, the better their achievement. Second, negative teacher behaviours did not have any significant influences on ISS students' achievement. On the other hand, non-ISS students' achievement was significantly influenced by teachers' negative behaviours, and only

one out of the three positive dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviors was associated significantly with students' achievement. This indicates that, if students at both schools had teachers with similar classroom behaviors, students at non-ISS would be more likely to show better achievement as they were only significantly influenced by teachers' positive behaviour and not by their negative ones.

However, why the differences appeared between the two schools was not readily apparent. Classroom observations did not provide insight as there were not many differences between teachers at the two schools, nor did the interviews with the students shed light on this matter. A possible explanation was that students at ISS were more independent in learning and, therefore, less affected by the teachers' classroom behaviours. In addition, as they were also exposed to English in other subjects, such as Mathematics and Science, the English teachers' classroom behaviour may be of less concern to them.

6.7.4 Motivation and foreign language anxiety.

Research studies investigating the relationships between motivation and foreign language anxiety are relatively scarce. Existing studies involving these two variables utilized different theories of motivation which cause difficulties in drawing conclusions. For example, some of the studies used socio-educational models of motivation (Liu & Huang, 2011; Wei, 2007) while some, such as Koul, et al. (2009) and Papi (2010), employed other theories of motivation. To date, there is no existing study which focused on examining the relationships of foreign language anxiety and

motivation utilizing the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) to measure students' motivation. Therefore, caution must be shown in comparing the results of existing studies with the findings of the present study.

Despite using different theories of motivation, in general, the studies reported findings consistent with the present results in that motivation showed an inverse relationship with foreign language anxiety. In other words, students who were highly motivated tended to be less anxious. This supports findings by Hao, Liu and Hao (2004) and Liu and Zhang (2013) who examined Chinese learners of English and Khodady and Khajavy (2013) who investigated Iranian learners of English. Lower level of anxiety, therefore, could be characterized as one of the predictors of motivated language learners.

However, the relationships between each dimension of motivation and foreign language anxiety in existing studies showed quite perplexing results. For example, the findings of the present study challenge those reported in Toth (2007) and Liu and Huang (2011) who found that anxiety was more significantly correlated with extrinsic motivation than with intrinsic motivation. The reverse was true for the participants in the present study regardless of school, grade and participants' gender. This discrepancy may be explained in terms of participants' education level: university students compared to senior secondary school students. University students who participated in Liu and Huang's study were at a closer stage to the workplace compared to high school students who participated in the present study. Therefore, it is anticipated they would be more interested in learning English for pragmatic reasons

such as getting a better job, earning more money and for professional development. With such extrinsically-oriented reasons prominent among the Chinese learners of English, this could lead to close association with foreign language anxiety, resulting in more significant relationships between extrinsic motivation and foreign language anxiety compared to other types of motivation.

However, participants in the present study were senior secondary school students who did not worry as much as the university students in China about the role of English in determining their future career. In Indonesia, high school students oriented toward further higher education tend to go to the workplace after completing their bachelor degree. Most have an ambition to have a university qualification and to stop studying after grade 12 is not a viable option: only those who could not afford to study at the university tend to stop after completing senior secondary school as it is more difficult to get a good job without a university qualification. Therefore, it is unlikely that, although the participants were more extrinsically motivated, this type of motivation would cause them to be as anxious as the university students in Liu and Huang's study because they still had their higher level of education to complete. Other extrinsic reasons, such as getting a good grade, also did not lead to them feeling anxious as they told how they may re-sit the test if their score did not meet the minimum score required by the school. Thus, it is quite understandable that fewer significant correlations were found between extrinsic goal orientation and foreign language anxiety for participants of the present study. On the other hand, students who were intrinsically motivated wanted to perform their best, as highlighted by an

interview with one of the students. This often led to the feeling of anxiety, especially *fear of negative evaluation* by either the teacher or classmates.

One noticeable and interesting finding was with respect to the relationship between the expectancy component of motivation and foreign language anxiety. The MSLQ measures two component of expectancy, *control of learning beliefs* and *self-efficacy for learning and performance*. The results of these two components with foreign language anxiety were, surprisingly, different. While *self-efficacy for learning and performance* showed the strongest negative correlation among the dimension of motivation with foreign language anxiety dimensions, control *of learning beliefs* did not show any significant correlation with all dimensions of foreign language anxiety. The relationship *between self-efficacy for learning and performance* with foreign language anxiety confirms Bandura's (1986a, 1997) and Pintrich and De Groot's (1990) claim that self-efficacy is a central factor in determining students' anxiety. It demonstrated very strong, negative, significant correlations, suggesting that highly self-efficacious students would demonstrate low anxiety. This was true not only for the analysis involving all participants but also when the correlation analysis was conducted by school, grade and gender. In his social cognitive theory, Bandura (1986b) explained why self-efficacy plays an important role in determining students' language anxiety. Every individual has a system of self-beliefs that could control their thoughts, feelings and actions. To put it in Bandura's words, "what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986b, p. 82). Therefore,

students who firmly believe that they have a capability to do certain tasks would feel less anxious about the task. In turn, less anxiety would improve their performance.

The other expectancy component, *control of learning beliefs* did not show significant relationships with any dimensions of foreign language anxiety. This was true for the total sample of the participants as well as analysis by school, grade and gender. This puzzling result could be explained by referring to the definitions of the two components and the items listed under each component. According to the MSLQ manual by Pintrich et al. (1991), *control of learning beliefs* refers to "students' belief that their effort to learn will result in positive outcomes. It concerns the belief that outcomes are contingent on one's own effort in contrast to external factors such as teachers" (p.12). This included items such as "If I study in an appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course" and "It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course", while *self-efficacy for learning and performance* contained two components, *self-efficacy* and *expectation for success* which included items like "'am confident I can understand the most complex material presented by an instructor in this course' and 'I'm certain I can master the skill being taught in this class'.

Although the reasons why students' *self-efficacy* correlates strongly with foreign language anxiety seem very clear and in line with Bandura (1997), the absence of significant relationships between *control of learning beliefs* and foreign language anxiety remained questionable. It may be an indication that students did not believe that their own effort would result in positive outcomes. One interview was a

clear example of the issue of student perceptions of teachers' *relatedness*. The student expressed, desperately, that no matter how hard she tried, the results would not be the same as others whom the teacher trusted to have good English mastery. There may be other reasons why students' could not rely on their own efforts which may not have emerged during the interviews. However, this suggests rather strongly that, in the context of the present study, students' *foreign language anxiety* was not affected by their *control of learning beliefs*. Since there appears to be no existing study comparing this motivation dimension and *students' language anxiety*, this finding adds new evidence to the field.

As anticipated, *test anxiety* correlated positively with all foreign language anxiety dimensions. These correlations were the strongest among those under scrutiny, implying that students who experienced test anxiety would be highly likely to experience *fear of failing the class*, *communication apprehension* and *fear of negative evaluation*. A noticeable tendency was that, among the three dimensions of foreign language anxiety, *communication apprehension* was the one which was mostly negatively associated with students' motivation. With the exception of Year 11 students, all groups of participants, including the total sample, indicated significant correlations between *communication apprehension* and the majority of motivation dimensions. In other words, less motivated students were more prone to *communication apprehension* than the other two types of foreign language anxiety, *fear of failing the class* and *fear of negative evaluation*.

6.8 Comparison between Teachers' and Students' Perceptions of Teachers'

   Classroom Behaviour

   The comparison between students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour revealed significant differences between students and teachers. Of the 14 classes which participated in the study, half of the classes rated the teacher more negatively in terms of *expectation, relatedness* and *structure* than the teachers rated themselves. On the other hand, in terms of *negativity*, students perceived the teacher more positively than teachers themselves. In other words, teachers rated themselves better than their students did on three dimensions. This finding was congruent with previous research by Spearman and Watt (2013) who examined teachers' and students' perceptions in Australian high school sciences classes. A study conducted in a similar Indonesian high school context by Maulana, Opdenakker, den Brok, & Bosker, (2011), although using different measures from the ones used in the present study, revealed partial agreement. Using the Questionnaire on Teacher Interaction (QTI) by Brekelman, Wubbel and Creton (1990), Maulana et al. (2011) shared comparable findings with the present study. Teachers rated their positive behaviours better than did their students. But, in terms of teachers' negative behaviour, the findings of this study were not in line with Maulana et al. (2011). Teachers in Maulana's study rated themselves lower than their students for negative behaviour whereas teachers in the present study reported higher ratings than their students. This may reflect teachers having a tendency to rate any items higher than their students. It may also indicate that students felt reluctant to rate their teacher

higher on *negativity*. Although they were informed from the beginning of the study that their answers in the questionnaire would not be accessible by their teacher and their responses would be anonymous, students may still have felt insecure about rating their teacher too negatively.

This result may also be due to the nature of teacher-student relationships in Indonesia. Teaching is considered a highly-respected occupation in Indonesia (Maulana, et al., 2011) and, in classroom interaction, teachers always have ultimate control over the students. The dominance of teacher-centred methods of teaching, as reported in previous studies conducted in Indonesian classrooms (Kaluge, Setiasih, & Tjahjono, 2004; Maulana et al., 2011) and as evidenced from classroom observations conducted for the present study, may also contribute to the way the students rated the teacher in terms of negativity. Teachers' criticisms or other negative behaviours may be regarded by the students as an act of managing them rather than as something overtly negative.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

7.1 Chapter Overview

This final chapter presents the summary of the findings reported so far. The implication of these results for teaching English as a foreign language is also discussed. The limitations of the study are then identified, followed by some recommendations for future research.

7.2 Summary of the Findings

Several conclusions can be made from the present study of the relationship between students' perception of teachers' classroom behaviour and their foreign language anxiety, motivation and achievement and how students' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour were similar or different. First, the analyses revealed that the students experienced moderate levels of foreign language anxiety across the time points. Students reported experiencing *fear of failing the class*, *fear of negative evaluation* and *communication apprehension*. In terms of motivation, students were moderately to highly motivated to learn English. They reported high *extrinsic goal orientation* and *task value* and showed moderate to high scores in other motivation dimensions. This could be attributed to the fact that students understand that, in the global world, learning English would open doors for many opportunities, not only for their future career but also for their further education.

Second, students' perceptions of their teacher's classroom behaviour affected their levels of foreign language anxiety and motivations. Although the present study was conducted during only one instructional semester, it revealed that some students were more anxious by the end of the semester, especially with regard to *communication apprehension* in the classroom. Two out of four dimensions of teachers' classroom behaviours, namely *negativity* and *unclear structuring of the class* were cited by the students as being responsible for the increase in their *communication apprehension*. Teachers' *negativity* was mostly related to harsh comments and negative feedback on students' errors, whereas teachers' *lack of structuring of the cla*ss left students unprepared to perform certain tasks. These two types of teachers' behaviours have been shown to escalate students' feelings of anxiety. In addition, an inverse relationship between students' foreign language anxiety and their perception of the teachers' classroom behaviours was also detected, suggesting that students who perceived their teacher negatively tended to experience anxiety during the English class.

Third, students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour also affected students' level of motivation although the effect was not large. Of the six dimensions, students reported that their perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour contributed only to the decrease of their *control of learning beliefs*. Students who experienced this decrease cited their negative perceptions of their teachers' *relatedness* to certain students had made them demotivated and they believed that their efforts would not bring good results. In other words, these students perceived that they were unfairly

treated by the teacher. Teachers who pay special attention to certain students tend to ignore the effort of other students. The decrease in students' scores on other motivation dimensions such *as self-efficacy for learning and performance* were not related to their perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours, but to other factors such as learning content and materials and the classroom environment.

Fourth, as anticipated, generally students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour exhibited inverse relationships with students' foreign language anxiety but positively correlated with students' motivations and achievement. In addition, this study confirms that students who are highly anxious tend to be less motivated and exhibit lower levels of achievement. Finally, students and teachers showed a discrepancy in their perceptions of the teachers' classroom behaviours. With the exception of *negativity,* teachers tended to rate themselves higher than their students ratings of them. On the other hand, students' rated their teacher lower in *negativity* than the teachers rated themselves. This may be due to the nature of the teacher-students relationship in the Indonesian context where the teacher always has control over the students and the students may regard teachers' comments as an act of controlling them and, therefore, do not consider the teachers' behaviours as negative.

7.3 Theoretical, Practical, and Pedagogical Implications

This study has theoretical, pedagogical and practical implications. By examining the effect of teachers' classroom behaviours on the level of students' foreign language anxiety, it adds to the existing literature on foreign language anxiety.

It is the first study to examine how teachers' classroom behaviours and students' perceptions of this behaviour actually affect students' level of foreign language anxiety and motivation. Over the last two decades, much research has been conducted on these two affective variables; however the majority of the research has focused on the existence of foreign language anxiety and/or motivation during a foreign language class, the constructs of foreign language anxiety and/or motivation and the effect of these variables on students' language achievement. Since detrimental effects of foreign language anxiety have been established, it was important to examine what occurred in the classroom that contributed to the fluctuation of this variable during the process of language learning. This is also the first study to use the pair of scales, Teacher Style Scale (TSS) and students' reported TSS, in the Indonesian context which has allowed a comparison of students' perceptions of the teacher's behaviour with those self-reported by the teacher.

In addition to the theoretical implications, this study also has practical implications. The outcomes of this study are important for policy makers, teachers and students. For teachers, the findings should help them to be aware of their students' perceptions and how these influence students' feelings of anxiety and impact their achievement. It is suggested that teachers try to recognise the signs of students' anxiety and adapt the classroom procedures to at least minimise students' FL anxiety. This finding may also alert students to the fact that they will not perform at their maximum capacity due to anxiety and, therefore, they need to learn how to manage this feeling during their English class.

A practical implication of the study is the beneficial effect of ISS on students' motivation to study English and their achievement. ISS students reported significantly higher scores in *task value* than their counterparts at non-ISS. Interviews with ISS students revealed that they valued subject English highly because they saw the benefit of English when learning the content subjects Mathematics and Science, both of which were taught using English as the medium of instruction. A previous study using a similar concept of ISS reported that students who learn content subjects in English were better motivated to study (Lasagabaster, 2011). Thus, the initial purpose of establishing ISS, which was to enhance Indonesian high school graduates' English mastery to enable them to compete in the global market, was achievable. In other words, by establishing ISS in every region, Indonesia was on the right track to realize this aim. Therefore, the dissolution of the ISS by the Indonesian government in January 2014 could be considered a backward step. If this original aim is to be achieved, Indonesia may need to thoroughly review the implementation of ISS so as to find better ways of executing the concept of ISS, including providing qualified teachers who not only master the content subjects but also have a good command of English.

This study has pedagogical implications as well. It is really important use the teaching materials which suit the learners need and their level of competencey. The present study revealed that students showed a significant decrease in one dimension of motivation, *control of learning beliefs*. One of the causes cited by an ISS student was learning content and material which did not meet their expectations. They felt

that the reading texts used, such as fairy tales, would not equip them with the vocabulary they needed for their future studies or in their workplaces. In other words, the selection of the reading texts did not suit their needs. The students tended to believe that, with the type of materials used, their effort would not result in their desired outcome. In other words, curriculum developers should tailor the content and learning materials to the students' needs in order to not only maintain students' motivation but also to enhance students' achievement. In addition to meerting the learners need, it is also important to carefully consider the learners language level. The same reading texts were considered as a demotivating factor for an ISS learner because it was too easy and did not contribute anything to the improvement of her language. On the other hand the choice of reading was found to be an anxiety-decreasing factor for non-ISS student with lower level English mastery. In the case of differentt types of schools, such ISS and non-ISS in Indonesian context in which students' English competencies were different, different level of teaching materials should be used for the benefit of all students.

Another pedagogical implication is that teacher's need to be aware that students sometimes hold an incorrect belief about learning a language. In the Indonesian context, students' belief about the importance of grammatical accuracy in speaking is actually quite predictable due the enduring practice of grammar-translation methods in teaching English. The teacher needs to convince students that language used in speaking is not the same as the language used in written form and

therefore a very grammatical utterance may sometimes sound awkward in a particular context.

7.4 Limitations

The results of the present study should be interpreted cautiously for several reasons. The results of the study should be viewed within the context of the population studied: English as a foreign language as a compulsory subject in ISS and non-ISS schools in Indonesia. Also, the quantitative results of the study were obtained by employing self-reported questionnaires based on students' language learning experiences and teachers' experiences, therefore the results depend on students and teachers precisely and meticulously answering the items in the questionnaires. Affective variables such as anxiety and motivation examined in the present study are difficult to precisely measure. Students may not respond truthfully as they may worry that their teacher may possibly know their answers about how they perceive their teachers. Although they were informed, prior to their first participation in the research, that only the researcher would have access to their answers, some students may have felt that it was risky to report something bad about their teachers and their school experiences. In addition, students may be unable to precisely rate their emotional state and motivation. However, because anxiety, motivation and students' perceptions of their teachers' classroom behaviour are not observable, self-report questionnaires were considered necessary. Third, the number of teachers participating in the study was relatively limited and the fact that all teachers were

female gives rise to an issue in terms of variance. There is a possibility that only teachers with similar capabilities or characteristics participated in this study which could explain the low variance in the teacher data. Therefore, the discrepancies between students' and teachers' perceptions should be interpreted carefully.

7.5 Recommendations for Future Research

This study has introduced several areas for future research. More studies conducted in different contexts and at different educational levels are needed to further examine the effects of students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviour on students' test anxiety. For example, do students with negative perceptions about their teachers' classroom behaviours tend to be anxious during tests? Several aspects have been reported as related to test anxiety such as self-referenced factors, including fear of failure and fear of negative evaluation from others, and evaluative situations, including task difficulty, mode of administration and examiner characteristics, but not the effect of teachers' classroom behaviours on students' test anxiety. As the present study indicates, teachers' classroom behaviours significantly affect students' test anxiety and so further studies, in different contexts and education levels, are encouraged.

Future studies need to take into account gender differences in examining the effect of students' perceptions of teachers' classroom behaviours on students' motivation, especially *extrinsic goal orientation*. For example, whether gender differences exist in students' perceptions of relatedness with the teacher and how this

might affect students' motivation to study. This study indicated that students' relatedness with the teachers affected boys' and girls' *extrinsic goal orientation* differently.

In addition, gender differences may influence the role of motivation in influencing students' achievement in learning English as a foreign language. Previous studies have claimed that girls are better than boys at mastering a foreign language but the present study has shown that motivation is more influential for boys than girls in learning a language. This study should be replicated with learners of other foreign languages to better establish this finding. If this is confirmed, it may lead to new ways to motivate boys to be better language learners.

Another area for future research is the examination of students' foreign language anxiety and motivation at lower educational levels. To date, the majority of studies have been conducted at the college or university level. A few studies have examined these variables at the high school level. To arrive at a comprehensive picture of how foreign language anxiety and motivation shape the development of students' language learning experiences, research is needed with lower educational level participants, such as elementary school students. It is also important to study the relationships between these two variables simultaneously as the dynamic nature of these variables may cause them to associate differently at different stages of students' learning.

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Appendix A

STUDENT CONSENT FORM

The interaction between teacher and students in Indonesian EFL classroom context

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I agree that my son/daughter named ………………………………..to participate in the above Monash University Research project. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I keep for my records. I understand that to take part means that my son/daughter willing to (please tick the box provided for each item to which you give consent):

☐ Complete a questionnaire for 15 minutes at the beginning of the study

☐ Complete a questionnaire after 8 weeks for 40 minutes

☐ if selected, be interviewed by the researcher for 30 minutes at time and place of mutual convenience

☐ allow the interview to be audiotaped

☐ observed by the researcher during teaching and learning process in the classroom for 30 minutes.

☐ Complete the Preliminary English Test (PET) or First Certificate in English (FCE) test for 90 minutes during the English lesson at the end of the semester.

Please tick the appropriate box:

☐ I understand that any data that the researcher extracts from the interview and questionnaire survey for use in reports or published finding will not, under any circumstances, contain names or identifying characteristics.

☐ I understand that on my request, I will be provided with the paper written using my information

☐ I also understand that my child participation is voluntary, that he/she can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that my child I can freely withdraw during the data collection process and not after the data has been completely collected.

☐ I agree that the information provided for the research can be used in conference papers, professional publications and Diana Chitra Hasan's Ph.D thesis (in the form of the papers or publication).

☐ I understand that this may be used for pilot study for further research

☐ I understand that data form interview and scales will be kept in a secure storage and accessible to the research team. I also understand that the data will be destroyed after a 5 year period unless I consent to it being used in future research.

Date :   Name :   Signature:

Appendix B

TEACHER CONSENT FORM

The interaction between teacher and students in Indonesian EFL classroom context

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I agree to participate in the above Monash University Research project. I have had the project explained to me, and I have read the Explanatory Statement, which I keep for my records. I understand that to take part means that I am willing to (please tick the box provided for each item to which you give consent):

☐ Complete a questionnaire for 40 minutes

☐ if selected, be interviewed by the researcher for 30 minutes at time and place of mutual convenience

☐ allow the interview to be audiotaped

☐ observed by the researcher during my teaching hours for 30 minutes.

Please tick the appropriate box:

☐ I understand that any papers or publications from the research will use psedonyms and minimize the use of information that could make my identity public

☐ I understand that on my request, I will be provided with the paper written using my information

☐ I also understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can freely withdraw during the data collection process but not after the data has been collected completely.

☐ I agree that the information I provide can be used in conference papers, professional publications and Diana Chitra Hasan's Ph.D thesis (in the form of the papers or publication).

☐ I understand that this may be used for pilot study for further research

Date :

Name :

Signature:

Appendix C

Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaires

The following questions ask about your motivation for and attitudes about your English class. Remember, there are no rights or wrong answers, just answer as accurately as possible. Use the scale below to answer the questions. If you think the statement is very true of you, circle 7; if the statement is not at all true of you, circle 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

Kuesioner ini memuat pertanyaan tentang motivasi dan sikap Anda dalam belajar bahasa Inggris di sekolah. Tidak ada jawaban yang benar atau salah, jawablah secara akurat. Gunakanlah skala dibawah ini untuk menjawab semua pertanyaan. Jika Anda merasa pernyataan yang diberikan sangat sesuai dengan Anda lingkarilah angka 7; jika pernyataan tersebut sama sekali tidak sesuai dengan Anda lingkarilah angka 1. Jika sebuah pernyataan kurang lebih sama sesuai dengan Anda lingkarilah angka di antara 1 dan 7 yang tepat

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all true of me						Very true of me
Sangat tidak sesuai						*Sangat sesuai*

menggambarkan keadaan Anda.

1. In a class like this, I prefer course material that really challenges me so I can learn new things/ *Dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris saya lebih suka maeri pelajaran yang betul betul menantang saya sehingga saya dapat belajar hal-hal baru.*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. If I study in appropriate ways, then I will be able to learn the material in this course./ *Jika saya belajar dengan benar, saya akan dapat memperlajari materi pleajaran ini.*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. When I take a test I think about how poorly I am doing compared with other students./ *Jika saya mengikuti ujian, saya merasa betapa bodohnya saya dibanding dengan siswa lain*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

other courses./ *Saya rasa apa yang saya pelajari dalam bahasa Inggris dapat saya gunakan pada pelajaran lain.*

5. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this class./ *Saya yakin bahwa saya akan mendapat nilai bagus pada mata pelajaran ini.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

6. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the readings for this course./ *Saya merasa bahwa saya bisa memahami pelajaran yang paling sulit yang diberikan dalam bagian "Reading".*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

7. Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now./ *Mendapatkan nilai bagus pada pelajaran ini merupakan hal yang paling memuaskan bagi saya saat ini.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

8. When I take a test I think about items on other parts of the test I can't answer./ *Ketika saya mengikuti ujian, saya memikir-kan soal yang tidak bisa saya jawab pada bagian lain.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

9. It is my own fault if I don't learn the material in this course./ *Salah saya sendiri jika tidak mendapat apa-apa dari pelajaran ini.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

10. It is important for me to learn the course material in this class./ *Mempelajari mata pelajaran ini merupakan hal yang penting bagi saya.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

11. The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade./ *Yang paling penting bagi saya saat ini adalah meningkatkan nilai rata-rata saya, jadi hal yang utama bagi saya adalah mendapatkan nilai bagus dari pelajaran ini.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

12. I'm confident I can learn the basic concepts taught in this course./ *Saya yakin saya bisa memperlajari konsep-konsep dasar yang diajarkan dalam pelajaran ini.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

13. If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most of the other students./ *Jika saya bisa, saya ingin mendapatkan nilai yang lebih baik dari siswa lainnya dalam pelajaran ini.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

14. When I take test I think of the consequences of failing./ *Jika saya mengikuti ujian, saya memiirkan kemungkinan*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

gagal dalam test tersebut.

15. I am confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the instructor in this course./*Saya yakin saya bisa memahami materi paling sulit yang diajarkan guru pada mata pelajaran ini.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

16. In a class like this, I prefer course material that arouse my curiosity, even if it is difficult to learn./ *Dalam pelajaran seperti ini, saya lebih suka materi yang membangkitkan rasa ingin tahu walaupun materi itu sulit untuk dipelajari.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

17. I am very interested in the content area of this course./ *Saya sangat tertarik dengan materi pelajaran ini.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

18. If I try hard enough, then I will understand the course material./*Jika saya berusaha cukup keras, saya akan megerti materi pelajaran ini.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

19. I have an uneasy, upset feeling when I take an exam./*Saya merasa gelisah jika menghadapi ujian.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

20. I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignment and test in this course./ *Saya yakin saya bisa mengerjakan dengan baik tugas-tugas dalam ujian mata pelajaran ini.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

21. I expect to do well in this class./ *Saya berharap bisa berhasil dalam mata pelajaran ini.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

22. The most satisfying thing for me in this course is trying to understand the content as throughly as possible./ *Hal yang paling memuaskan saya dalam mata pelajaran ini adalah berusaha memahami pelajaran sejelas mungkin.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

23. I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn./ *Menurut saya materi saya yang dipelajari dalam pelajaran ini bermanfaat.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

24. When I have the opportunity in this class, I choose course assignments that I can learn from even If they don't guarantee a good grade./ *Jika saya diberi kesempatan, saya memilih tugas yang dapat membuat saya belajar walaupun itu tidak menjamin saya mendapat nilai bagus.*　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

25. If I don't understand the course material, It is because I　　1　2　3　4　5　6　7

did not tried hard enough./ *Jika saya tidak mengerti materi yang dipelajari, itu karena saya tidak berusaha cukup keras*.

26. I like the subject matter of this course./ *Saya suka materi pelajaran ini*.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

27. Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me./ *Memahami materi pelajaran ini merupakan hal yang penting bagi saya*.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

28. I feel my heart beating fast when I take an exam./ *Saya merasa jantung saya berdebar keras jika mengikuti ujian*.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

29. I am certain I can master the skills being taught in this class./ *Saya yakin saya bisa menguasai skill yang diajarkan dalam pelajaran ini*.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

30. I want to do well in this class because it is important to show my ability to my family, friends or others./ *Saya ingin berhasil dalam pelajaran ini karena penting bagi saya untuk memperlihatkan kemampuan saya kepada keluarga, teman, dan lain-lain*.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

31. Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher and my skills I think I will do well in this class./ *Dengan mempertimbangkan tingkat kesulitan mata pelajaran ini, guru serta skills saya, saya rasa saya akan berhasil dalam mata pelajaran ini*.   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Appendix D

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and its translation into Bahasa Indonesia

The following questions ask about your experience in English class. Remember, there are no right or wrong answer, just answer accurately as possible. Use the options below to answer the questions : SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neautral, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

Kuesioner ini memuat pertanyaan tentang pengalaman anda tentang pengalaman anda dalam belajar bahasa Inggris di sekolah tidak ada jawaban benar atau salah, jawablah secara akurat. Guanakanlah pilihan di bawah ini untuk menjawab semua pertanyaan. SS = Sangat Setuju, S = Setuju, N = Netral, TS = Tidak Setuju, STS = Sangat Tidak Setuju

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking English in my class./ *Saya tidak pernah merasa yakin ketika berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris di kelas.*	SA/*SS*	A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class./ *Saya tidak takut melakukan kesalahan ketika belajar bahasa Inggris di kelas.*	SA/*SS*	A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
3. I tremble when I know I am going to be called in English class./ *Saya gemetar jika saya tahubahwa saya akan dipanggil ke depan kelas*	SA/*SS*	A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
4. It frightens me when I don't know what the teacher is saying in English./ *Saya merasa takutjika saya tidak mengert apa yang diucapkan guru dalam bahasa Inggris*	SA/*SS*	A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes./ *Saya sama sekali tidak merasa terganggu untuk mengikuti pelajaran bahasa Inggris*	SA/*SS*	A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*

lebih banyak.

6. During the language class I find myself thinking about thing that have nothing to do with the course./ *Di dalam kelas bahasa Inggris, saya memikirkan hal-hal lain yang tidak berhubungan sama sekali dengan pelajaran saya.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

7. I keep thinking that other students are better at English than I am./ *Saya selalu merasa bahwa siswa lain lebih baik dari saya dalam bahasa Inggris.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class./ *Saya biasanya merasa mudah selama ujian-ujian bahasa Inggris.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preperation in my English class./ *Saya merasa panik jika saya harus berbicara tanpa persiapan dalam bahasa Inggris.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class./ *Saya khawatir akan resiko gagal dalam bahasa Inggris.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

11. I don't understand why some people get too upset over English class./ *Saya tidak mengerti mengapa orang begitu cemas dengan pelajaran bahasa Inggris.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

12. In English class, I can get so nervous, I forget everything I know./ *Dalam kelas bahasa Inggris saya merasa sangat gugup sehingga saya lupa apa yang sudah diketahui.*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

13. It embarasses me to volunteer answer in my English class./ *Saya*   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

merasa malu untuk berpartisipasi secara sukarela untuk menjawab pertanyaan dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris.

14. I would not be nervous speaking English with a native speaker./ *Saya tidak akan merasa gugup berbicara dengan penutur asli bahasa Inggris.*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting./ *Saya merasa cemas jika saya tidak mengerti apa yang dikoreksi oleh guru.*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it./ *Walaupun saya sudah memerpsiapkan diri untuk kelas bahasa Inggris, saya tetap merasa cemas.*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
17. I often feel like not going to my English class./ *Saya sering merasa tidak suka masuk kelas bahasa Inggris.*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
18. I feel confident when I speak English in class./ *Saya merasa percaya diri jika saya berbicara dalam kelas Bahasa Inggris*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make./ *Saya merasa takut jika guru bahasa Inggris memperbaiki setiap kesalahan saya.*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*
20. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called in my English class./ *Hati saya berdebar-debar jika sya akan dipanggil dalam kelas bahasa Inggris.*	SA/*SS* A/*S*	N/*N*	D/*S*	SD/*STS*

21. The more I study for the English class the more confused I get./ *Semakin banyak saya belajar untuk menghadapi test bahasa Inggris, saya semakin bingung.*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

22. I don't feel preassure to prepare very well for the English class./ *Saya tidak merasa tertekan untuk mempersiapkan kelas bahasa Inggris sebaik-baiknya.*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do./ *Saya selalu merasa bahwa siswa lain dapat berbahasa Inggris lebih baik dari saya.*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of ther students./ *Saya merasa malu juka berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris di depan siswa lain.*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

25. English class moved so quickly I worry about being left behind./ *Pelajaran bahasa Inggris bergerak dengan cepat sehingga saya khawatir menjadi tertinggal.*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English classes than in other classes./ *Saya merasa lebih tegang dan gugup dalam kelas bahasa Inggris*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class./ *Saya merasa gugup dan bingung jika saya berbicara dalam kelas bahasa Inggris.*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

28. When I am on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed./ *Ketika saya dalam perjalanan menuju kelas bahasa Inggris, saya merasa*

SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

sangat yakin dan relax

29. I get nervous when I don't
    understand every word the English
    teacher say./ *Saya merasa gugup jika
    saya tidak mengerti setiap kata yang
    diucapkan*.   SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*
    rules you have to learn to speak
    English./ *Saya merasa terbebani
    dengan banyaknya aturan yang harus
    dipelajari dalam bahasa Inggris*.

31. I am afraid that other sutdents will SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*
    laugh at me when I speak English./
    *Saya merasa takut siswa lain akan
    mentertakawakan saya jika saya
    berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris*.

32. I would probably fell comfortable SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*
    around native speaker of English./
    *Saya mungkin akan merasa nyaman
    bersama penutur asli bahasa Inggris*.

33. I get nervous when the English SA/*SS*   A/*S*   N/*N*   D/*S*   SD/*STS*
    teacher asks questions which I have
    not advance./ *Saya merasa gugup jika
    guru bahasa Inggris menanyakan
    hal-hal yang tidak saya siapkan
    sebelumnya*.

Appendix E

The Four Factor Model of Student-Reported TSS
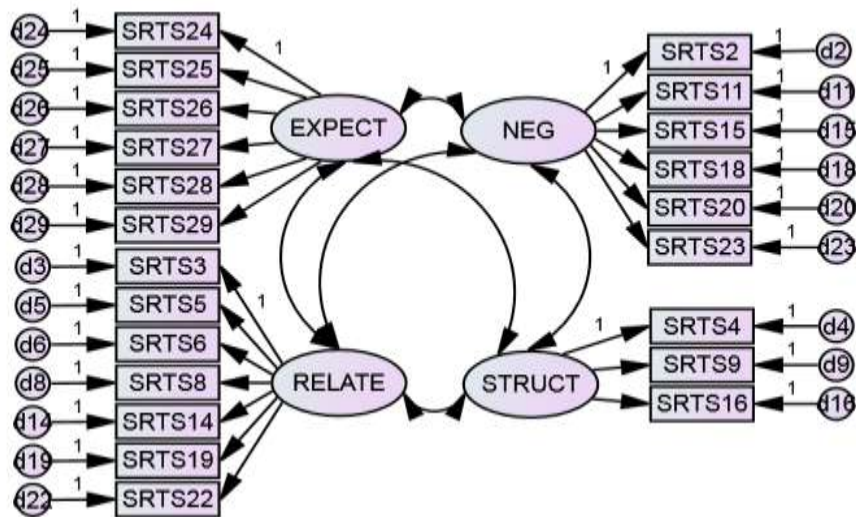
Note. Expect = Expectation, Relate = Relatedness, Neg = Negativity, Struct = Structure

Appendix F

Students-Reported Teacher Style Scale (TSS)

The following questions ask about your experience and feeling about your interaction with your teacher in your English class. Use the scale below to answer your questions. If you think the statement is very true of you, circle 7; if the statement is not at all true of you, circle 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

Kuesioner ini berisi pertanyaan tentang pengalaman dan perasaan Anda selama belajar dengan guru
Bahasa Inggris pada semester ini. Lingkarilah angka 1 jiika Anda sama seklai tidak mengalami atau merasakan seperti yang dinyatakan, dan lingkarilah angka 7 jika Anda sering mengalami atau merasakan hal yang disebutkan dalam sebuah pernyataan. Jika Anda kadang-kadang saja mengalami
Hal yang disebut dalam pernyataan yang diberikan, lingkarilah salah satu angka di antara 1 dan 7 yang paling tepat menggambarkan situasi Anda.

In this class to what extent do you feel…/ Dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris, sejauh mana Anda merasakan…

1. that you get to have a say in how lesson runs?/ *bahwa Anda mendapat kesempatan untuk ber- pendapat tentang bagaimana jalannya proses belajar?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. worried the teacher might react negatively if you don't understand? /*khawatir bahwa guru akan bereaksi negatif jika Anda tidak mengerti?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. that you enjoy interacting with your teacher?/ *bahwa Anda merasa senang berinteraksi dengan Guru Anda?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. there are clear expectations about your behaviour?/ *ada kejelasan tentang bagimana Anda diharapkan untuk bersikap*   .   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. that you are treated fairly?b*ahwa Anda diperlakukan dengan adil?-*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. the teacher takes a personal interest in you?/*bahwa guru tertarik secara pribadi dengan Anda?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. the teacher deliberately embarrasses students students who misbehave?*bahwa guru dengan sengaja mempermalukan siswwa yang bertingkah laku buruk?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. that the teacher likes you for who you are?/ *bahwa guru menyukai Anda sebagaimana adanya ?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. that you have an explicit set of class rules to follow?/*bahwa ada aturan kelas yang jelas yang harus diikuti?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. that you are not allowed to make fun of others in class?/*bahwa Anda tidak dibenarkan memperolok-olokkan orang lain?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. feedback you get from the teacher is sometimes too negative?/*bahwa umpan balik yang diberikan guru Anda kadang-kadang terlalu negatif?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. the teacher is interested in hearing your ideas about your class work? *Guru tertarik mendengar- kan ide Anda tentang pekerjaan di kelas?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. no one gets preferential treatment? *Tidak seorang-pun yang mendapat perlakuan istimewa?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. the teacher really cares about you? *guru sangat memperhatikan Anda?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. the teacher yell angrily at the students who misbehave ?/ *guru berteriak marah kepada siswa yang bertingkah-laku tidak baik*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. that you know what will happen if you break class rules?/*Anda tahu apa yang akan terjadi jika melanggar peraturan di kelas?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. the teacher won't allow you to say negative things about each other? /*guru melarang Anda berbicara tentang keburukan orang lain?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. the teacher might react negatively toward your mistakes?/*guru bereaksu negatif terhadap kesalahan*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Anda?

19. positively towards the teacher?/*berpikir positif terhadap guru?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. the teacher makes sarcastic comments to misbehaving students?/*guru memberikan komentar yang sarkastis terhadap siswa yang bertingkah laku buruk?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. the teacher wants all students to feel respected by each other?/ *guru menginginkan semua siswa saling menghormati?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. the teacher considers your feeling?/*guru mempertimbangkan perasaan Anda?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Some students are treated better than others?/ s*ebagian siswa diperlakukan lebih baik dari yang lain?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In this class, to what extent do you feel the teacher expects you to…/Dalam pelajaran bahasa Inggris sejauh mana Anda mengatahui bahwa guru Anda mengharapkan Anda untuk…

24. act in a mature way?/ *bertindak secara dewasa?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. try to do your very best?/*berusaha sebaik mungkin*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. be self-controlled?/*bisa mengontrol diri sendiri?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. give nothing less than your full effort?/*berusaha sebaik mungkin?*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. Be self-reliant?/ *mandiri*   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Work hard to achieve your potential?/*bekerja keras untuk mencapai potensi Anda*.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix G

Teacher Style Scale (TSS)

The following questions ask about your experience and feeling about your interaction with your student in your English class. Use the scale below to answer your questions. If you think the statement is very true of you, circle 7; if the statement is not at all true of you, circle 1. If the statement is more or less true of you, find the number between 1 and 7 that best describes you.

In this class, to what extent do you feel your students feel

1. they have a say in how lesson runs?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. worried that you t might react negatively if they don't understand? /   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. that they enjoy interacting with you? *bahwa Anda merasa senang berinteraksi dengan Guru Anda* ?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. that there are clear expectations about their behaviour?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. that they are treated fairly?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. that you take a personal interest in them?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. you deliberately embarrasses students who misbehave?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. that you like them for who they are?/ *bahwa guru menyukai Anda sebagaimana adanya* ?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. that you have an explicit set of class rules to follow?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. that they are not allowed to make fun of others in class   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. feedback they get from you is sometimes too negative?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. that you are interested in hearing your ideas about your class work?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. no one gets preferential treatment?   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. that you really cares about them? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. that you yell angrily at the students who misbehave? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. that they know what will happen if they break a class rules? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. that you won't allow you to say negative things about each other? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. that you might react negatively toward your mistakes? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. that they think positively towards you? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. that you make sarcastic comments to misbehaving students? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. that you want all students to feel respected by each other? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. that you considers their feeling? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Some students are treated better than others? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In this class, to what extent do you feel your students know you expect them
24. act in a mature way? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. try to do your very best? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. be self-controlled? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. give nothing less than your full effort? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. Be self-reliant? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Work hard to achieve your potential?/*bekerja keras untuk mencapai potensi Anda*. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix H

Interview Guide

Questions for IFLA Group (Increase in Foreign Language Anxiety)
1. Apakah Anda menyukai pelajaran Bahasa Inggris?
   (Do you like studying English?)
2. Mengapa Anda tidak suka?
   (Why don't you like it?)
3. Ceritakan salah satu pengalaman yang kurang/ tidak menyenangkan yang pernah Anda alami ketika belajar Bahasa Inggris.
   (Please tell me your bad/negative experience during English class)
4. Bagaimana wujud rasa cemas Anda ketika belajar?
   (What is the manifestation of your anxiety?)
5. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang guru Bahasa Inggris Anda?
   (What is your opinion about your English teacher?)
6. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang teman-teman sekelas Anda?
   What do you think about your classmate?

Questions for DFLA Group (Decrease in Foreign Language Anxiety)
1. Apakah Anda menyukai pelajaran Bahasa Inggris?
   (Do you like studying English?)
2. Mengapa Anda suka?
   (Why do you like it?)
3. Ceritakan salah satu pengalaman yang menyenangkan yang pernah Anda alami ketika belajar Bahasa Inggris. (Please tell me your positive experience in studying English)
   (Please tell me your good experience during English class.
4. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang guru Bahasa Inggris Anda?
   (What is your opinion about your English teacher?)
5. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang teman-teman sekelas Anda?
   What do you think about your classmate?

Questions for IM Group (Increase in Motivation)
1. Apakah Anda menyukai pelajaran Bahasa Inggris?
   (Do you like studying English?)
   Apa yang memotivasi Anda untuk belajar Bahasa Inggris?
   (What motivate you to study English?)
2. Ceritakan salah satu pengalaman yang menyenangkan yang pernah Anda alami ketika belajar Bahasa Inggris. (Please tell me your positive experience in studying English)

3. Apa saja kegiatan di kelas yang Anda sukai? Mengapa (What kind of classroom activities do you like? Why?)
4. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang guru Bahasa Inggris Anda? (What is your opinion about your English teacher?)
5. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang teman-teman sekelas Anda? (What do you think about your classmate?)

Questions for DM Group (Decrease in Motivation)

1. Apakah Anda menyukai pelajaran Bahasa Inggris? (Do you like studying English?)
2. Mengapa Anda tidak suka? (Why don't you like it?
3. Ceritakan salah satu pengalaman yang menurut Anda menurunkan motivasi Anda belajar Bahasa Inggris. (Tell me your experience that decrease your motivation to study English)
4. Bagaimana pendapat Anda tentang guru bahasa Inggris Anda? (What is your opinion about your English teacher?)
5. What is your opinion about your classmates?

Note. These questions use as a guide. More related questions were asked during the interview based on students' answers.

Appendix I

Observation Sheet

Observer: **Teacher:**

Date: **School:**

Grade: **Class:**

1. Building Background

a. Concepts explicitly linked to student's background experiences

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b. Links explicitly made between past learning and new concepts.

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c. Key vocabulary emphasized (e.g introduced written, repeated, and highlighted for students
   to see)

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2. Comprehensible input

 a. Speech appropriate for students' proficiency level (e.g slower rate, enunciation, and simple structure for beginners)

----

b. Explanation of academic tasks clear

----

c. Use a variety of techniques to make concepts clear   e.q modelling, visual, hands on activities, demonstration gestures, body language.

----

3. Strategies

   a. Provides ample opportunities for students to use strategies

   ----
   ----

   b. Consistent use of scaffolding techniques throughout lesson,   assisting and
       supporting
       students' understanding such as   think aloud

   ----

   c. Teacher uses a variety of question types through   the lesson, including those
       that promote higher order thinking skill throughout the lesson (e.g literal,
       analytical, and interpretative questions).

   ----

4. Interaction

a. Frequent opportunities for interaction and discussion   between   teacher/student
    and among students which   encourage elaborated   responses about lesson
    concepts

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b. Consistently provides sufficient wait time for student to response
----
----

c. Ample opportunities for student to clarify concepts in L1

----

5. Practice /Application

a. Provide hands- on material and/or manipulative for students to practice using new content knowledge

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----

b. Provides activities for students to apply content and language   knowledge in the classroom

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----

c. Uses activities that integrate all language skills (i,e reading, writing, listening and speaking).

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6. Lesson Delivery

a.   Content objectives clearly supported by lesson delivery

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b.   Language objective s clearly supported by lesson delivery

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c.   Students enganged approximately 90-100% the period

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d.   Pacing of the lesson appropriate to the students' ability   level

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MONASH University

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

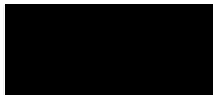|	
Date:	6 December 2011
Project Number:	CF11/2548 - 2011001494
Project Title:	The interaction between teacher and students in Indonesian EFL classroom context
Chief Investigator:	Assoc Prof Paul Richardson
Approved:	From: 6 December 2011 to 6 December 2016

Terms of approval

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. **Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.**
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, MUHREC

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