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Teaching Practice and Motivation Among Albanian and Japanese Missionaries

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Teaching Practice and Motivation Among Albanian and Japanese Missionaries

Rebekah Susan Atkin Hoopes

A thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

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ABSTRACT

Teaching Practice and Motivation Among Albanian and Japanese Missionaries

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This study explored the relationship between the use of motivational strategies by Albanian and Japanese teachers and the observed and reported motivation of missionaries at the Missionary Training Center (MTC) for The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints in Provo, Utah. The aim of this study was to collect baseline data about the motivational strategies already employed by teachers in the Albanian and Japanese areas of the MTC and to explore the relationship that the teachers' use of these strategies has with the motivation of the respective missionaries. The data for this study was collected from seven teachers and 28 learners during a series of observations using a modified version of the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT), a classroom observation instrument developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008). The MOLT is used to record the observable motivated behavior of learners as well as the motivational practices of the teachers according to Dörnyei's (2001) foreign language classroom motivational strategy framework. Each participating class was observed using the MOLT three times during the missionaries' nine-week stay in the MTC. The data from the observations was supplemented with teacher and learner surveys administered during the first and final weeks of the study period. Not only was this study useful for collecting valuable information about teaching practice at the MTC, but it also adds a new dimension to the empirical research that has been done in motivation in second language acquisition by expanding the research to English speakers being taught in foreign languages, whereas most research had been focused in ESL and EFL contexts. It is the first study to combine surveys with an observation component in target languages other than English. The results of this study support previous findings that teacher use of motivational strategies does indeed correlate significantly with learner motivation.

Keywords: Albanian, Japanese, L2 motivation, language learning, language teaching, missionary, MOLT, motivation, motivational strategies

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Motivation is a major influence when it comes to success in second or foreign language acquisition. If learners are not motivated for a difficult task, such as learning another language, they may give up before making any progress; thus, they will not experience success and will be even less motivated to continue. Without some sort of motivation, no second or foreign language learning would ever happen. Dörnyei (2014) explains that “motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it” (p. 521). Motivation, especially in language learning, can be very difficult to define or measure. It is nearly impossible to identify all the factors that could be creating or facilitating motivation (or demotivation) in any given situation or at any time. These factors include the background of the learners, the learners’ purpose for studying the language, the techniques used in the learning process, and the environment in which the learning takes place.

Motivation is possibly the most important baseline factor in second language acquisition, so if we can learn to create and sustain motivation, or encourage the motivation that is already present, we can better help learners succeed in their efforts to learn a new language. As Dörnyei (1998) notes, “Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent” (p. 117). Therefore, if researchers could make practical suggestions for how to increase and maintain motivation, learners would benefit greatly throughout the process of language learning.

An important influence on motivation in formal language study is teaching practice. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) have outlined a framework of the necessary steps for creating,

protecting, and encouraging motivation among students. They have identified several motivational teaching strategies, which they define as “instructional interventions used by the teacher to elicit and stimulate student motivation” (p. 57). The current research builds on Guilloteaux and Dörnyei’s framework and the research of others (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Ruesch, Bown & Dewey, 2012; Thayne, 2013) to observe the teaching practices of teachers at the Missionary Training Center (MTC) for The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints in Provo, Utah.

Approximately 50 languages are taught to missionaries who spend six to nine weeks in the MTC before reporting to over 100 countries, where they are expected to continue to study their languages on their own. For this reason, there is a great need for teaching practices that will help these missionaries become more autonomous learners in the MTC and beyond by creating and encouraging their intrinsic motivation. If teachers understand motivational principles and strategies and what the application of these strategies actually looks like in a classroom, the teachers can become guides in helping missionaries take responsibility for their own learning. As learners become autonomous, their time on task in and out of class while in the MTC will increase, and they will develop motivational habits that will help them to continue effective language study in the field.

Research has shown that motivation is highly influenced by the context in which the learning occurs. As Dörnyei (1994) states, “the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on who learns what languages where” (p. 275). Previous research on motivation has mainly focused on learning English in either a foreign or second language context (Alrabai, 2014; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Guilloteaux, 2013; Thayne, 2013) The current study observes and describes the motivation of a

unique group of English speakers in a foreign language context. The participants are missionaries learning Albanian and Japanese and their teachers. Both Albanian and Japanese are less commonly taught languages, which may influence the motivation of the learners to study those languages. Missionaries as a whole are usually a very highly motivated group of learners, but many missionaries struggle to find motivation to learn the language used in the area where they will be proselyting. More research on how to increase and support motivation among missionaries in ways that are appropriate to their purpose and standards would do much to benefit those individuals.

The purpose of this study is to determine the current motivational climate across the MTC—to determine which of the established motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2001) are already being applied in the teaching practice of MTC teachers and what effect, if any, those practices have on the motivation of missionaries. With this information, I will be able to make recommendations to the training department at the MTC as to how to better prepare teachers to motivate missionaries. In order to obtain a sample of the current motivational strategy use across the MTC, two groups of teachers of less commonly taught languages with different training coordinators and managers were observed, and the teaching practice of both groups was compared.

The participant groups for this study were Albanian and Japanese teachers and missionaries. During the missionaries' nine-week MTC stay, data was collected about the frequency of the teachers' use of motivational strategies and the missionaries' motivated behavior using Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) classroom observation scheme, modified for the MTC context. Teachers and missionaries also participated in surveys. The teacher surveys elicited information about the

importance and frequency of motivational strategies in their teaching, and the learner surveys were designed to obtain a report of the missionaries' motivational states in the MTC.

The research questions guiding this study are as follows:

1. Is there a difference in motivational strategy use between Albanian and Japanese teachers?
2. What is the relationship between the students' observed classroom behavior, their self-reported motivation, and the teachers' use of motivational strategies?
3. Does motivation, both reported and observed, change over time for missionaries while at the MTC? If so, why does it change?

This report of the current research will include a review of the pertinent literature in order to establish more fully the need for this research. It will then present an outline of the methodology and description of the instruments used to collect the data, followed by a description of the findings. Finally, it will conclude with a discussion of the results, limitations, and implications of the study and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

The Origins and History of L2 Motivation Research

Despite its importance as the mainspring behind the success of any educational task, motivation has a relatively short history in the field of second language acquisition. Motivation is a fundamental factor of success in language learning because “it provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process” (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 203). Indeed, “high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one’s language aptitude and learning conditions” (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 204). The roots of the study of motivation in second language acquisition (SLA) lie in the field of psychology. Some of the first to apply the principles studied by motivational psychologists to language learning were Gardner and Lambert (1972), who developed a social-psychological framework of motivation. Their framework contrasted integrative orientation, or the desire of learners to succeed in learning the target language so they can better fit into the language community, and instrumental orientation, or the desire to learn the language as a means to an end such as a better job or good grades. This was the dominant model of L2 motivation for decades until researchers started to identify other factors of influence and looked to other fields, such as education, for direction in expanding the motivational framework.

Since motivation has such a great influence on why people do what they do and how well they do what they do, researchers began investigating other factors related to motivation among second language learners. Some of these factors include internal elements such as the learners’ individual differences (Dörnyei, 2006) and their own self-concept (Dörnyei 2008). Other studies considered more external influences such as context (Dörnyei, 1994; 2006) and culture (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013; Ruesch, Bown, & Dewey, 2011). Still others, influenced by

research in education, called for more of a pedagogical approach to motivation and began examining motivational teaching practice as a major factor of learner motivation. This section of the review will outline some of the history behind motivational research in light of the current study.

Individual Differences. Building on the tradition established in general psychology, researchers in SLA began observing individual differences and their relationship with L2 success, with just one of those individual differences being motivation. Motivation may be one of the most important individual differences because “all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent” (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 117). Without the motivation to begin and continue the task, other individual differences such as personality traits, aptitude, learning styles, and learning strategies would have little effect. (For more information about other individual differences, see Dörnyei, 2006.) These other factors would not even come into play since “motivation determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 12).

Motivation is distinctive among individual differences because of its dynamic nature. In his study on individual differences, Dörnyei (2006) explains that, unlike personality and aptitude, motivation is not a static attribute but can change from day to day and even within one class period. Dörnyei suggests that when studying motivation in relation to learner behavior and classroom practice, researchers should use “a *process-oriented approach* that can account for . . . the ongoing changes of motivation over time” (p. 51). This approach seeks to incorporate many of the influential concepts of motivation into one process-oriented framework. The framework includes two elements: *motivational influences* and *action sequence*, which “represents the behavioural process whereby initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals,

then into intentions, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals” (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 526). This approach addresses the way motivation can fluctuate throughout the process of learning a language, which contributes to our understanding of learner motivation and also informs the development of teacher applied motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2000).

Self System. Combining the aforementioned integrative model and the new focus on individual motivation in language learning, Dörnyei (2008) developed his “L2 Motivational Self System,” which identifies three main sources for motivation to learn another language: “(a) the learner’s vision of oneself as an effective L2 speaker, (b) the social pressure coming from the learner’s environment and (c) positive learning experiences” (p. 4). These three sources pinpoint the importance not only of internal but also external factors in the motivation of second language learners.

Context. The learning environment can have a great influence on the motivation of language learners. A study of motivation in second language acquisition cannot be separated from the context in which the learning occurs, because “the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on who learns what languages where” (Dörnyei, 1994, p. 275). For this reason, researchers began adopting what has been called a “situated approach” to L2 motivation research (Dörnyei, 2006, p. 51), meaning that motivation is examined in light of the immediate learning environment and the teaching practice involved in the classroom (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

An important aspect of context is the culture where the L2 learning takes place. In recent years, researchers have been expanding the cultural context for motivation in English as a foreign language research to cultures as varied as Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), Taiwan

(Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007), South Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), and Saudi Arabia (Alrabai, 2014). Building off this research and taking it to an English as a *second* instead of *foreign* language context, Thayne (2013) studied teaching practice facilitating learner motivation among ESL students in the United States. While all of the above studies were done in EFL and ESL contexts, little research has been done where English was not the target language. One notable study that looked at languages other than English expanded the cultural context to English speakers learning Arabic, Chinese, French, Italian, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish as foreign languages in an American university (Ruesch, Bown, & Dewey, 2011). However, there is a need for additional research in more languages and more varied contexts. The present research seeks to contribute to the literature by examining language-learning motivation in a new context and in a new language.

Teaching Practice. Probably the most motivational aspect of any formal learning context is the motivational teaching practice, or use of motivational strategies, by the instructor. As students in any discipline or level know, the things that teachers do in the classroom can be very motivating (or demotivating). Regardless of whether teachers are aware of their use of motivational strategies, their behavior influences the motivation of the learners in their classes. “Good teachers in any subject matter seem to have an instinctive talent to provide an engaging framework that keeps the enthusiasts going and the less-than-enthusiasts thinking” (Dörnyei, 2008, p. 4).

Research has shown that even something as simple as the attitude of the teacher can affect the learners’ experience with the language. In a study of teacher enthusiasm and student intrinsic motivation, researchers found that the motivation of the teachers influenced the motivation of the students (Patrick, Hisley, & Kempler, 2000). Others have found that “the

teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that can affect learners' motivation to learn" and that "teacher motivation has a direct impact on student motivation and achievement" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 158, 185).

However, a good portion of research in L2 motivation has been aimed at finding more concrete ways to identify and measure motivational teaching practice. Since teacher enthusiasm and motivation are as hard to gauge as learner motivation, researchers have focused on creating a more comprehensive framework for L2 motivation based on teacher behavior in order to help teachers know how to motivate their students. After all, "without knowing where the roots of motivation lie, how can teachers water those roots?" (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 15).

This exploration of teacher-employed motivational strategies started in the early 1990s as an effort to incorporate some of the ideas of psychology and education into the Gardner and Lambert (1972) model of motivation. Language educators recognized that teaching strategies provide psychological support for learners, which they found to be a necessary part of L2 motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 17). As early as 1994, however, Gardner and Tremblay called into question the reliability of some of the motivational frameworks that had recently been introduced by Dörnyei (1994) and Oxford and Shearin (1994) since these frameworks were based mainly on theory and lacked empirical research to back up the claims of the authors. Thus scholars began looking for ways to identify motivational strategies and to verify the effects of said practices.

Survey Studies. Initially, researchers tried to answer this question and refine the frameworks for motivational teaching practice by surveying language teachers about their own teaching methods in the contexts discussed above. In perhaps the first study of this vein, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) set out to identify the strategies used most frequently by teachers of English as

a foreign language. Their study focused on several macrostrategies with subsets of strategies used by teachers of English in Hungary. They administered two surveys (one about the perceived importance of strategies and one about the perceived frequency of strategy use in the classroom) to 200 English teachers in Hungary. Based on the responses they received from the surveys, the researchers compiled a list of the ten most important macrostrategies or “commandments” for motivational L2 teaching. These ten strategies are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: *Ten Commandments for Motivating Language Learners*

1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
3. Present the tasks properly.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.
5. Increase the learners’ linguistic self-confidence.
6. Make the language classes interesting.
7. Promote learner autonomy.
8. Personalize the learning process.
9. Increase the learners’ goal-orientedness.
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture.

From Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 215

In 2007, Dörnyei and his colleague, Cheng, replicated Dörnyei and Csizér’s (1998) study, this time in Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). They surveyed 387 EFL teachers from a variety of educational institutions and from different areas of Taiwan and asked them to rate a list of 48 motivational strategies. The teachers were split into two groups and asked to rate the strategies either according to how important they found them to be or how frequently they used them in their own teaching. The researchers compared the results of this study with the results of Dörnyei’s previous study and found that four of the top five for both groups were the same (though not ranked in the same order). These strategies were “displaying motivating teacher behavior,” “promoting learners’ self-confidence,” “creating a pleasant classroom climate,” and “presenting tasks properly.” These results show that while some strategies are universally seen as

important, the perceived effectiveness of certain strategies may be limited by the cultural context. For example, in Hungary, “promoting learner autonomy” was seen as important, while “recognizing students’ effort and hard work” was more highly valued among Taiwanese teachers.

More recent studies have also replicated the work of Dörnyei and colleagues, modifying their research for various other contexts. Ruesch, Bown, and Dewey (2011) followed up on the two previous studies (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) in a North American foreign language context and compared their findings to the findings of those studies. This study also added an important element to the previous research by including student perceptions of motivational teaching practice. The researchers’ comparison of their study to the previous studies highlights the fact that, although motivational practice does contribute to learner motivation, “not all teaching practices are perceived as motivational in every context” (p. 10). Likewise, Guilloteaux (2013) also replicated these two studies and found that while some strategies are universal, there are also many strategies that are culture or context specific. Finally, Alrabai (2014) conducted a survey study, this time in Saudi Arabia, to assess teachers’ opinions about motivational strategies, how often they are used in the classroom, and how they affect learners’ motivation. The results of all three studies support the previous researchers’ conclusions that the classroom climate influences learners’ motivation despite the five different contexts.

Observation Studies. While the survey studies were based in solid theory, the subjectivity and possible inaccuracy of self-reported data and the continued lack of observable evidence caused a move for more objective empirical research. Gardner and Tremblay (1994) called for empirical proof based on actual classroom observations to show that the teaching strategies

highlighted in the literature were actually being used in classrooms and contributing to learner motivation and not merely being assumed as motivational.

In order to validate their theories, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) developed a groundbreaking instrument: an observation scheme called the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT). This new tool allowed the researchers to observe not only the teachers' actual motivational teaching practice but also the motivational behavior of the learners. The MOLT allows researchers to record real-time strategy use based on the categories of motivational strategies previously developed by Dörnyei (2001). The results of the 2008 study provided scientific confirmation that the motivational strategies used by language teachers do indeed correlate significantly with increased levels of observed motivated behavior among language learners and thus have a positive impact on learners' motivational states.

Following the publication of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), Ellis (2009) responded with praise for what the study added to motivation research but also pointed out a few shortcomings in the study, particularly with the learner behavior elements of the MOLT. Ellis questioned not only the labels attached to these variables but also the rationale for supposing that those specific behaviors exhibit motivation. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2009) replied to this critique by clarifying some of the terminology used in the original study and acknowledging that further research would be needed to determine which learner behaviors could predict motivated L2 learning. While the MOLT is not a perfect instrument, it was a step forward in observing the relationship between motivated learner behavior and motivational teaching practice and a springboard for future research.

Since the introduction of observation studies and the MOLT, a number of researchers have replicated and adapted the model to fit their various research interests. The first of these

replications was carried out in Iran in an all-male EFL context (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). In this study, Papi and Abdollahzadeh used the MOLT to measure the correlation between motivational teacher practice and learner motivated behavior. They found a significant correlation ($r = .72$) between the two variables.

The next year, the study was replicated again in a North American ESL context (Thayne, 2013). Thayne used the MOLT to observe the correlation between teaching practice and learner behavior, but she also added an element of teacher training to determine whether training teachers in motivational strategy use would be beneficial. The results of this study indicate that teacher practice and motivation are indeed associated with one another and that teachers found the training to be helpful. A similar study was done in Saudi Arabia in an EFL context, where teachers in an experimental group were trained in 10 motivational strategies and then observed to ensure that they were implementing the target strategies into their classrooms (Moskovsky, Arabai, Paolini, & Ratcheva, 2013). The researchers compared the observations and participant surveys from the experimental group with data from a control group and found that there was a significant relationship between the teachers' use of motivational strategies and learner motivation.

All of the previously mentioned studies have contributed to our understanding of motivation among second language learners. This review of the literature has explored the nature of such motivation, the effect of context and culture on motivation, the perceptions of language teachers on the effectiveness and importance of motivational teaching practice, and even the relationship between observed motivational strategy use and motivated learner behavior in EFL and ESL contexts.

Research Context and Questions

The current research seeks to contribute to the literature of L2 motivation by expanding the study of observed motivational teaching practice and learner motivation to a new, foreign language context. To this end, the present study was carried out in a private institution in the United States. The target languages used in instruction were Albanian and Japanese, which are both less commonly taught languages. The research on the acquisition of Japanese and Albanian among English speakers is limited. However, it has been noted that the difficulty of less commonly taught languages, particularly noncognate languages, or those that are or not closely related to English, can greatly affect the learners' motivation to study those languages (Samimy, 1994). Neither Albanian nor Japanese are closely related to English, which may affect the motivation of the learners in this study. This is the first study to combine both the survey and observation portions of this type of research in a situation where the target language was not English. Additionally, the research was conducted in a unique context, among a distinct group of learners, which will be explained further in the Methodology section.

Research Questions. This study was carried out in the chosen context in order to address the following research questions regarding motivation in the Missionary Training Center (MTC):

1. Is there a difference in motivational strategy use between Albanian and Japanese teachers?
2. What is the relationship between the students' observed classroom behavior, their self-reported motivation, and the teachers' use of motivational strategies?
3. Does motivation, both reported and observed, change over time for missionaries while at the MTC? If so, why does it change?

Chapter 3: Methodology

In order to answer the questions guiding the current research, the author and a co-researcher observed and surveyed a group of seven teachers and 28 missionaries. We used a variety of instruments designed to elicit information about the motivational climate of the Missionary Training Center (MTC) by observing and examining the existing instructional practice of teachers and the motivational state of the missionaries. The context, participants, instruments, and procedures, including data analysis, will be explained in more detail in this chapter.

The Unique Missionary Context

Although there has been little outside research conducted among missionaries of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints, they are generally considered to be a highly motivated group of language learners, probably because of the “higher purpose” inherent with their religious commitment to study the language. Though missionaries do not choose what language they will study, or even whether they will learn a language, they are usually very invested in the process, knowing when they choose to serve a mission that it is probable that they will be assigned to learn one of more than 50 languages in order to help them teach others about their beliefs. In fact, all that missionaries learn in the MTC, including grammar instruction, is taught in context of their purpose as missionaries. They learn vocabulary and grammar as tools to help them communicate and teach their beliefs to individuals not of their faith, even in the MTC. Their other religious lessons such as the fundamentals of missionary work are taught in the target language. This means that for the missionaries, their ecclesiastical education is completely intertwined with their language, creating a model of content-based instruction.

Aside from their faith-based dedication, it is likely that other characteristics of the missionary context also contribute to missionaries' motivation. For example, research contrasting second versus foreign language environments examines the benefits and challenges associated with different levels of input and instrumentality when it comes to language learning (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). The missionary language experience is exceptional in this way because missionaries spend six to nine weeks—with a minimum of six hours of class and three hours of study five days a week—in the MTC (Larson-Hall & Dewey, 2012, p. 63), usually in a foreign language environment (unless they are ESL missionaries or studying at an MTC in another country such as Brazil or Mexico), preparing for a further 17–23 months in a second language setting in countries throughout the world. This change in language environments may have a significant impact on the motivation of missionaries to learn their mission languages.

Another possible influence of missionary motivation is explained in instrumentality or expectancy-value theory—in particular, goal setting. Oxford and Shearin (1994) state that “goal setting can have exceptional importance in stimulating L2 learning motivation, and it is therefore shocking that so little time and energy are spent in the L2 classroom on goal setting” (p. 19). The MTC curriculum and missionary program, in contrast, place a significant emphasis on the importance of goal setting. Missionaries schedule half an hour daily and even more time weekly to set language and other goals and are strongly encouraged by teachers and leaders to create and adapt language study plans throughout their missions.

Since teaching practice has been shown to effect learner motivation, teacher training must also be considered. Most MTC teachers have never received formal training in teaching practice beyond the weekly training they receive from their supervisors regarding the MTC curriculum. This training is usually focused more on the missionary aspect of the MTC curriculum, i.e.,

helping missionaries become more effective teachers, than on grammar instruction, although some training meetings are dedicated to language. As far as grammar, the MTC has taken a task-based approach since the 1990s (Graham, 2012), and language teachers are sometimes trained on how to conduct task-based language activities in the classroom. There is rarely specific focus on motivation and never on motivational strategies. While the teachers are not professionally trained in language teaching practice, all MTC teachers are returned missionaries, meaning that, unless they are native speakers, they likely learned the languages they teach in the MTC themselves and are prone to teach the language the way they learned it.

These and other factors may influence the motivation of missionaries to study the various languages they are assigned to learn. These influences may also play into the relationship between the missionaries' motivational states and their teachers' motivational practice.

Participants

The participants for this study were seven Albanian and Japanese teachers and 28 missionaries at the Missionary Training Center in Provo, Utah. These languages were chosen because of the proficiencies of the researchers in those languages and our desire to expand the research on classroom motivational strategy use to the target languages while identifying the motivational climate across the MTC. All of the Albanian- and Japanese-speaking missionaries who entered the MTC during the designated research period and their teachers were invited via email to participate in the study. Two classes of each language participated. The Albanian classes had a total of ten learners (seven male and three female) and three teachers (two male and one female). The Japanese classes had a total of 18 learners (nine male and nine female) and four teachers (three male and one female). Three of the male learners from one of the Japanese

classes failed to complete the first survey, so their responses were left out of the survey portion of the analysis, but they were included in the observation portions.

MTC teachers are typically college students in their early to mid-twenties. The teachers for this study were all native English speakers with between one and four semesters of experience teaching at the MTC. Their self-assessments of their ability in each area of language are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: *Teacher Self-Assessments*

Teacher	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Vocabulary
Japanese 1	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Average	Below Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.
Japanese 2	Excellent	Excellent	Above Ave.	Average	Above Ave.	Excellent
Japanese 3	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Average	Above Ave.	Above Ave.
Japanese 4	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Excellent	Average
Albanian 1	Average	Average	Above Ave.	Average	Average	Average
Albanian 2	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Average	Above Ave.	Average
Albanian 3	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.	Above Ave.

The missionaries were between ages 18 to 25 and all native English speakers. Seven out of 28 had studied their mission language (all of them Japanese) before reporting to the MTC. Six of the seven had studied it in high school and the other had taken a college course. As far as other languages, 22 out of 28 missionaries had studied one or more foreign languages other than their mission language before coming to the MTC. They had studied Spanish, German, Russian, Chinese, Latin, English, and American Sign Language. One missionary had studied an L2 less than six months, six had studied for six to 12 months, 12 had studied for one to two years, and three had studied for three or more years. This in itself is a sign of the increased motivation among this group of learners to study languages.

Procedures

Piloting. In order to familiarize ourselves with the MOLT observation scheme, establish inter-rater reliability, and test the instrument, the research team performed a pilot test before collecting data for the main study. It was important to establish inter-rater reliability during the piloting phase because both researchers collected the data for the main study separately—one for the Albanian classes and one for the Japanese classes. We piloted the instrument in five Japanese classes at the MTC with a total of 48 missionaries. The instruments were piloted in Japanese classrooms in an effort to represent a population similar to that of the main study and also because there were no Albanian missionaries at the MTC at the time of the pilot observations. It should be noted that one researcher does not speak Japanese, but most of the motivational strategies are recognizable from context and non-verbal cues, and when necessary, the other researcher provided translation. We both coded the MOLT separately and compared our findings for each observation. There was 96% agreement overall between both researchers observing the same classes. As a result of the piloting, I modified the MOLT to better fit the MTC context as explained in the Instruments section below.

Main Study. I conducted my research during the nine-week stay of a group of Albanian and Japanese missionaries in the summer of 2014. Each teacher and class was observed once at the beginning of the nine weeks (within weeks one or two where possible), once in the middle (weeks five or six), and once at the end (weeks eight or nine). I chose to do three observations for each class, believing that a semi-longitudinal approach would provide a more accurate measure of the actual use of motivational strategies and the motivational climate at the MTC. Of course, the most accurate measure possible of the motivational climate would require all class periods during the nine-week period to be observed, but such an undertaking was beyond the

scope of this project. Three evenly spaced observations gave a good sample and allowed for a comparison of strategy use throughout the missionaries' stay and accounted for any "off" days the teachers might have. This resulted in a total of twenty-one observations: twelve for the Japanese classes and nine for the Albanian classes.

The researchers observed the different languages and collected the MOLT data separately. One researcher observed the Japanese classes, and the other observed the Albanian classes. Each observation took place during regularly scheduled instruction and lasted approximately 60 minutes. Observations that were shorter or longer than 60 minutes due to late starts were prorated for the purposes of data analysis, which will be explained further in the Data Analysis section of this report.

The nature of the classes also differed slightly between the two languages. One researcher observed the Japanese classes during their "Fundamental Lessons." These lessons are designed to teach missionaries the fundamentals of their religious curriculum, and while not specifically focused on language, the classes are still conducted in the target language as part of the MTC's Speak Your Language (SYL) philosophy, which is based on the idea that a language is best learned with as much input and practiced output as possible. The other researcher observed the Albanian classes during their "Grammar Instruction," where missionaries were instructed in the principles of the language. These classes were also conducted in the target language in accordance with the SYL policy. It may seem that teaching in the target language would make it difficult for novice learners to understand what the teachers are saying or recognize the motivational strategies, thereby limiting the motivational influence of the strategies. However, as was explained in the Piloting section, many of the strategies are non-verbal or require only a few words—typically words that the missionaries would learn early on.

The teacher and learner surveys were administered at the beginning (weeks one to three) and end (weeks seven to nine) of the nine-week period. Again, administering the surveys twice allowed for a comparison of the participants' perceived strategy use (for the teachers) and motivational state (for the missionaries). The MTC research department administered all surveys using Qualtrics survey software. Participants received a link to the surveys via email. Surveys for both missionaries and teachers are a typical part of MTC training and therefore the surveys were not out of the ordinary or burdensome to participants.

Instruments

In order to establish an accurate measure of the motivational climate of the MTC, three instruments were used: (a) the MOLT observation scheme adapted from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) and Thayne (2013) to better fit the MTC context (see Appendix A), (b) a teacher survey adapted from Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) (see Appendix B), and (c) a missionary survey also adapted from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) (see Appendix C). The piloting of the MOLT was described in the Procedures section.

The MOLT Classroom Observation Scheme. The MOLT classroom observation scheme developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) records a real-time, minute-to-minute sample of the motivational strategies employed by the teacher as well as the motivational behavior of the learners for a sixty-minute class period. The bulk of the MOLT is concerned with the teacher's motivational practice, based on Dörnyei's (2001) model of teaching practice. It includes the categories of (a) Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-Evaluation and (b) Generating, Maintaining, and Protecting Situation-Specific Task Motivation, the latter of which is further broken down into Teacher Discourse, Participant Organization, and Activity Design. When using this instrument, researchers may mark only one item of each section for each minute

of the observation. Only the event that took up the greater part of the minute should be marked. As an exception, more than one item from Activity Design could be marked for each minute because two items could contribute to the design of the activity.

The Learner Behavior section of the MOLT records observable motivated learner behavior in terms of Attention, Participation, and Volunteering. Definitions of these variables are presented in Table 3. Both Attention and Participation were marked only if two-thirds of the class was alert or engaged, but Volunteering was marked if at least one-third of the class exhibited that behavior. More than one of these items could be marked for each minute.

Table 3: *Observational Variables Measuring Learners' Motivated Behavior*

Variables	Description
<i>Attention</i>	Students appear to be paying attention: They are not displaying any inattentive or disruptive behavior; they are looking at the teacher and following his or her movements, looking at visual stimuli, turning to watch another student who is contributing to the task, following the text being read, or making appropriate nonverbal responses.
<i>Participation</i>	Students are actively taking part in classroom interaction or working on assigned activity.
<i>Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity</i>	At least one third of the students are volunteering without the teacher having to coax them in any way.

From Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008, p. 62

For the current study, I adapted the MOLT following the piloting stage in order to better fit the MTC context (see Appendix A). Some teacher motivational practices from the original MOLT that do not apply to the MTC because of the regulations in place for teachers were eliminated from the MOLT. For example, “tangible task product” never came up because such activities are not a part of the MTC curriculum. I also left out a few variables that are not in line with the religious and purpose-centered program of the MTC and were never observed during the pilot phase. One such strategy was “element of interest, creativity, fantasy,” which Guilloteaux

& Dörnyei (2008) define in part as “ambiguous, paradoxical, problematic, controversial, contradictory, incongruous, or exotic material” (p. 64). MTC administration prohibits teachers from bringing anything into the MTC for the missionaries, so I eliminated “tangible reward.” Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) support this exclusion stating, “The ‘carrot and stick’ principle has not featured very prominently in modern educational approaches” (p. 219). Dörnyei and Csizér have observed a shift in teaching practice away from the traditional view of a teacher’s role as the dispenser of rewards.

I also included 12 of the 14 additional observational variables used by Thayne (2013) when she adapted the MOLT for her own research in an ESL context. I left out “achievement feedback,” which I chose not to distinguish from “effort feedback” and “ability feedback,” and eliminated “using humor as part of the lesson,” which, due to the nature of the MTC, I incorporated into “positive atmosphere.” While spontaneous humor does occur, lessons are not designed to entertain the missionaries, and things such as humorous video clips or jokes are never planned into lessons. I also simplified the Learner Behavior section following the example of Thayne. These modifications helped me better focus on observing the items from the MOLT that contribute to the vision and standards of the MTC. I added three items to the MOLT that had not been included either by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) or Thayne (2013) but that I found to be motivating, especially in the MTC context, as a result of the piloting phase. These items came from Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and are supported in Principles of MTC Training from the internally published A Guide for MTC Teachers: Language 2012 (MTC, 2012). My modifications are displayed and defined in Table 4.

Table 4: *Three Added Observational Variables of Teachers' Motivational Practice*

Variables	Description
<i>Listening to learners</i>	Show missionaries you care about each of them. (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2001, p. 157)
<i>Effective demonstration</i>	Show missionaries what to do rather than tell them. (e.g. role-play, demonstration) (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p. 158; MTC, p. 89)
<i>Encouraging class norms/culture</i>	Encouraging SYL and missionary rules. (MTC, p. 89; See also, Cheng & Dörnyei 2007, p. 159; see also Dörnyei, 1994, p. 282)

I also included a few placeholder variables such as “choral work” and “individual work” (shown with an asterisk on the modified MOLT) that were not included in the data analysis, but that helped me better keep track of what happened in the class. These items were not motivational strategies, but since they happened often in the classroom, I included them in the MOLT to help me differentiate them from actual motivational strategies. The modified MOLT contains most of the observational variables included in the original study and those added by Thayne (2013), although some of them were combined or eliminated as described above. The items in the Teacher Motivational Practice section of the MOLT were correlated with the items on the Teacher Motivational Strategy Use Survey developed for this study.

The Teacher Motivational Strategy Use Survey. The Teacher Motivational Strategy Use Survey used for this study (see Appendix B) was adapted from the work of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007). The survey began with questions about the experience of the teachers and their self-assessed proficiency in either Albanian or Japanese in the following core areas: listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary.

Teachers then reported on several items correlated by the researchers to the motivational strategies included in the MOLT observation scheme. These items were designed to elicit information about the perceived importance (on a five-element scale from “unimportant” to

“very important”) and frequency (on a five-element scale from “never” to “several times each class period”) of the teachers’ use of motivational strategies. The surveys were administered via email during the first week of the nine-week research period and again during the last week.

I also included a few open-ended questions about the teachers’ use of the strategies to motivate their missionaries. For example, “If there are some strategies that you feel are important but do not use, what keeps you from using them?” and “What do you do in the classroom to motivate the missionaries you teach?” (See Appendix B for the full survey.)

The Learner Motivational State Survey. The Learner Motivational State Survey used for this study (see Appendix C) was adapted from the learner survey used by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008). The survey comprised basic questions about the learners’ language background, including any previous experience with their mission language and their current motivational state. As explained previously, motivation is a very dynamic and often elusive concept; therefore, this survey was not intended to result in a definitive measure of the missionaries’ motivation (such as a test of aptitude or IQ may do) but was simply an effort to capture a sense of their situation-specific motivational state in regards to their current L2 study.

The missionaries were asked to respond to 45 items using a six-point Likert scale with options ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The items were designed to assess the students in five areas: (a) attitudes toward their current experience with their mission language, (b) linguistic self-confidence in their mission language, (c) anxiety related to their mission language, (d) individual use of learning strategies, and (d) autonomy as learners. The first three categories came from the original study, and all items developed by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) were included in my survey. I also included two additional categories that I found could contribute to motivation: learner autonomy and learner strategy.

Identifying learner autonomy as an influence on motivation has been both praised and criticized. Autonomy has been classified as very important and motivating in Western culture but is not highly valued in Asian contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Guilloteaux, 2013). Patrick, Hisley, and Kempler (2000) found that autonomy had a strong relationship to intrinsic motivation, at least in the American context. Likewise, learner strategy, a sub-category of autonomy, has been found to relate to motivation. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that more motivated learners employed learning strategies more often than their less motivated counterparts. Based on this research, I found the categories of learner strategy and autonomy worth including in the learner surveys. I administered the surveys via email within the first week of the nine-week research period and again during the last week. The surveys were identical except for the substitution of three questions about a change in the missionaries' motivation during their stay in the MTC (see Appendix C).

Data Analysis

In order to answer the research questions presented in the previous chapter, the data collected through the current research was organized in the same way as the study by Guilloteaux & Dörnyei (2008), where possible. For example, where MOLT observations were exactly 60 minutes long as planned, the motivational teaching practice and learner behavior were simply totaled according to the number of minutes during which either a teacher or learner behavior was observed, resulting in a number between zero and 60. Where observations were either more or less than 60 minutes because of inconsistent class lengths (all in Japanese classes), the totals were prorated or adjusted by dividing the totals from the MOLT by the number of minutes of each class then multiplying by 100 to find comparable frequencies and make them consistent with the data from the 60-minute observations. This resulted in some totals that are not

whole numbers. Where research questions or measures differed, the organization of the data was adjusted to best address the research questions of this study. The processes of data analysis will be further explained below according to research question.

Analysis for Research Question 1.

1. Is there a difference in motivational strategy use between Albanian and Japanese teachers?

To answer this question and identify the motivational climate across two different training areas of the MTC, the motivational teaching practice data for each strategy from the MOLT observation scheme was totaled for each observation and then for each class. All of this information was combined to find a composite score for each teaching strategy in each language. These strategies were then ranked according to frequency of use in each language for comparison and analyzed using descriptive statistics. The discussion of these rankings and their implications will be included in the next chapters.

Analysis for Research Question 2.

2. What is the relationship between the students' observed classroom behavior, their self-reported motivation, and the teachers' use of motivational strategies?

This study included both an observation component and teacher and learner surveys, allowing for triangulation of the data and a more clear view of learner motivation and any effect the teachers' motivational practice may have had on the learners. For this question, the data was organized in two parts. First, in order to find any correlation between the observed motivational strategy use and the observed learner behavior—both collected with the MOLT—these items were totaled for each of the 21 observations (three for each teacher). The learner behavior was

totaled according to the three categories of Attention, Participation, and Volunteering and those scores were combined to create a score for total motivated behavior.

Second, in order to observe the relationship between the self-reported learner motivation (from the two learner surveys) and both the observed learner behavior and the teacher practice (from the MOLT), the observed behaviors were totaled for the first and last observations for each teacher. Only the first and last observations were included because they coincided with the two learner surveys taken at the beginning and end of the research period and, since I only administered two surveys, there were no surveys to correspond with the observations in the middle of the research period. Because the observational data was collected at the class level, the learner survey data was compiled for all missionaries in each class to make it comparable to the observational data. The data for the learner surveys was totaled into class scores for the five categories contained in the survey: attitude toward the course, linguistic self-confidence, L2 classroom anxiety, learner strategy, and learner autonomy. Those category scores were then added together to create a cumulative score for all the missionaries in each class. All of this data was then computed using Pearson correlations in SPSS. The results and discussion for these correlations will be covered in the following chapters.

Analysis for Research Question 3.

3. Does motivation, both reported and observed, change over time for missionaries while at the MTC? If so, why does it change?

Since this question has two parts, the data used to answer this question was organized in two parts. First, data collected from the learner surveys of the self-reported motivational state of the missionaries was compiled and organized according to attitude toward the course, linguistic self-confidence, L2 classroom anxiety, learner strategy, and learner autonomy. Each missionary

was given a composite score for each category as well as a total score for each of the two surveys. These survey scores were then analyzed using a paired samples t-test in SPSS to account for any change in self-reported motivation over time.

For the second part of the question, the change in observed motivated behavior, the data for learner behavior from the MOLT was compiled for each class according to the three categories of learner behavior: Attention, Participation, and Volunteering. Each class was given both a composite score for each category and a total score for each of the three observations. These observation scores were then analyzed using repeated-measures ANOVA in SPSS to identify any statistically significant change over time.

This question was also answered in part by a few open-ended questions on the learner survey about the missionaries' own perceived change in motivation throughout their MTC stay. Some of the responses from these survey questions as well as the results and implications of the above described data analysis will be discussed in the next chapters.

Chapter 4: Results

This section will present the statistical findings of the research and the results of the analysis of the observations and surveys according to research question.

Results for Research Question 1

1. Is there a difference in motivational strategy use between Albanian and Japanese teachers?

The difference in actual motivational strategy use between the two groups of teachers came from the observational data collected using the MOLT. Using the totals for each language, the strategies were ranked according to frequency of use. These strategies can be seen in ranked order according to language in Table 5. The means (totals divided by number of observations) for each language are included. As explained in the Methodology section, the totals for the Japanese classes are not whole numbers because they were prorated to account for irregular class lengths. The top ten strategies for each language are bolded. Both groups of teachers had six of the top ten strategies in common; these strategies are marked with an asterisk. This shows the similarities and differences in motivational teaching practice across two MTC training areas.

Table 5: *Ranked Strategies*

ALBANIAN

JAPANESE

Strategy	Total	Mean	Strategy	Total	Mean
1. Challenging task	198	22.00	1. Group/pair work*	155.84	12.99
2. Scaffolding*	177	19.67	2. Personalization*	87.35	7.28
3. Group/pair work*	131	14.56	3. Listening to learners*	75.32	6.28
4. Easy task	83	9.22	4. Referential questions	70.14	5.85
5. Teacher monitoring*	80	8.89	5. Teacher monitoring*	61.57	5.13
6. Listening to learners*	66	7.33	6. Explicit instruction	42.12	3.51
7. Warm-up/review activity	63	7.00	7. Scaffolding*	35.93	2.99
8. Personalization*	62	6.89	8. Teacher model for enthusiasm	35.45	2.95
9. Encouraging class norms/culture*	42	4.67	9. Effective demonstration	30.76	2.56
10. Effective praise	36	4.00	10. Encouraging class norms/culture*	25.56	2.13
11. Vary the normal routine	19	2.11	11. Establishing relevance	22.11	1.84
12. Explicit strategy instruction	16	1.78	12. Competition element	21.64	1.80
13. Positive atmosphere	14	1.56	13. Warm-up/review activity	21.52	1.79
14. Effective demonstration	11	1.22	14. Self/Peer correction	21.34	1.78
15. Signposting	9	1.00	15. Social chat	20.78	1.73
16. Teacher model for enthusiasm	8	0.89	16. Stating purpose/utility of activity	14.13	1.18
17. Effort feedback	7	0.78	17. Arousing curiosity or attention	14.07	1.17
18. Class applause	6	0.67	18. Promoting autonomy	12.20	1.02
19. Promoting individual/class goals	6	0.67	19. Positive atmosphere	8.62	0.72
20. Self/Peer correction	5	0.56	20. Promoting cooperation	7.11	0.59
21. Ability feedback	4	0.44	21. Promoting integrative values	6.55	0.55
22. Referential questions	4	0.44	22. Signposting	5.84	0.49
23. Social chat	3	0.33	23. Effective praise	5.66	0.47
24. Arousing curiosity or attention	3	0.33	24. Ability feedback	5.58	0.47
25. Establishing relevance	2	0.22	25. Promoting individual/class goals	4.43	0.37
26. Stating purpose/utility of activity	2	0.22	26. Vary the normal routine	3.89	0.32
27. Promoting autonomy	1	0.11	27. Challenging task	1.88	0.16
28. Promoting instrumental values	1	0.11	28. Class applause	1.00	0.08
29. Promoting integrative values	1	0.11	29. Promoting instrumental values	0.98	0.08
30. Competition element	0	0.00	30. Effort feedback	0.00	0.00
31. Communication over grammar	0	0.00	31. Easy task	0.00	0.00
32. Promoting cooperation	0	0.00	32. Communication over grammar	0.00	0.00

Top ten for each language bolded. *Common strategies.

The six common strategies used most frequently by teachers of both languages were “group/pair work,” “scaffolding,” “personalization,” “teacher monitoring,” “listening to learners,” and “encouraging class norms/culture.” The Albanian teachers used the strategies and activity designs of “challenging task,” “easy task,” “warm-up/review activity,” and “effective praise” more than their Japanese counterparts, while the Japanese teachers used “referential questions,” “explicit instruction,” “teacher model for enthusiasm,” and “effective demonstration” more than the Albanian teachers. This information is displayed in Table 6.

Table 6: *Top Ten Most Frequent Strategies*

Common Strategies	Albanian	Japanese
Group/pair work	Challenging task	Referential questions
Scaffolding	Easy task	Explicit instruction
Personalization	Warm-up/review activity	Teacher model for enthusiasm
Teacher monitoring	Effective praise	Effective demonstration
Listening to learners		
Encouraging class norms/culture		

The discussion of this data and how it answers the appropriate research question will be presented in Chapter 5.

Results for Research Question 2

2. What is the relationship between the students’ observed classroom behavior, their self-reported motivation, and the teachers’ use of motivational strategies?

As explained in the Data Analysis section of Chapter 3, this research question was answered in two parts using both the MOLT observation scheme and the learner surveys. I first looked at the relationship between observed motivational strategy use (Teacher Practice) and observed learner behavior (totaled and in three categories: Attention, Participation, and Volunteering), both collected using the MOLT. This data was processed in SPSS, using a Pearson correlation test. The results are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7: *Correlations between Teacher Practice and Observed Learner Behavior*

		Teacher Practice	Learner Behavior	Volunteering	Participation	Attention
Teacher Practice	Pearson Correlation	1	.481*	.676**	.358	-.229
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.027	.001	.111	.318
	N	21	21	21	21	21
Learner Behavior	Pearson Correlation	.481*	1	.186	.881**	.423
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027		.420	.000	.056
	N	21	21	21	21	21
Volunteering	Pearson Correlation	.676**	.186	1	-.065	-.410
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.420		.778	.065
	N	21	21	21	21	21
Participation	Pearson Correlation	.358	.881**	-.065	1	.177
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111	.000	.778		.442
	N	21	21	21	21	21
Attention	Pearson Correlation	-.229	.423	-.410	.177	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.318	.056	.065	.442	
	N	21	21	21	21	21

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The analysis of this data shows a statistically significant correlation between Teacher Practice and overall Learner Behavior, $r(19) = .48, p < .027$, and between Teacher Practice and the category of Volunteering, $r(19) = .676, p < .001$. The correlation between Teacher Practice and the categories of Participation and Attention were not found to be statistically significant. The implications of this data will be discussed in Chapter 5.

In order to discover the relationship between the learners' motivation as reported on the surveys and both the learner behavior and teacher practice observed using the MOLT, Pearson correlations with multiple variables were run in SPSS. This test identified correlations among teaching practice, the total and three categories of learner behavior (Volunteering, Participation, and Attention), and the total and five categories of learner motivation from the survey (Attitude,

Confidence, Anxiety, Strategy, and Autonomy). The results of these correlations are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: *Correlations among Reported Motivation, Observed Teacher Practice, and Observed Learner Behavior*

		Survey Total	Attitude	Confidence	Anxiety	Strategy	Autonomy
Teacher Practice	Pearson Correlation	-.257	.166	.707**	.686**	.043	.769**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.376	.572	.005	.007	.883	.001
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14
Learner Behavior	Pearson Correlation	-.033	.509	.508	.305	.147	.307
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.912	.063	.064	.289	.615	.285
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14
Volunteering	Pearson Correlation	-.294	.109	.708**	.505	.319	.687**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.308	.712	.005	.066	.266	.007
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14
Participation	Pearson Correlation	.051	.574*	.493	.328	.021	.213
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.864	.032	.074	.252	.944	.465
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14
Attention	Pearson Correlation	.036	.063	-.233	-.267	.096	-.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.902	.830	.423	.357	.745	.574
	N	14	14	14	14	14	14

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Many of the factors between reported motivation and teacher practice and between reported motivation and observed learner behaviors correlate significantly with one another. Notable correlations are between Teacher Practice and the missionaries' self-reported Confidence, $r(12) = .707, p < .005$; Anxiety, $r(12) = .686, p < .007$; and Autonomy, $r(12) = .769, p < .001$. (The survey items describing Anxiety were reversed, which means that a high Anxiety score actually indicates low anxiety and higher motivation.) Also, the observed Volunteering was significantly correlated with the missionaries' self-reported Confidence, $r(12) = .708, p < .005$ and Autonomy, $r(12) = .687, p < .007$. Finally, there is a significant correlation between Participation and the missionaries' Attitude toward the course, $r(12) = .574, p < .032$. The implications of these results will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Results for Research Question 3

3. Does motivation, both reported and observed, change over time for missionaries while at the MTC? If so, why does it change?

This question was answered in three parts. First, a paired samples t-test was conducted in SPSS to compare the change over time in reported motivation. This information is presented in Table 9. Second, the observed change in motivated behavior was analyzed using repeated-measures ANOVA. Finally, I included a few open-ended questions in the second survey designed to assess whether learners felt that their level of motivation had changed and why. A summary of their responses is displayed in Table 10.

Table 9: Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Attitude1 - Attitude2	-.0775	.3318	.0663	-.2144	.0594	-1.168	24	.254
Pair 2	Confidence1 - Confidence2	-.0760	.4465	.0893	-.2603	.1083	-.851	24	.403
Pair 3	Anxiety1 - Anxiety2	-.4600	.6719	.13438	-.73735	-.18265	-3.423	24	.002
Pair 4	Strategy1 - Strategy2	-.1333	.6102	.1220	-.3852	.1185	-1.092	24	.285
Pair 5	Autonomy1 - Autonomy2	-.1133	.4756	.0951	-.3096	.0829	-1.191	24	.245
Pair 6	Total1 - Total2	-5.7200	14.0935	2.8187	-11.5375	.0975	-2.029	24	.054

There was a significant difference in the scores for Anxiety1 ($M=3.95$, $SD=1.08$) and Anxiety2 ($M=4.41$, $SD=.97$) conditions; $t(24) = -3.42$, $p < 0.002$. These results show that the anxiety scores increased overall for the missionaries from the first survey to the second survey. Because the anxiety questions from the survey were reversed, this means that the missionaries

actually experienced a decrease in anxiety about learning the target language from the beginning to the end of their stay in the MTC and thus an increase in motivation.

According to the t-test, the difference for the total reported motivation is approaching statistical significance, $t(24) = -2.029$, $p < 0.054$, but there was no statistically significant change in any other categories over time. The repeated measures ANOVA found no significant changes over time in the observed motivated behavior. These findings will be discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

The second learner survey asked the missionaries to respond to a few open-ended items describing their own perception of their change in motivation and the effect of their teachers' instruction on their motivation. Table 10 includes summarized responses to these items. The responses were grouped with similar responses.

None of the missionaries said that their motivation had decreased; two missionaries reported that their motivation stayed about the same, and 23 said it had increased. As far as the reason for any change in their motivation, the responses highlighted three main categories of influence. Integration, which Dörnyei (1994) defines as being “associated with a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community” (p. 274), is concerned with learning the target language to communicate with speakers of that language. This was the most common response from the missionaries regarding the source of their motivation. One of the missionaries wrote, “I want to be able to help the people I will be serving and be able to actually speak with them instead of playing a guessing game.” Another stated, “As I got to know my investigator my desire to communicate with them and share my message increased so much.” The missionaries were

highly motivated to learn the language so they could integrate with the people in Albania and Japan.

There were also many comments about the importance of their calling as missionaries, or their faith-driven desire to learn the language they had been asked by their religious leaders to learn. For example, “I have been blessed, and I feel that I don't deserve that blessing if I don't continue to push myself to get better” and “I want to learn as much as I can as quickly as I can so that I can be a better instrument in the Lord’s hands.”

Finally, some of the missionaries also cited the feelings of success they had experienced as their main motivator: “I have started to understand a lot more, which makes me much more confident in my ability to learn and understand.”

Table 10: *Summarized Responses to Second Survey Motivation Change Questions*

Questions	Responses	Sample Comments
During my MTC experience, my motivation to learn the language has decreased, stayed about the same, or increased.	1) Decreased (0) 2) Stayed the same (2) 3) Increased (23)	
What do you feel is the reason for the change in your motivation to learn the language?	1) Integration (13)	“I want to be able to talk to people in Albanian and have them understand me.”
	2) Missionary Calling (8)	“I want to make the Lord proud . . . as well as give back to my Savior for all He has done for me.”
	3) Success (4)	“Every time I see improvement in myself, it motivates me to keep going and learn even more. I like the feeling of accomplishment.”
Is there anything specific that your teachers did or could have done to help your motivation increase?	1) Enthusiasm (7)	“The encouraging attitudes they have towards us really help me stay motivated.”
	2) Personal Experiences (5)	“I love when they tell stories from their own missions or tell us ways that they were able to learn things more effectively.”
	1) One-on-one/Evaluation (4)	“I wish that the teachers would talk to us one-on-one, and tell us what we can do personally to increase our abilities to speak our language.”
	4) SYL in more situations (3)	“I think that showing us how to SYL with the things we were . . . learning in class would have helped me to better apply it.”

In response to the question about what their teachers had or could have done to motivate them, the most common responses from the missionaries discussed the teachers' positive attitudes toward the language or toward the missionaries. Sample comments included: "They have been upbeat and positive in our efforts to learn Albanian" and "They are constantly reassuring us that we are doing great." The missionaries also appreciated and requested more personal stories from their teachers about their experience either with learning the language or using it. As one missionary stated, "My motivation increased when our teachers would tell us stories about their investigators because I know that in order to have these amazing experiences, I need to be able to speak Japanese."

A few things that missionaries consistently wished they had received were more one-on-one feedback to help them better track their progress ("I feel like we would be more motivated to learn if we were told where we were struggling and making mistakes") and more encouragement to speak their mission language in a variety of settings ("They could have pushed us as a group more when it came to not using notes"). A discussion of these findings will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

This section includes a discussion of what the results of the data analysis suggest about the motivational climate of the MTC and the relationship between motivational teaching practice and missionary motivation. The discussion is organized according to each research question and followed by a presentation of the limitations and implications of this study and suggestions for future research.

Discussion

Below is a discussion of the data presented in Chapter 4: Results.

Discussion of Research Question 1

1. Is there a difference in motivational strategy use between Albanian and Japanese teachers?

After ranking the strategies employed by the Albanian and Japanese teachers, I observed that six of the top ten strategies were the same for each language, though not ranked in the same order (see Table 6), and each language had four unique strategies that teachers used more often than the teachers of the other language. Some of the differences between the teachers' practices can likely be attributed to the fact that the classes observed for the two languages also differed in content. The Albanian classes were observed during grammar instruction, and the Japanese classes were observed during lessons focused on the teaching of religious beliefs and the theology of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. The Albanian teachers employed more task-oriented strategies—"challenging task" and "easy task"—and included more review and praise, which is consistent with the nature of language instruction. The Japanese teachers, on the other hand, often employed strategies such as referential questions while the Albanian teachers used referential questions only four times total. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) define

referential questions as “questions to which the teacher does not already know the answer, including questions about the students’ lives” (p. 63). Logically, these kinds of questions would arise more often during religious discussions than in grammar instruction.

Despite the differences in instruction content, teachers from both languages frequently used six common strategies. This demonstrates that some strategies are employed universally among teachers from both groups even though they speak different languages and were observed in different kinds of classes. These groups of teachers also have different training coordinators and training managers, and none of them have ever been specifically trained in motivational teaching practice. This indicates that some motivational strategies are used universally in the MTC, without training and regardless of the exact nature of the course content, while the use of others depends on the context. These findings not only identify the motivational climate across the MTC, but they are also reflective of the findings of Ruesch, Bown, and Dewey (2011) and Guilloteaux (2013) that while many motivational strategies are universally perceived as important, some are context specific. Outside of the top ten strategies, however, none were observed more than twice per class period, which shows that the teachers depended on the same few strategies and limited the variety of their strategy use. The implications of this will be discussed further below.

Discussion of Research Question 2

2. What is the relationship between the students’ observed classroom behavior, their self-reported motivation, and the teachers’ use of motivational strategies?

The results of the first Pearson correlations looking at the observed motivational practice and the observed learner behavior showed a statistically significant correlation between Teacher Practice and overall Learner Behavior as well as Teacher Practice and Volunteering, but no

significant correlation between Teacher Practice and either Attention or Participation. This is not unexpected given the small class sizes in the MTC. Of the participating classes, some had as few as five missionaries. Having only five students in a small classroom with one teacher makes it almost impossible to not have high instances of at least two-thirds of the class paying attention, and it is not difficult to have even one-third of the class participating, regardless of the teacher's motivational practice. These findings suggest that the MOLT has some limitations when used in a small classroom, which will be discussed further in the Implications section. The missionaries' volunteering behavior on the other hand was not as common and correlated closely with the teacher's practice. This indicates that the teachers' use of motivational strategies does have a strong influence on the motivated behavior of the missionaries and supports the conclusion of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) that "language teachers can make a real difference in their students' motivational disposition by applying various motivational techniques and strategies" (p. 72).

Several remarkable things were discovered from the correlations between the observed teacher and learner behavior taken from the MOLT and reported learner motivation. First, Teacher Practice was correlated significantly with higher levels of self-reported Confidence and Autonomy and lower levels of Anxiety. Again, this indicates that the motivational practice of teachers does matter and affects the confidence and autonomy of their learners. This part of the analysis also found a significant correlation between observed Volunteering and self-reported Confidence and Autonomy, suggesting that more confident and autonomous missionaries are more likely to volunteer in class, or possibly that volunteering in class helps missionaries feel more confident and autonomous. Finally, the correlation between observed Participation and self-reported Attitude toward the course indicates that there is a strong relationship between how

the missionaries' perceive their language instruction and their desire to participate in class. These findings show that the observed motivated behavior of the learners and the learners' own perception of their motivation correlate significantly with teacher practice and also with each other.

Discussion of Research Question 3

3. Does motivation, both reported and observed, change over time for missionaries while at the MTC? If so, why does it change?

While the data analysis found no statistical significance in the observed change over time and found that the reported change only approaches significance, this is not overly surprising due to the highly motivated nature of the participants. Larson-Hall and Dewey (2012) found that “missionaries are language learners who are highly motivated to learn their target language” (p. 77). The current research supports that finding, showing that missionaries start their MTC experience highly motivated and remain so throughout their training period. The one category of motivation that had a significant change is self-reported Anxiety. This indicates that this group of missionaries started their MTC stay with some unease about learning the language, but as they gained experience, their anxiety decreased.

The learner surveys did provide much notable information concerning the missionaries' own perception of their motivational states throughout the MTC stay. Although the results showed no statistically significant change, 23 of 25 missionaries reported that their motivation had increased and only two reported that it had stayed about the same. This discrepancy can be explained by the lack of statistical accuracy in self-reported information, and also the fact that the participants' motivation may indeed have increased even if it was not statistically significant. The reasons that the missionaries gave for their motivation increase were particularly

informative. The majority of the responses discussed the missionaries' desire to communicate with the people they would be serving—the members of the target language community. In SLA, these responses portray what can be labeled *integrative motivation* (Dörnyei, 1994). This group of missionaries reported an unusually high level of integrative motivation according to the research, which has found that most foreign language learners have mostly instrumental motivation, especially at an intermediate proficiency level or below (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 14–15). This can likely be attributed to the fact that, as discussed previously, missionaries in the MTC are foreign language learners for six to nine weeks and preparing to become second language learners, whose motivation is usually more integrative in nature. The learners also attributed much of their motivation to their missionary calling or the ecclesiastical reasons they had for studying the language. Again, this makes this group of learners unique because of their religious purpose for L2 study. Finally, four missionaries explained that their motivation came from feelings of success. This supports the classical theory of motivation by fulfilling what Dörnyei (1994) calls the learners' "need for achievement" (p. 277) and helping them experience "satisfaction," which Dörnyei defines as a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (p. 278).

The last question from the learner survey highlighted some of the perceptions the missionaries had about their teachers' motivational practices and the effect those practices had on the missionaries' motivation. The most common response involved teacher enthusiasm, which supports previous findings, such as those from Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), who claim that the teacher's enthusiasm is "one of the most important factors" influencing learners' motivation (p. 158). (See also Patrick, Hisley, & Kempler, 2000.) Missionaries also found it particularly motivating when teachers shared personal experiences about learning or using the language and

other stories from their own missions. Guilloteaux (2013) described the motivating effect that personal experiences can have: “Another way to motivate is to engage the private/true self of the teacher, that is, to act naturally, in order to facilitate connections with the students on a personal level” (p. 10). This simple teacher behavior motivates learners immeasurably. Finally, the missionaries had some recommendations for their teachers of practices they would have found motivating. Missionaries requested more one-on-one feedback from their teachers and also clearer instruction on how to “Speak Your Language.” While both of these items are included in the MTC curriculum already, perhaps teachers could benefit from additional training on how to more effectively implement these items into their teaching.

Limitations

As with any research, this study was constrained by limitations. First, the small number of participants limits the generalizability of the findings, even within the MTC. Since this study was meant as a sort of pilot to collect baseline data about the motivational climate of the MTC and current teacher practice, it has fulfilled that purpose, despite the small numbers, and opens the way for further research on a larger scale.

Second, the small sample size led to another limitation. The fact that the Japanese and Albanian classes were observed with differing class content (Japanese with theological fundamentals and Albanian with grammar instruction) may have caused some issue with consistency between languages. While this lack of consistency may contribute another factor to influence the learners’ motivation, the data is still comparable, and indeed led to an interesting discovery. Despite the inconsistency, I still found that both groups of teachers used six common strategies out of ten, suggesting a universal motivational climate across the MTC. This inconsistency was due to a change in the research design partway through the study. Originally,

my fellow researcher and I had not planned on sharing data between languages but ultimately decided that the statistical analyses would be stronger if we combined the relatively small samples.

Another minor flaw in the research design was the uneven numbers of surveys and observations. It may have been more comparable to do three surveys to coincide with each observation, but this may have made the surveys tiresome to the participants and caused further issues with the accuracy of the self-reported data. Accuracy of the self-reported information is already a limitation that any study relying on surveys must consider.

A final limitation resulted from the failure of three of the participants (all missionaries from the Japanese group) to complete the first survey. Their second surveys were also eliminated from the analysis, but of course they were included in the MOLT data as they were present in classes.

Implications

The results of this research have implications not only for teacher training and learner motivation at the MTC but also for the field of motivation in second language acquisition. Although the unique nature of the participants and setting make the results of this research somewhat context-specific, the implications can be applied to other intensive language learning programs as well as generalized to all language learners and teachers. Since the purpose of this paper was to identify the motivational climate of the MTC and make recommendations for how teachers can better motivate the missionaries they teach, I will start with the implications for the MTC.

First, looking at the motivational climate of the MTC, one can see that while both languages used many of the same top strategies consistently, there were many very valuable

motivational strategies that were either never or rarely used during my observations. In fact, none of the strategies outside the top ten were used more than an average of three times per class period. Because they were never observed doesn't mean they were never used—this could be a limitation of the MOLT, or the lack of use may be situation specific. Regardless of the actual reason the strategies were rarely observed, however, teachers could benefit from specific training in the use of some of these less commonly observed motivational strategies. Training in motivational strategy use would be beneficial to teachers because, as the results of this study show, the teachers' use of strategies in class is correlated with both the observed and self-reported motivation of the missionaries they teach. While all of the motivational strategies included in this study are in harmony with and in most cases support the principles of MTC training already in place, specific training on how to use these strategies and what such use would look like in a classroom could help teachers to implement them and thereby help the missionaries to be more motivated.

Some specific recommendations for teacher training come from the missionaries themselves, via the learner surveys. Missionaries consistently requested more one-on-one feedback. This is included in the already incorporated “coaching missionary study,” where teachers help missionaries with their individual studies, but teachers could be more informed on how to effectively motivate the missionaries during time set aside for coaching. Similarly, teachers could benefit from more training on how to effectively encourage SYL in and out of the classroom. These findings can be applied to all L2 learning situations. All language learners can benefit from more one-on-one help from their teachers, and encouragement to practice speaking the language is always helpful.

As for the implications for the research in SLA motivation, this study supports the previous findings that teacher practice does correlate strongly with learner motivation in varied contexts. By adding a new context and a new language to the research, this research indicates that motivational strategy use is universally related to increased motivation for learners. This study also helped to identify some limitations of the MOLT instrument. As described above, the MOLT may not be effective for measuring the motivated behavior of learners in small classes as learners are almost forced to pay attention and even having one-third of the class volunteering in a given minute is not difficult.

Suggestions for Future Research

The implications of this study open the way for many areas of future research. As outlined in the Implications section above, this research suggests that MTC teachers could benefit from specific training on the use of motivational strategies. Future research could include some sort of training for teachers to determine whether motivational training would in fact help MTC teachers use motivational strategies more effectively and if teacher training would influence learner motivation. Another direction for research in the MTC context, or any L2 context, could include a comparison of the motivational strategies used by new and experienced teachers or native and non-native teachers (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

From my experience using the MOLT, I have identified several limitations of the instrument that lead me to recommend a critique of the MOLT as a direction for future research. As mentioned previously, future research could develop a more accurate instrument for measuring the motivated behavior of learners in small classes, where attention is practically forced. Additionally, the MOLT allows only one motivational strategy to be marked for each minute. If two strategies occur in the same minute, whichever strategy took up the majority of

the minute should be marked. Unfortunately, this causes the use of many strategies to go unnoticed—strategies that may be more motivating than others—just because they are quickly employed. For example, effective praise rarely takes more than a few seconds, but those few seconds of praise are likely more motivating for an individual than a full minute of teacher monitoring. This is just one example of some of the limitations of the MOLT. A full critique of the MOLT could identify even more difficulties and build on that information to create a more reliable instrument for measuring learner motivation and how it is affected by teacher practice.

Conclusion

This study set out to determine the motivational climate of the Missionary Training Center and the effect of teachers' motivational strategy use on the motivation of the missionaries they teach. This purpose was accomplished by partially replicating the work of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) while adding features such as the learner surveys to triangulate the data and situating the research in a new context. The positive correlation of teacher practice with learner behavior found in this study supports the conclusions of the original study as well as others that have also replicated the original study (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Thayne, 2013) that teacher practice does have a strong relationship with learner motivation. This study also contributes some insights into the motivation of a unique group of learners—missionaries of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints—and found that missionaries in the MTC have an unusually high level of integrative motivation among beginner foreign language learners.

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Appendix A

Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) Observation Scheme (Adapted from Guillotreaux & Dörnyei 2009)																																						
Date:																																						
District/Teacher:		Start Time:		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30					
Learner Behavior	Volunteering 1/3:																																					
	Participation (Engagement)																																					
Total:		Alertness (Attention) 2/3:																																				
TL vs. NL use		Target/Active Language Use																																				
Encouraging		Self/Peer correction																																				
Positive		Class Applause																																				
Retrospective		Effective Praise																																				
Self-Evaluation		Ability Feedback																																				
		Effort Feedback																																				
		Warm-Up/Review activity																																				
		Easy task																																				
		Challenging task																																				
		Vary the normal routine																																				
		Personalization																																				
		Competition element																																				
		Listen to teacher/other's audio*																																				
		Choral work*																																				
		Pair/Group work																																				
		Individual work*																																				
		Display Questions*																																				
		Referential Questions																																				
		Social chat																																				
		Teacher model for enthusiasm																																				
		Arousing curiosity or attention																																				
		Establishing relevance																																				
		Stating purpose/utility of activity																																				
		Positive atmosphere																																				
		Listening to learners																																				
		Communication over grammar																																				
		Promoting cooperation																																				
		Teacher monitoring																																				
		Promoting Autonomy																																				
		Explicit strategy instruction																																				
		Scaffolding																																				
		Effective demonstration																																				
		Promoting instrumental values																																				
		Promoting integrative values																																				
		Promoting individual/class goals																																				
		Signposting																																				
		Encouraging class norm/culture																																				

*Other features of teacher's practice (not strategies)

Appendix B

Teacher Survey

1. Which language do you currently teach at the MTC?

- Japanese
- Albanian

2. Which district do you currently teach?

- 10M-313
- 10M-315
- 7M-201
- 7M-229

3. Language teaching experience at the MTC. (Spring/Summer is one semester)

- Less than 1 semester
- 1 semester
- 2 semesters
- 3 semesters
- 4 semesters
- 5 semesters
- 6 semesters
- 7 semesters
- 8 semesters
- 9 semesters

4. Are you currently, or have you ever taught a language at another school or institution?

- Yes (where, which language, and how long have you taught there?) _____
- No

5. Have you received any training in teaching (or language teaching) outside the MTC?

- Yes (where, how long, please explain the nature of your training) _____
- No

6. Please give a self-assessment of your language abilities in the language of instruction.

	Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent
Listening	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reading	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grammar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vocabulary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The next sections of the survey, although the longest, are the most important. You will be given a series of teaching strategies and asked to indicate first how important they are and then how often you use them. It may take 20–30 minutes, but please take your time and consider each

statement carefully. This research will help the MTC know how to improve language instruction, so please be honest and thoughtful in your answers. Thank you so much for your help in this important research!

Below is a list of strategies for language instruction. For each strategy, please indicate how important you believe it is in your class. Please note that you are being asked about your opinion of the potential importance of the strategies even if at present you do not use them. Remember that you are not being asked if you use the strategy but rather how important you believe it could be in your current class.

[The teachers were asked to rate the below statements on the following scale: Unimportant, Of Little Importance, Moderately Important, Important, Very Important]

1. Create a supportive and pleasant classroom climate free from embarrassment.
2. Show missionaries that you respect, accept, and care about each of them by listening to them.
3. Create opportunities for missionaries to work with others in pairs or groups
4. Familiarize the missionaries with the cultural background of the language.
5. Explain the importance of the district rules, and then ask missionaries to think of any classroom rules that will be useful for their learning.
6. Give clear instructions about how to carry out a task
7. When doing pair work, help missionaries work together effectively
8. Notice missionaries' accomplishments, and take time to celebrate any success or victory.
9. Highlight the importance of mastering the language and how it will benefit them in the future.
10. Encourage missionaries to select specific, realistic and short-term learning goals for themselves (e.g., learning 5 words every day).
11. Design tasks that are within the missionaries' ability so that they get to regularly experience success.
12. Introduce in your lessons various interesting content and topics which missionaries are likely to find interesting.
13. Make tasks challenging by including some activities that require missionaries to solve problems or discover something.
14. Help missionaries work through a problem or question by providing support but not just giving them the answer. May include explicitly teaching learning strategies.
15. Motivate your missionaries by increasing the amount of the language you use in class, and encourage them to use the language outside the classroom.
16. Ask missionaries genuine questions that don't require a specific answer
17. Share your enthusiasm for learning the language with your missionaries
18. Break the routine of the lessons by varying presentation format (e.g., a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on pronunciation; a whole-class lecture can be followed by group work).
19. Encourage missionaries to see that the main reason for most failure is that they did not make sufficient effort rather than their poor abilities.
20. Help missionaries recognize how a particular learning task fits into the bigger picture and helps them achieve their long-term goals
21. Use short and interesting opening activities to start each class (e.g., fun games).
22. Involve missionaries as much as possible in designing and running the language course (e.g., make real choices about the activities and topics they are going to cover; decide whom they would like to work with).
23. Establish a good relationship with your missionaries by getting to know them and being yourself in front of them (share with them your hobbies, likes and dislikes)
24. Encourage missionaries to share personal experiences and thoughts as part of the learning tasks.

25. Give good reasons to missionaries as to why a particular activity is meaningful or important.
26. Try and find out about your missionaries' needs, goals and interests, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible.
27. Monitor missionaries as they work individually, in pairs, or in groups.
28. Encourage missionaries to try harder by making it clear that you believe that they can do the tasks.
29. Invite missionaries to assess themselves and others, and to give each other feedback.
30. Demonstrate or role play missionary tasks or teaching skills.
31. Include language learning activities with an element of competition.
32. Show missionaries that their effort and achievement are being recognized by you.
33. Make clear to missionaries that the important thing in learning a foreign language is to communicate meaning effectively rather than worrying about grammar mistakes.

This last section will ask about the same strategies, but this time please indicate how often you use them in your teaching. Again, please be honest and thoughtful in your answers. We really appreciate your help with this research.

Below is a list of strategies for language instruction. For each strategy, please indicate how often you have used it in your own teaching practice. Please note that you are not being asked about the importance of the strategies but how often you believe that you use the strategies. Remember that you are not being asked about the importance of the strategies but how often you believe that you currently use them in your teaching.

[The teachers were asked to rate the above statements again according to how frequently they used them on the following scale: Never, Once a week or less, A few times a week, Each class period, Several times each class period]

7. If there are some strategies that you feel are important but do not use, what keeps you from using them?
8. What do you do in the classroom to motivate the missionaries you teach?
9. How has MTC Training helped you to motivate your missionaries to become more self-regulated learners?

Appendix C

Missionary Survey

1. Which district are you in?

- 10M-313
- 10M-315
- 7M-201
- 7M-229

2. Which language are you currently studying?

- Japanese
- Albanian

3. Which week in your MTC stay are you in?

- Week 1
- Week 2
- Week 3
- Week 4
- Week 5
- Week 6
- Week 7
- Week 8
- Week 9

4. How many months, if any, have you studied your mission language before the MTC?

- 0 months
- 1-3 months
- 4-6 months
- 7-12 months
- 12-18 months
- 18-24 months
- 25+ months

5. What was the nature of your mission language study before the MTC? (Please mark all that apply)

- private home study
- online course
- high school course
- college course
- none
- other—please specify _____

6. Have you had any experience with your mission language, culture, or people? (lived in country, studied abroad, etc.) Please explain.

7. Have you ever studied another foreign language?

- Yes (Which language—If you've studied more than one, choose the language you have studied the longest) _____
- No

8. How long have you studied that language (that was not the language of your mission)?

- less than 6 months
- 6–12 months
- 1–2 years
- 3+ years

9. What was the nature of your language study (that was not the language of your mission)?

(Please mark all that apply)

- private home study
- online course
- high school course
- college course
- none
- other—please specify

10. Please give a self-assessment of your abilities in your mission language.

	Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent
Listening	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Speaking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reading	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vocabulary	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grammar	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The next section of the survey, although the longest, is the most important. You will be given a series of statements and asked to indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement. It may take 20–30 minutes, but please take your time and consider each statement carefully. This research will help the MTC know how to improve language instruction, so please be honest and thoughtful in your answers. Thank you so much for your help in this important research!

Below is a list of statements about language learning. Please indicate how much you agree with each statement. Please be as honest as possible in responding to each of the statements. Your responses are completely anonymous.

[The missionaries were asked to rate the below statements on the following scale: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Slightly Disagree, Slightly Agree, Agree, Strongly Agree]

1. I wish I had language instruction more often.
2. I feel I am making progress in my mission language.
3. I get very worried if I make mistakes.
4. I know that I am responsible for my own learning.
5. I study hard.
6. The language I am studying is a very important subject for me so that I can be successful in the future.
7. The teachers should tell me what I need to study in order for me to make progress.
8. I believe I will do well on online language assessments.
9. I like language instruction.
10. I am afraid that others will laugh at me when I have to speak in my language class.
11. I choose to study outside of class things that I want to.
12. I learn well in language instruction as well as other activities (Lessons in Ch. 3, Fundamentals, Coaching).
13. It is essential that I have strong ability in the language I am currently studying in order to be successful as a missionary.
14. I feel more nervous learning a language in the MTC than I did learning in school.
15. I often experience a feeling of success with the language in the MTC.
16. Learning the language is one of my favorite parts of the MTC.
17. I pay careful attention in class when the teacher corrects errors (mine or those of my classmates) so that I can learn.
18. When I make mistakes I am not too embarrassed but use the mistake as a learning opportunity.
19. When the language instruction ends, I often wish it could continue.
20. I often volunteer to speak in class.
21. When I meet a native speaker of the language, I take the opportunity to practice my language.
22. I need the language I am currently studying in order to accomplish my future goals.
23. I want to work hard in class to make my teacher happy.
24. I reward myself when I have successes in my language.
25. I have set clear goals for myself in my study of language.
26. I am sure that one day I will be able to speak the language well.
27. I learn from my mistakes.
28. I enjoy language instruction because what we do is neither too hard nor too easy.
29. I seek input from my teachers on ways to improve my language.
30. My mission language is a very important one for me to study.
31. I learn from the mistakes of others.
32. I seek input from other missionaries who have higher language proficiency than me, on ways to improve my language.
33. I would rather spend my time studying things other than language.
34. In class I usually understand what to do and how to do it.
35. I am responsible to motivate myself to learn and study.
36. Although studying a language can be difficult at times, I know I can meet the learning challenge.
37. I can learn anything I set my mind to.
38. Sometimes studying the language is challenging but I know that I have to keep working hard.

39. My teachers are responsible to motivate me in class.
40. I think I am good at learning my mission language.
41. I know that I will be using my mission language for many years to come.
42. Learning language in the MTC is a burden for me.
43. I am worried about my ability to do well in my mission language.
44. In language instruction in the MTC, we are learning things that will be useful for me in the future.
45. Sometimes I am so nervous in class that I cannot think well.

[First Survey Only]

11. What is one thing you wish your teacher(s) would do to help you feel more motivated/driven to learn your mission language?

[Second Survey Only]

11. During my MTC experience, my motivation to learn the language has. . .

- decreased.
- stayed about the same.
- increased.

12. What do you feel is the reason for the change in your motivation to learn the language?

13. Is there anything specific that your teachers did or could have done to help your motivation increase?