The use of motivational strategies in EFL classrooms: a comparative study of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers
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The thesis describes a comparative research of motivational strategies in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms of Vietnamese and Finnish teachers. The aim of the study was to understand individual teachers’ motivational strategies in the classroom and analyze strategies cross-culturally in the two contexts and describe the teachers’ difficulties and challenges in motivating students.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with three Vietnamese EFL teachers and three Finnish EFL teachers. The interview data were analyzed inductively using qualitative content analysis method to build up the motivational strategy dimensions which were also partly based on Dörnyei’s motivational strategies.

The research found that Vietnamese and Finnish teachers have similar motivational strategy dimensions mostly in creating basic motivation, generating initial motivation and encouraging positive self-evaluation. The most outstanding differences were mainly strategies teachers used to maintain and protect student motivation. While Vietnamese teachers faced challenges from the educational system, curriculum, schools, textbooks, standardized tests, Finnish teachers faced challenges from the students.

Keywords: motivation, motivational strategies, Vietnam, Finland, EFL teachers, comparative research.
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<td>EFL</td>
<td>English as a Foreign Language</td>
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<td>L2</td>
<td>Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOET</td>
<td>Ministry of Education and Training</td>
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<td>CEFR</td>
<td>Common European Framework of Reference</td>
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<td>A</td>
<td>Basic User</td>
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<td>A1</td>
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1 INTRODUCTION

During an observation in a Finnish primary school one year ago, an image stuck with me: after a lesson, a group of students gathered around an English teacher to get cartoon stickers from her. Of course, it was not that the image was mysterious and strange to me. It was the attitude with which the students appreciated their awards and stuck them extremely carefully into their notebooks that impressed me. Those pupils were so excited about their achievements and so was the teacher. This made me think about motivation and a teacher’s role in an English class. As an English teacher in Vietnam, the thought of how to motivate my students to learn English happily and voluntarily has always been my priority and attempt in every lesson.

It is indisputable to say that motivation is considered a fundamental factor in second/foreign (L2) language learning. This was emphasized by Dörnyei (2001) in a series of studies on L2 motivation. Learning an additional language, especially a foreign language is a challenge if students do not gain an appropriate attitude and motivation. Dörnyei (2001) asserts that in the vast majority of cases, motivated language learners can master a working knowledge, regardless of their language aptitude or cognitive characteristics. “Without sufficient motivation, however, even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any really useful language” (p. 5). Similarly, Hargreaves (2011) agrees that the vast majority of teachers will state motivation as the major problem for students, not their ability.

The main question is that how motivation is developed and increased in classes to foster students’ achievements. Dörnyei (2001, p. 27) asked “whose responsibility is it to motivate learners?”, and his answer is every teacher who cares about the long-term development or life-long learning process of their students. When mentioning the motivational function of teachers, Chambers (1999) states that teachers play a key role in learners’ perception about the ease or difficulty level of tasks, or in influencing on learners’ attitude and their learning desire.
Therefore, training for teachers in motivation is a worthy investment in the long run.

With some EFL teaching experience, I came to Finland to do a Master’s degree in Education, and I was passionate to learn more from Finnish EFL teachers and the education. The desire to develop my personal teaching and learn from Finnish teachers led to this comparative research about motivational strategies in EFL classes in the Vietnamese and Finnish contexts.

The present study analyses and compares the motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers and their challenges in motivating students. The theory of L2 motivation and L2 motivational strategies used in this thesis are based on the model proposed by Dörnyei (1998, 2001). The comparative research aims to offer motivation pictures and pedagogical insights in English classes as well as in-depth culturally and socially pedagogical explanations in both contexts. There is a hope that the comparative research will present guidelines for teachers teaching English from both Vietnamese and Finnish contexts to be more conscious of their teaching practices. Furthermore, they can deal more easily with international students when internationally educational exchange and cooperation becomes more and more popular. As Routio (2007) explains that one method to reveal the specific nature of our too well-known object is to compare it to other cases from another context “a fish cannot see that it is living in water.”

Chapter 2 gives the background information of the Vietnamese and Finnish education system and English language education. Chapter 3 introduces the literature review of L2 motivation and motivational strategies and an overview of research on motivational strategies. The research questions in Chapter 4 are followed by methodology and methodological considerations in Chapter 5. The results will be presented in Chapter 6, followed by discussion, limitations and future directions in Chapter 7, and the conclusion in Chapter 8.
2 BACKGROUND

This chapter provides a brief description of the education system and foreign language education, the role of English in the society and the national education in the Vietnamese and Finnish contexts.

2.1 The National Education System and Foreign Language Education

Vietnam and Finland regard education as important. Figure 1 and 2 provide an overview of the education system in Vietnam and Finland.

Vietnam

Figure 1 provides an overview of the education system in Vietnam.

The national education system of Vietnam encompasses formal and non-formal education and includes the following levels: early childhood education (nursery, kindergarten and pre-school); basic education (primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education); vocational training (professional secondary and vocational training); and higher education (college, bachelor, master and doctor degrees) (MOET, 2014). As the lower secondary level is universal, every primary student who completes compulsory primary school is allowed to enter sixth grade. All lower secondary students have to take a selection examination with/without consideration based on ninth grade learning achievements in order to continue to upper secondary school (MOET, 2014).

Most of Vietnam’s schools are government-operated although the private sector is increasingly emerging. General/basic education (primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary education) in Vietnam was free of charge until September 1989. However, since then, only primary education is free, secondary education charges fees to finance educational activities. Tuition fee exemption or reduction and lunch subsidies are given to students with disabilities, students of ethnic minorities, students of deceased or seriously wounded soldiers, and students of poor households (MOET, 2013).

Foreign languages, especially English, are compulsory subjects in formal education in Vietnam, from third grade to upper secondary school level. The English curriculum is based on the standard European curriculum. Recently, the National Foreign Language Project 2020 has strengthened the teaching and learning of English in all educational levels, especially in higher education, to improve English language proficiency to aid the national and international economy (MOET, 2008). All primary school pupils need to achieve Level 1 in foreign languages. Students graduating from secondary school need to achieve Level 2 in foreign languages. Students graduating from high schools need to reach Level 3 qualifications (Vietnamese language proficiency framework consists of six levels measured by the CEFR). Besides English, students from sixth grade to twelfth grade can select a second foreign language to study and get Level 2 after graduating from high school. In terms of teacher training, the project ensures that by
2020, all primary school teachers have achieved the standard training qualifications (college degree or higher). All teachers teaching foreign languages need to reach Level 4 in language skills (MOET, 2014).

Finland

Figure 2 provides an overview of the education system in Finland.

The national education system of Finland consists of four stages. The first two stages include pre-school education and basic and compulsory education (comprehensive school attended by all students aged from 7 to 16). Upper secondary education forms the third stage (general upper secondary school or vocational school). The upper secondary schools provide general knowledge in a wide range of subjects and culminate in the national matriculation examination. Vocational schools prepare students for certain occupations. The fourth stage is the higher education with universities or polytechnics (Leppänen et al., 2011). As we can see in figure 2, students who want to enter these educational institutions need to have a diploma either from a secondary school or a vocational school. The two parallel paths can lead to bachelor and master degrees either at universities or universities of applied sciences, which is known as “no dead ends” policy in the Finnish education system.

The New Basic School System was developed in the early 1970s to merge existing grammar schools, civic schools, and primary schools into a compulsory and comprehensive nine-year municipal school. All students, regardless of their socio-economic background or interests, would enroll in the same basic schools governed by local education authorities (Sahlberg, 2012). Most education and training in Finland is publically funded. There are no tuition fees at any level of education. In basic education, studying materials, school meals and commuting are provided free of charge. In upper secondary education, students pay for their books and transport. In addition, there is a well-developed system of study grants and loans from the government so that upper secondary and higher education students can get financial aids (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018).

The teaching and learning of foreign languages in Finland is compulsory for all. In comprehensive education, Finnish students study at least two compulsory foreign/second languages besides their first language, plus an optional third foreign language. The teaching of the first compulsory language begins in third grade. The first compulsory language (the “A1 language”) can be English, French, German or Russian as a foreign language, or Swedish/Finnish as a se-
cond language. In reality, English is the most commonly selected and offered language by students and schools (Leppänen et al., 2011). The A1 language is studied extensively during the school years, and the learning target is independent, functional proficiency in that language. More specifically, the target level required after compulsory education involving six years of A1 language studies is a high A2 in writing and speaking, and B1 in understanding (based on the CEFR). Master’s degrees are required for all language teachers to teach in comprehensive education.

2.2 The Roles of English in Vietnam and Finland

Vietnam

"Vietnam's linguistic history reflects its political history" (Denham, 1992, p. 61).

Historical and foreign interventions changed the use of foreign languages as the national or official language in 4000-year history. Hence, Vietnam did not have its own language for a long time. The Vietnamese not only longed and fought to find a language for themselves, but also knew how to adorn and use those foreign languages for national development (Do, 2006).

Vietnam was dominated by China for almost 1000 years until the 10th century, which allowed Chinese words to be incorporated into the Vietnamese language and remained a testimony in the period. Next, during almost 100-year French dominance period, from the late 19th century to the mid-20th century, the French banned Chinese characters, replaced them with the French and Romanized alphabet. The French language became the medium of instruction at schools and universities for the small population who had access to education (Denham, 1992).

During the years of the Vietnam war (1954-1975), Vietnam was divided into two parts, the communist North and the capitalist South. Foreign language education policy, thus, followed different patterns. The North promoted Russian and Chinese, and the South emphasized English and French to be taught as required
subjects in secondary and post-secondary education. Especially after 1970, English language schools mushroomed almost everywhere and attracted hundreds of thousands of learners. With the educational availability, free supply of English textbooks, world news daily broadcasting in English, and English requirements from foreign and even local businesses in Vietnam, English became the main foreign language taught in secondary and higher education (Do, 2006).

However, after national reunification in 1975, Russian was required to be the main foreign language because of Russian political, economic and social influences on Vietnam. The spread of the language was further strengthened by Russian aids in education, through which hundreds of Vietnamese teachers and students were sent annually to the Soviet Union for Russian studies. English was still taught but very limited due to the policy changes and the decrease of all commercial ties with capitalist nations (Do, 2006).

During the period 1975-1986, Vietnam witnessed an economic decline, which was also the reason for Vietnam’s open-door policy, Doi Moi, to come into existence in 1986. With the requirement of foreign trade and economic activities, English re-emerged as the main foreign language and regained its role as the main foreign language taught and used in Vietnam. English proficiency is now seen as a vital requirement for employment. Furthermore, English has facilitated economic cooperation and development mostly from capitalist countries that require English as a means of communication (Do, 2006).

Finland

Leppänen et al. (2011) conducted a nationwide survey on the use of English in Finland. In their report, they also gave an overview of the history of English language teaching in Finland. According to their research, Finland has experienced noticeable changes especially in terms of languages. English was a core subject for only female secondary school students from fourth grade in 1918. Over 20 years later, English became an institutionalized “modern language” at schools for male students and in secondary schools (Leppänen et al., 2011, p. 18). From
then, English has continued to play a dominant role in education, business, and everyday life.

Between the 1940s and 1960s, the need for economic recovery after the World War II pushed English demand not only at schools but also in all sectors, especially in business. By 1960s, interests in tourism abroad gave Finns greater motivation to learn the language. In addition, the influence of American pop music, rock music and films enhanced the presence of English in Finnish popular culture and everyday life. Particularly, in 1955, TV broadcasts began, including also English TV programmes and series which are subtitled rather than dubbed in Finnish. It gave Finns unmediated exposure to English on a daily basis. By 1970s and 1980s, English strengthened its place as the most popular foreign language in youth media, popular music, instruction manuals and job advertisements (Leppänen et al., 2011).

Finland entered the EU in 1995 with the role of a high technology country. Thus, the role of English was more strengthened by economic and cultural internationalization in the 2000s. Foreign language competence is regarded as one of the basic skills that all EU citizens need to acquire to improve their educational and employment opportunities. The EU, therefore, supports the idea that every citizen should master two foreign languages in addition to his or her mother tongue (Commission of the European Communities, 2008). The Finnish education system structured to accommodate the EU language recommendations. The introduction of the comprehensive school made teaching and learning of foreign languages become obligatory for all (Leppänen et al., 2011).
3 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter details the development of foreign/second motivation research and language education in Vietnam and Finland and the theoretical framework for this study. The study relies on Dörnyei’s conceptualization of L2 motivation and L2 motivational strategies. Most motivation theories are generally applicable psychological motivation theories. Dörnyei’s theory focuses on motivation in terms of foreign/second language classroom practice making it relevant to this study.

3.1 Motivation

“To be motivated means to be moved to do something.” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 54)

Motivation has been stated by teachers and researchers as one of the most crucial and key factors influencing the rate and success of foreign/second language learning process (Dörnyei, 1998, 2001, 2005; Brown 1990; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Dörnyei, (2005) emphasizes that without adequate motivation, even with the most significant abilities, besides appropriate curricula and good teaching, one cannot achieve long-term goals in her/his language path. Deficiencies in one’s language aptitude and learning conditions can be addressed with high motivation which initiates L2 learning and sustains the long and difficult learning process afterward.

Motivation is a complex and multifaceted construct described differently by different scholars in psychology and social science disciplines. Dörnyei (2001) notes that the term “motivation” is just an easy way to name a concept which is immensely important and complicated human characteristic.

Motivation is responsible for the choice of a particular action, the effort expended on it and the persistence with it. Motivation explains why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 7)
Dörnyei (1998) comments that although motivation is a frequently used term in educational and research contexts, there has been little agreement on its exact meaning in the literature. Dörnyei (2001, p. 12) also mentions again that different scholars have identified different “most-important motives” which make a lot of sense, the only problem is that they largely ignore each other and even do not try to get a synthesis, instead what emerges is a rather fragmented overall picture. However, he argues that despite the complexity, they do not necessarily conflict, but rather enrich and fill our understanding both theoretically and practically. Because of the complexity, Dörnyei (2001) refers motivation is absolutely an umbrella-term hosting a wide range of different aspects.

Before going further, it is wise to review briefly the overall history of L2 motivation research in order to understand how motivation and its research developed. As motivation is a dynamic and ever-changing process, Dörnyei (2005) provides an overview of the field in three phases: the social-psychological period (1959-1990), the cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s) and the process-oriented period (during the 2000s).

3.1.1 The Social-Psychological Period (1959-1990)

Gardner and his colleagues initiated the starting point in L2 motivation research in the period from 1959 to 1990 with Gardner’s theory: integrative motivation and the socio-educational model of second language acquisition. The social psychological period witnessed the great extent of influence of social and cultural nature and individual factors on language motivation.

Gardner (1985) set the links between motivation and the language learning process, which includes effort, desire to accomplish the learning goals and favorable attitudes towards learning the language. Gardner’s concept of motivation relates to effortful behaviour with a desire to attain the goal and favorable attitudes towards the activity in question. The drive, desire, and the satisfaction experience have to combine together to signify motivation and enforce one’s strife to learn the language. “When the desire to achieve the goal and favorable attitudes towards the goal is linked with the effort, then we have a motivated
organism” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). In addition to individual differences, L2 motivation required social insights and relationship between the L1 and L2 communities together to supplement the L2 motivation explanations (Dörnyei, 2005). As Gardner (1985) argues the L2 language does not only contain words, sounds, grammatical principles, but also integral parts of its culture that students are indirectly asked to take as their behavioural repertoire.

Gardner’s socio-educational model explains the relationship between individual differences and cultural context. As Gardner (1985) emphasizes the beliefs in the community in terms of significance and meaningfulness of the language, the nature of skill development, and the role of various individual differences influencing on second language development. From the model, Dörnyei (2005) summarizes that language achievement is influenced by integrative motivation, language aptitude, and other factors.

![Diagram of Gardner’s (1985) Conceptualization of the Integrative Motive](image.png)

**FIGURE 3.** Schematic representation of Gardner’s (1985) Conceptualization of the Integrative Motive (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 69)

Integrative motivation is made up of three main subcomponents: integrativeness which subsumes integrative orientation, interest in foreign language, and attitudes towards the L2 community, attitudes towards the learning situation which includes evaluation of the language teacher and the L2 course, and motivation.
that is an effort, desire, and attitude towards learning (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 68). Integrative and instrumental orientation, desire to learn a language generating from a positive effect towards a community of its speakers and desire to learn a language in order to get occupational, educational or financial goals are also focus of Gardner and his colleagues’ research (Brown, 1990).

In accordance with psychological aspects, Krashen’s (1982, p. 31) affective filter hypothesis approaches second language acquisition from the perspective of affective variables such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

![Diagram of the affective filter](image)

**FIGURE 4.** Operation of the affective filter (Krashen, 1982, p. 32)

Krashen suggests that those who have positive attitudes towards the target language not only seek more but also pay more attention to the received language input, and thus learn more. That is, they will be more active to get the input or they will have a low filter. On the other hand, those whose attitudes are not optimal tend to seek less input and filter the received message in a way that they prevent input from reaching the part of the brain responsible for language acquisition. Those will also have high affective filters. Acquirers with positive attitudes have low affective filters. Therefore, Krashen (1982) notes in addition to supplying comprehensible input, pedagogical goals such as promoting low anxiety in classrooms encourages low filters in student language acquisition.

### 3.1.2 The Cognitive-Situated Period (during the 1990s)

One of the most influential approaches to psychological and L2 motivation is self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan (1985) is noted by Dörnyei (2005, p. 77). The theory focuses on intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence, for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 56). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 60)

Intrinsic motivation has emerged as an important factor for teachers and educators because it results in remarkable learning and creativity. Brown (1990) believes in the significance of intrinsic orientation, arguing traditional schools generating extrinsic motivation with grades and tests failing to appeal students’ self-determination and promoting learner collaboration in competence building. Similarly, learners who “do” language for the sake of their own competence and autonomy get better success opportunities than the ones who are dependent on external rewards. However, Brown (1990), Deci and Ryan (2000) do not deny the contribution of extrinsic motivation in essential strategies for teaching success because people are not always intrinsically motivated in most of the activities. Besides external regulation, the degree of extrinsic motivation is categorized into introjection, identification, and integration (see Figure 5). Introjected regulation describes a type of internal regulation that pushes people to perform actions with the feeling of pressure/approval in order to avoid guilt, anxiety or attain ego-enhancements, self-esteem or self-pride (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 62). Ryan and Deci describe that identification is a more autonomous or self-determined form of extrinsic motivation with conscious valuing of activity and self-endorsement of goals. The one with the personal importance of a behaviour accepts its regulation because she or he values it as a life goal or see its values from the activity. Finally, the most autonomous form is integrated regulation occurring when identified regulations have been adapted fully to the self through self-examination and value acceptance. Ryan and Deci argue although integration shares qualities in
common with intrinsic motivation, being self-determined and autonomous, integration is still extrinsic because of the influence of presumed instrumental values at the beginning.

FIGURE 5. A taxonomy of human motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 61)

Another theory belonging to the cognitive-situated period is the attribution theory proposed by Bernard Weiner in 1992. Dörnyei (2001) posits that the subjective explanation of why past successes and failures have occurred shaped one’s motivation towards future actions. In school contexts, ability and effort have been identified as the most dominant causes, however, the effect of these two attribution factors are different. If the past failure of the learner is attributed to low ability, she/he possibly will never give it another try. On the contrary, if the failure is attributed to inadequate effort or “unsuitable learning strategies”, one will try the activity again (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 79). Dörnyei (2005) states that attribution theory has gained a special status among contemporary theories in motivational psychology because the theory contributes to filling the gap of negative influences of the achievement theory involving fear of failure with causal attributions. Furthermore, attribution theory was a unique theory successfully linking people’s past experience with future achievement efforts. It also became the emerging model in student motivation research in the 1980s.
3.1.3 The Process-Oriented Period (during the 2000s)

Dörnyei (2005) argues that when motivation is examined with the links of learner behaviours and classroom processes with changeability, then process-oriented approach would be needed. Motivation is “not a static attribute but a dynamic factor with continuous fluctuation” (p. 83). In other words, motivation varies throughout the time and can change even during a single L2 class. Dörnyei asserts that because of the dynamic and constant changes over time of L2 motivation, time dimension had to be included in the motivation model. Dörnyei and Otto proposed a process model of L2 motivation to explain the components and mechanisms of L2 motivation process in 1998. Dörnyei (2005) notes that the model describes how initial wishes and desires are first transformed into goals and then into operationalized intentions, and how these intentions are enacted, leading [...] to the accomplishment of the goal and concluded by the final evaluation of the process (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 84).

The model includes three distinct phases: preactional stage, actional stage, and postactional stage (see Figure 6).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preactional Stage</th>
<th>Actional Stage</th>
<th>Postactional Stage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHOICE MOTIVATION</strong></td>
<td><strong>EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION</strong></td>
<td><strong>MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivational functions:</td>
<td>Motivational functions:</td>
<td>Motivational functions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Setting goals</td>
<td>- Generating and carrying out subtasks</td>
<td>- Forming causal attributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Forming intentions</td>
<td>- Ongoing appraisal (of one's achievement)</td>
<td>- Elaborating standards and strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Launching action</td>
<td>- Action control (self-regulation)</td>
<td>- Dismissing the intention and further planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main motivational influences:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Main motivational influences:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Main motivational influences:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Various goal properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity)</td>
<td>- Quality of the learning experience (pleasantsens, need significance, coping potential, self and social image)</td>
<td>- Attributional factors (e.g., attributional styles and biases)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Values associated with the learning process itself, as well as with its outcomes and consequences</td>
<td>- Sense of autonomy</td>
<td>- Self-concept beliefs (e.g., self-confidence and self-worth)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers</td>
<td>- Teachers’ and parents’ influence</td>
<td>- Received feedback, praise, grades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Expectancy of success and perceived coping potential</td>
<td>- Classroom reward- and goal structure (e.g., competitive or cooperative)</td>
<td>- Learner beliefs and strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning, and self-motivating strategies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Learner beliefs and strategies</td>
<td>- Influence of the learner group</td>
<td>- Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning, and self-motivating strategies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Environmental support or hindrance</td>
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Dörnyei (2005) explains that in a preactional stage, motivation needs to be generated first in the initial phase. It can be referred as a choice motivation, which leads to the choice of goals or tasks pursued by ones. Secondly, the generated motivation needs to be “actively maintained and protected” during the actional stage or executive motivation (p. 84). According to Dörnyei (2005), this stage particularly relevant to classroom settings, physical conditions or distracting influences from tasks. The last stage is a postactional stage or called motivational retrospection, which relates to the retrospective evaluation of how one makes things; how learners process their past experiences in the actional stage into retrospective phase defines their future activities that they are motivated to pursue. The assertion also explains the main tenet of the attribution theory, that is whether learners evaluate their past success or failure because of ability or effort, it will influence positively or negatively on her/his actions in the future.

3.2 Motivating People

Dörnyei (2001) asserts that there has been a gap between motivation theory and practice in educational and research contexts. Although there has been substantial research on student motivation in both psychology and language, little material regarding practical recommendations or guidelines has been made for practitioners to facilitate motivation in teaching. According to psychologists, there are very few rules or principles absolutely true in relation to human beings. Hence, motivation researchers in the past have not stated practical suggestions for teachers and language classrooms (Dörnyei, 2001).

Dörnyei (2001) points out that in facing large student demotivation and school rejection, practical terms necessarily appear to help teachers understand and deal with students’ problems. He also states that there has been a need for “motivational training which might be a good investment in the longer run, and may also make life in the classroom so much more pleasant” (p. 25). However, Ford (1992) warns motivating humans must not be understood as a simple and mechanistic term; rather it is more complicated, distinctive, sensitive process.
There are no magic motivational buttons that can be pushed to “make” people want to learn, work hard, and act in a responsible manner. Similarly, no one can be directly “forced” to care about something […]. Facilitation, not control, should be the guiding idea in attempts to motivate humans (Ford, 1992, p. 202).

Ford emphasizes on collaborations and respect in the effort to motivate people rather than using power or authority. Also, Ford divides the problem of motivating humans into two different levels. Urgent and temporary change or highly controlling motivational strategies such as punishments, rewards or competition facilitating achievement in a particular context, are sometimes effective means to produce short-term results. However, in overusing such commonly used strategies, it likely leaves “negative developmental consequences”, and not “longer-term competence development” (Ford, 1992, p. 203). Thus, “enduring, elaborative change” fostering longer-term developmental perspective, individual personality and competence have to be prioritised. Of course, short-term and long-term motivational objectives often go hand-in-hand to help the one to get a positive solution to a certain issue and nurture her/his optimistic vision towards future actions.

3.3 Motivational Strategies as the Theoretical Framework

In the previous section, I outlined the main development of L2 motivation theories and research concentrating largely on leaners. In this section, I will present the guidelines for language teachers on foreign/second language motivation, or motivational strategies for teachers.

Dörnyei (2001, p. 28) defines motivational strategies as “techniques that promote the individual’s goal-related behaviour”. Clarifying, he states that motivational strategies as motivational influences that are consciously implemented to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect. Dörnyei supports that those motivational strategies based on an approach of the process-oriented model described in figure 6. Creating the basic motivational conditions and generating initial motivation phases correspond with the preactional phase, maintaining and protecting motivation with the actional phase, and encouraging positive self-evaluation with the postactional phase. Dörnyei elaborates that the
motivational teaching practice is based on the process-oriented model is actionable since it aims for educational applications and it is comprehensive from initial motivational stage to the completion and evaluation one. There are four main dimensions in this process-oriented organization (see Figure 7).

- Creating the basic motivational conditions.
- Generating initial motivation.
- Maintaining and protecting motivation.
- Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation.

**FIGURE 7.** The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 29)
Dörnyei (2001) proposed 35 motivational strategies based on the four dimensions listed. Although those can be regarded as the most reliable, they are not absolute rules, but rather guidelines and suggestions for just one or a group of teachers. “Not every strategy works in every context” (p. 30). Different learners with different contexts in terms of culture, age, proficiency level and relationship with the target language may make some strategies “completely useless/meaningless” or others “particularly prominent” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 30). Below I will briefly discuss the four dimensions of Dörnyei motivational strategy schema.

3.3.1 Creating the basic motivational conditions

Dörnyei (2001, p. 31) asserts that before teachers can employ motivational strategies, certain preconditions must be made to generate motivation. The three indispensable motivational conditions are appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students, a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.

Appropriate teacher behaviours will be presented first. In a survey conducted by Dörnyei and Csizér in 1998 with Hungarian EFL teachers about frequency of motivational techniques used in the classroom, teacher’s own behaviours were the most important motivational tool but also the most underutilized in practice (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 31). Dörnyei (2001, p. 32) points out four general points such as enthusiasm, commitment to and expectations for the students’ learning, relationship with the students, and relationship with the students’ parents.

Teachers who love their subject and show their dedication and passion positively influence learners’ willingness to pursue knowledge. “Teacher embodies the class spirit” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 34); so, if they show commitment towards the students’ learning progress, students will likely do the same. The author emphasizes that if students sense that teacher does not care, student motivation is destroyed. In addition to enthusiasm and commitment, teacher expectations, specifically, sufficiently high expectations, increases the chance for high student achievement. Therefore, Dörnyei (2001, p. 35) criticizes ability grouping; low expectations with these groups can lead to low student achievement. As for the
relationship with students and parents, teachers who have personal interactions and empathic concern are more likely to successfully build trust and respect with students and inspire them on the academic path. Relationship with parents is a need because a good relationship with learners also depends on good relationship with their parents. Dörnyei (2001) explains that “for most children, their parents’ opinion matters, and therefore, parents can be powerful allies in any motivational effort” (p. 39).

A pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere is the second important factor in this dimension. Language anxiety has been seen to be a challenging factor for L2 learning achievement. Therefore, teachers need to create a safe and supportive classroom allowing risk-taking and accepting mistakes. In addition, the use of humour is another tool for relaxing classroom atmosphere. However, the main function of humour in the classroom is not about telling jokes continuously, but “having a relaxed attitude about how seriously we take ourselves” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 41). The physical environment is also an important aspect; if students can personalize their classroom, they can increase control over it with the more relaxing atmosphere.

The last factor in creating basic motivational conditions is establishing constructive group norms. The author states that effective and positive norms that a group possesses can significantly contribute to group motivation. Norms should be discussed, made and implemented by everyone, and violating agreed norms should not be unnoticed, otherwise, rules are not understood as important and serious. Building group norms together increases the cohesion, solidarity and mutual motivation in the classroom where learners lacking motivation are often afraid of being rejected or isolated by their classmates.

### 3.3.2 Generating initial motivation

The fact is that school attendance is mainly compulsory, and the curriculum is mostly based on the society principles, rather than what learners choose by themselves. Although children possess an inborn curiosity about the surroundings and desire to learn, learners’ innate motivation could not be expected always to be available for L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 50). Therefore, teachers need to
actively generate positive learner attitudes towards L2 learning with five categories such as enhancing learners' language-related values and attitudes; increasing their expectancy of success; increasing their goal-orientedness; making the teaching materials relevant to them and creating realistic learner beliefs. Below I will shortly discuss five categories separately.

Firstly, everyone has their own value system in terms of beliefs or attitudes which root from past experiences, upbringing or daily life and orient their actions and activities. Hence, establishing positive language values and attitudes for learners is extremely important. These language values are divided by Dörnyei (2001, p. 51) into intrinsic value (actual process of learning the target language); integrative value (target language itself and its speakers); and instrumental value (consequences and benefits of having learned the target language).

The intrinsic value of L2 learning is related to learners’ enjoyment and interest in language learning, therefore, promoting students’ curiosity and positive experience with L2 is a necessary task for teachers. The integrative value requires social and cultural bonds within the language, so motivational strategies proposed by Dörnyei (2001, p. 55) to promote integrative values is raising cross-cultural awareness with L2 culture and its speakers, and familiarizing L2-related experiences. On the other hand, promoting instrumental values relates to practical matters of L2 learning such as money, promotion, social position or language requirements. Reminding the successful mastery of the L2 to students, highlighting L2 usefulness for learners and encouraging L2 usage in real-life activities are strategies that Dörnyei (2001, p. 57) mentioned for enhancing instrumental values.

Secondly, according to Dörnyei (2001, p. 57), increasing the learners’ expectancy of success relates to the fact that learners do things best if they believe they can succeed and they expect success. Therefore, teachers should be aware of organizing conditions that encourage learners positively and optimistically to get success in their L2 learning process. Of course, the expectancy of success and positive values should go together for valued results. In addition to paying attention to the level of tasks, teachers also can strengthen learners’ success expectancy by giving them adequate preparation with appropriate strategies and
teaching procedures, promoting student cooperation, setting clearly success criteria or role model, and removing difficulties in terms of time, resources or learning environment.

Thirdly, in addition to the expectancy of success, learners’ goal-orientedness also needs to be increased. Dörnyei (2001, p. 59) states that teachers are required to set teaching goals and objectives for each lesson, but these goals are often far from goals that most students are actually following. The most important strategy is to have an open discussion with students about their individual goals, success criteria as well as institutional requirements. Learners need to know those issues so that they can direct attention to relevant learning matters, persistently pursuing the goals or improving their plans or action strategies. Moreover, the teacher should not only outline class goals but also negotiate individual goals and how to attain them.

Fourthly, preparing relevant teaching materials according to learners’ interest, needs, and goals, and build these into the curriculum is really essential because one of the most demotivating factors is for learners to have to learn something irrelevant to them. In other words, students will not be motivated to learn unless they see the worthiness of the materials they are taught. Motivational strategies recommend teachers need to connect subjects to students’ experiences and backgrounds.

The final category of generating initial motivation dimension is creating realistic learner belief. Dörnyei (2001, p. 66) words that most learners’ beliefs about language learning process are likely to be (at least partly) not correct, which is absolutely a real barrier on the way to master L2 learning. Teachers should address things such as the difficulty of language learning, the realistic progress rate students can expect, requirements and best learning strategies for language learners to set realistic beliefs. Especially, teachers should raise learners’ awareness about appropriate expectations, beliefs, and solutions for language learning success.
3.3.3 Maintaining and protecting motivation

When motivational conditions and L2 motivation are initiated and generated, motivation needs to be nurtured and protected because of its dynamic nature and many positive and negative motivational influences (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 71). Firstly, motivational strategies related to making learning enjoyable and presenting tasks in a motivating way will be discussed. Secondly, learners’ self-confidence, social image, and cooperation will be presented secondly. Finally, the way to create learner autonomy and promote self-motivation will be discussed.

Naturally, people are willing to learn and do activities that they enjoy, so making learning enjoyable and stimulating for learners is important by breaking the monotony of learning, making tasks more interesting, and increasing the student involvement (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 73). The monotony of learning which tends to reduce motivation can be changed by varying the linguistics focus of the tasks and organizational format, activating all language skills and channel of communication (auditory, visual or tactile), or material, presentation styles. The task attractiveness can be enhanced with a challenge, interesting content, novelty, intriguing and exotic elements, or personalizing them based on students’ interests. In addition, learners will be more motivated when they are active participants. Teachers should design tasks that require all students’ involvement, specifying and personalizing roles for everybody. Next, presenting tasks in a motivating way overlaps with strategies discussed above, however, Dörnyei emphasizes the main point is explaining the purpose and the utility of a task and providing appropriate strategies for the task (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 80).

Secondly, Dörnyei (2001, p. 87) asserts that building confidence is an important motivational teaching practice. It means that learners need to have healthy “self-issues” (self-esteem, self-confidence, self-efficacy) and believe in themselves in order to maintain and strive the language learning process. Teachers can affect students’ self-image positively by providing success experience and strategies, encouraging learners, reducing language anxiety. This also relates to creating students’ positive social image in an educational environment since an academic achievement not only affects intellectual development but also their
self-worth and social standing in the class. Dörnyei (2001, p. 99) recommends that teachers should avoid criticism, corrections or disciplines that may be perceived as humiliating and embarrassing. Also, cooperation is repeatedly mentioned as extremely powerful motivation tool because it fosters group cohesiveness, the expectancy of success, obligation and moral responsibility, and learner autonomy.

There is some evidence that learners who are able to learn independently may gain greater proficiency. Moreover, the role of autonomy has been best highlighted by self-determination theory. The theory emphasizes the freedom to choose, which is a “prerequisite to motivation” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 103). The author proposes some ingredients for autonomy-supporting teaching practice such as involving learners in organizing the learning process, giving choices, genuine authority, self-assessment, encouraging student contributions, peer teaching or project work. Change in teacher’s role from traditional teaching style to non-traditional one, is to find the right balance of hierarchical, cooperative and autonomous models. Promoting learners’ goal-commitment, concentration, self-remininders and emotion and environmental control strategies is also crucial for self-motivating strategies.

3.3.4 Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

Dörnyei (2001, p. 117) states that human beings often look back and evaluate their past performance while drawing lessons for the future, which ties the past to the future. Therefore, helping students deal with their past to promote future effort is an important aspect of motivating. Motivational strategies are divided into promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner.

As for promoting motivational attributions, Dörnyei (2001, p. 122) emphasizes encouraging students’ effort attributions because it is dangerous if failure is blamed too much on ability in L2 learning. In other words, learners should get feedback explaining that failure happens because of their low effort rather than low ability. Teachers should refuse ability attributions on students and highlight that the curriculum is within their ability range.
Feedback needs to be taken into careful considerations while boosting learners’ self-confidence and learning progress, lest it be counterproductive. Feedback can play a gratifying function, promoting positive self-concept, helping learners reflect constructively on their learning, which is called positive information feedback. Positive information feedback is “positive, descriptive feedback regarding student strengths, achievements, progress and attitudes. Most importantly, this feedback provides students with information rather than judgments against external standards or peer achievement. Information feedback would compare the same score to the student's previous achievement, noting positive or negative trends, and at the same time identifying areas that were okay and areas that the student should focus on to improve on their progress” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 124). According to Dörnyei, teachers should notice and react to any positive contributions of learners, providing positive information feedback regularly for students’ learning progress with information on what their strengths and limitations are.

Next, it is important for teachers to increase learner satisfaction. Dörnyei states that celebrations and satisfaction are crucial motivational building blocks because they validate effort, affirm the entire learning process, reinforce the value of the experience, and in general provide the bright spots along the road towards the ultimate goal” (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 125).

Celebration is considered an important means of praising satisfaction; therefore, a variety of strategies are given to promote learner satisfaction. These are monitoring and recognizing learners’ accomplishments, celebrating success including tasks which involve the public display, or making progress tangible by encouraging the production of visual records.

Reward and grade offering is the last motivational technique which is probably the most well-known and controversial aspect (Dörnyei, 2001). Most psychologists argue that rewards divert students’ attention away from real tasks and real aim of learning; external rewards can even diminish intrinsic motivation. However, according to Dörnyei (2001, pp. 130-134) rewards can affect learners’ motivation positively if teachers make sure that rewards are not overused and are meaningful to students. Similar to rewards, grades also should be shown
clearly to the learners, reflecting the real effort and improvement rather than comparing objects. Learners should be given self-assessment or peer grading to assess their learning and evaluate their own improvement and progress.

### 3.4 Previous Studies

The two studies that have actually attempted to empirically test Dörnyei’s motivational strategies are Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) in Taiwan, and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) in South Korea.

Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) conducted a large-scale empirical survey which is a modified replication of Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) study in Hungary. In Dörnyei and Csizér’s study, 200 Hungarian EFL teachers were asked to answer how important they considered a list of 51 motivational strategies and how frequently they used them in their teaching practice. They came up with a set of “ten commandments for motivating language learners”. Arguing over the absolute validity of ten commandments in every cultural, ethnolinguistic and institutional setting, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) conducted a modified replication study in an Asian context with 378 Taiwanese teachers of English. Due to different cultural and lingual background between Western and Asian contexts, Cheng and Dörnyei wanted to examine how different Taiwanese teachers’ motivational beliefs and practices was. Their study revealed that at least some motivational strategies were universally transferable across diverse cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts (motivating teacher behaviour, promoting learners’ self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom climate and presenting tasks properly) (Cheng and Dörnyei, 2007, p. 169). However, there were also some culture-sensitive strategies in the Taiwanese and Hungarian findings. For example, ‘promoting learner autonomy’ was considered unimportant while ‘recognizing students’ effort and hard work’ was significantly emphasized by Taiwanese teachers in comparison to Hungarian teachers.

Another large-scale investigation was conducted by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) with 40 ESOL classrooms involving 27 teachers and more than 1,300
learners in South Korea. The study examined the link between motivational strategies and students’ language learning motivation. To my knowledge, this is the first study so far that assessed empirically the effects of motivational strategies on learners’ motivation in language classes. A self-report questionnaire and a classroom observation instrument (the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching – MOLT) developed for this study were used to measure students’ motivation. The MOLT also was used to assess the teachers’ use of motivational strategies. The research concluded that teacher’s use of motivational strategies does matter. There was a link between language teachers’ motivational practice and increased levels of learner motivation state and behaviour. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei also suggested a need for future research to examine how culture specific motivational strategies are and which area of technique can be transferable across educational circumstances.

There is some research studying student motivation and demotivation in Vietnamese context (Tran, 2007; Phan, 2011; Ngo, Spooner-Lane, & Mergler, 2017). In the study of language motivation, based on the interviews with seven Vietnamese technical English major students, Phan (2011) found that values of English knowledge, English education environment, family and social networks are factors affecting the language learning motivation. In addition, extrinsic motivation was revealed as the dominant factors rather than intrinsic motivation. Similarly, Ngo, Spooner-Lane, and Mergler (2017) also found that learning English for the future profession was high motivation for students to learn English. Furthermore, intrinsically motivated students made a higher effort in learning English than extrinsically motivated peers. Taking an opposite approach, Tran (2007) studied the demotivation of 100 university students in English language learning in terms of reasons, influences and student experiences in overcoming demotivation. The findings revealed that demotivation is a major language problem negatively affecting foreign language learning. There were internal (students’ attitudes, experiences of failure, self-esteem) and external attributions (teacher-related factors, the learning environment and other external factors) explaining student demotivation in Tran’s research. However, students’ awareness of the important role of English and their determination for success
were main power for overcoming demotivation. There were quite a lot studies about foreign language motivation focusing on motivation factors in the Vietnamese context, however, there has been no research on motivational strategies in EFL teachers’ perspectives taking Dörnyei’s motivational theories as theoretical considerations.

In the Finnish context, there are some studies on L2 motivation such as Master’s theses of Muhonen (2004) and Amemori (2012) about the demotivation of Finnish students to learn English. Muhonen (2004) conducted a study with 91 ninth grade students to find out negative factors influencing student motivation to learn English. The findings showed that the teacher (teaching methods, lack of competence and personality) was the primary source of demotivation. Learning materials with boring textbooks, exercises and topics was the second factor. Learner characteristics was the third theme. Either students with lower confidence and competence or more advanced students felt demotivation. School environments including too early/late classroom in the morning/afternoon, changes in teachers also caused demotivation. Amemori (2012) did similar research on demotivation with 109 university students of the University of Tampere and Jyväskylä. Characteristics of English courses, the teacher, educational system, learning environment, course contents and materials were external demotives; attitude towards studying English and reduced self-confidence were internal demotives in Amemori’s research.

Kamula (2016) researched the motivational effect of different task type (ICT and non-ICT tasks or technology-utilising tasks and textbook-bound ones) on student overall motivation. Task motivation can be mentioned when task design or task characteristics are the focus of attention in motivation (Julkunen, 2001, p. 33). Julkunen (2001) published on task motivation in L2 learning. In a paper named ‘situation- and task-specific motivation in foreign language learning’, Julkunen reported a study carried out in the foreign language context in the comprehensive schools in Joensuu, Finland. The study described the important connections of student motivation with classroom, situation and task levels. It compared the affective effects of different learning situations (individualistic, cooperative, competitive) and different tasks (open and closed). The results showed
that the cooperative learning situation was experienced the most motivating result for low and high achievers, regardless of task types. In the individualistic and competitive situation, high achievers did more positive, particularly in the closed tasks.

However, there was only one study in English about motivational strategies used by EFL teachers in Finland (Sillanpää, 2012). Sillanpää compared perception and implementation of motivational strategies of two groups of Finnish student teachers at the University of Jyväskylä with questionnaire. The questionnaire was based on Dörnyei’s taxonomy of motivational strategies. The first participant group combined 59 final-year students. The second group comprised 25 participants who completed their pedagogical studies at least one year ago. The study showed that there was no significant difference between two groups about the view on the usefulness of motivational strategies. However, the more experienced group used motivational strategies in their teaching practice more clearly than the inexperienced group. The results also revealed that although the respondents considered motivational strategies useful in second/foreign language learning, they received little information about motivational strategies in their foreign language studies.

As for research on Dörnyei’s motivational strategies used by language teachers, this has been done in quite many EFL contexts, for example in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998) with 200 Hungarian EFL teachers; Taiwan (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007) with 378 Taiwanese teachers of English; Japan (Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010) with 124 secondary school English teachers; Turkey (Deniz, 2010) with 179 student teachers, Korea (Guilloteaux, 2013) with 268 South Korean secondary EFL teachers; and China (Wong, 2014) with 30 EFL classroom observations involving 10 teachers and more than 900 students. These studies examined the importance and effectiveness of motivational strategies of Dörnyei in large-scale. Therefore, I strongly believe there is a need to conduct a research, even a small scale one, in Vietnamese and Finnish contexts to study and provide teachers practical means in language learning motivation. Also, from my own perspective, the comparative research between Finnish and Vietnam contexts about motivational strategies can examine the cross-culture application of how culture sensitive and
specific motivational techniques are, which is also future research suggestions in Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008).
4 Research Questions

The literature emphasized the importance of motivation in foreign language learning and recognized the research gap in the use of motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish teachers. Therefore, I wanted to conduct a study about EFL teachers’ experiences in motivating students. The aim of the present study is to understand how Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers use motivational strategies and how similar and different they apply motivational strategies in their language teaching. The comparative research also wants to explore the difficulties and challenges that Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers face in motivating students. The research questions are formulated as follows:

1. How do Vietnamese and English EFL teachers use motivational strategies in their English classes? How similar or different motivational strategies are in two contexts?

2. What are the difficulties and challenges of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers in using motivational strategies?
5 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STUDY

5.1 Methodology

This section presents the methodology and research method chosen to conduct the research of the motivational strategies used by Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers. The researcher’s consideration and justification for the choices are carefully described below. In addition, ethical issues are also discussed to increase the trustworthiness of the research.

5.1.1 Selection of the Methodology

Creswell (2009) emphasizes the importance of researcher’s justifications for selecting a research methodology and method which would base on the research problem and the researcher’s personal experiences. The most common methodology for studies on motivation in foreign language classes has been a quantitative approach (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Sugita & Takeuchi, 2010; Deniz, 2010; Papi, 2012; Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini, & Ratcheva, 2013; Guilloteaux, 2013). Little research has been conducted in exploratory qualitative design. In this study, I have chosen a qualitative approach. The purpose of the research is to understand individual experiences and stories of teachers, so qualitative research is the best option for this present study. As Creswell (2007) states that qualitative research is conducted because we need a complex, detailed understanding of the issue. This detail can only be obtained by talking directly with people and allowing them to tell the stories freely. The qualitative research allows in-depth focus on individual meaning and the importance of explaining the complexity of a situation.

As for the researchers’ personal experience on deciding research approach, Creswell (2009) notes that researchers who are interested in literacy-style writing, conducting personal interviews, observations or field notes, prefer the qualitative approach which allows working with researcher-designed frameworks and in-
novation. On the other hand, quantitative-type researchers may be more comfortable with statistics, computer statistical programs and systematic procedures of qualitative research. I found myself more suitable for qualitative research as I required in-depth understanding and individual explanations from subjects as well as innovation and experiment for my present research. Dörnyei (2001) points out that there is a great deal of writing focusing on what motivation is, its components, dimensions and how they affect learning, but very little volume about how theories applied in the actual language classroom by EFL teachers. Therefore, a practical, exploratory and profound qualitative research needs to be done to fill the gap among quantitative research.

5.1.2 Participants

The present research is the first attempt to adopt interview comparative research to study teacher perspective on motivational strategies in English classrooms. Guilloteaux (2013) and Wong (2014) used mixed method approach with scales, class observations and post-observation interviews study in large-scale. However, my research does the opposite approach in small-scale and used individual semi-structured interviews because I am more interested in in-depth personal thoughts and experience of the teachers.

The participants were Vietnamese teachers and Finnish teachers of English. There were one male and two female Vietnamese teachers and three female Finnish teachers. Their native languages are Vietnamese and Finnish, respectively, and English is a foreign language for them. With Finnish EFL teachers, I interviewed them in English because I could not speak in Finnish. However, with Vietnamese EFL teachers, I had two language options, Vietnamese and English. Before the interview happened, the language options and preferences were given to them in advance. I asked them to choose the language they were most comfortable with. Two of Vietnamese EFL teachers chose to speak in English (V1 and V3). We mainly used English and also used Vietnamese to clarify. Teacher 2 (V2) chose Vietnamese for our interview; I translated her interview in English.

Vietnamese teachers only teach English while Finnish teachers teach English and other languages such as German. Therefore, a Finnish teacher also
shared her experience about those foreign language teaching, which provides more interesting findings for the research. The participant status is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1 Participant status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Teaching experience (years)</th>
<th>Type of school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V1</td>
<td>Male/Vietnamese</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Primary and lower secondary school/private school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V2</td>
<td>Female/Vietnamese</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Private schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V3</td>
<td>Female/Vietnamese</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Primary, lower and upper school/private school/university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>Female/Finnish</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Primary, lower and upper secondary school/international school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>Female/Finnish</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Primary and lower secondary school/university (German)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3</td>
<td>Female/Finnish</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Primary, lower and upper school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All Vietnamese participants (except V2) are teaching in public schools (primary, lower and upper secondary schools). V2 has been teaching in private schools to students at various age levels from children to adults. V3 has been teaching English in public and private schools and university, but most of the time she is working with teenagers. All Finnish participants have been teaching in comprehensive schools from primary, lower secondary to upper secondary levels. F1 said that she also used to teach in an international school in Asia. F2 also shared her German teaching experience at a university. In the interviews, participants mostly talked about primary and lower secondary students (age from 7 to 15 years old). However, the participants also mentioned their language teaching experience with upper secondary and university students. The variety of teaching experiences and background brings multifaceted data and makes teachers’ motivational strategies more comprehensive.
5.1.3 Interview

Interviews not only allow the participants to describe their experience about the use of motivational strategies as precisely as possible but also give room for the interviewer to ask more questions. According to Kvale (2007a), the qualitative interview is a key venue for exploring the ways in which participants experience and understand their world. It provides a unique access to the lived world of the subjects, who in their own words describe their activities, experiences, and opinions. Those criteria support the aims of the present study as the objectives of this research was to explore how teachers in two contexts use motivational strategies in their EFL classes. The opinions, experiences, and understandings of teachers about their use of motivational strategies could be explored and described fittingly due to the chosen data collection method.

Semi-structured interviews based on the research and theories were conducted with Vietnamese teachers of English via Skype, and with Finnish teachers of English face-to-face. I went to the interviews with the list of questions as general guidelines and theme orientation (see Appendix 1). However, I used the list as a flexible guideline rather than strictly. “You do not have to use any of the questions initially prepared” (see e.g. Rapley’s suggestions, 2004, p. 9). The point is to follow the interviewee’s talk, to follow up on and to work with them, and not strictly limit the talk to predetermined questions. My interview design was intended to not explain the theory to the participants. Instead, I began the interview with a “broad” opening question about motivation after I told the teachers what my topic was. Then, with their answer becoming the main source for my research, I just let them talk freely first about what she/he felt for the rest of the interview. My strategy was to ask the same questions and cover the same broad themes with different teachers as my research was to conduct a comparative analysis. Therefore, I could “gather contrasting and complementary talk on the same theme or issue” (Rapley, 2004).

Each participant was interviewed around 20 to 60 minutes and recorded on my phone, which was stated in the consent form and mutually agreed by all the parties. The interviews took place with all six teachers from November 2016 to
February 2017, via Skype with Vietnamese teachers and face-to-face with Finnish teachers at their schools.

5.1.4 Data analysis

I took about one month to transcribe all six interviews into 53-page length document. When I had all transcripts in hand, I started reading data analysis theory to have the best understanding of it. I coded six interviews with the software Atlas TI. The data were analyzed by qualitative content analysis method, “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 1278). The analysis was partly data-driven by inductive analysis\(^1\), and partly theory-driven in order to identify themes. With the analysis combination, I would not only be able to recognize new characteristics of teachers’ opinions and experience, but also connect the emerging themes to the existing theories in order to ensure theoretical significance and relevance to my research. The direct quotes from the participants are presented in this thesis in italics with quotation marks.

I began the data analysis process by reading and re-reading the transcript to get familiar with the data. Then, I took one-month August 2017 to do the primary-cycle coding which included “an examination of the data and assigning words or phrases that capture their essence” (Tracy, 2012, p. 189). I coded line-by-line, and first-level codes appeared. I put codes from Vietnamese and Finnish interviews separately, and then entered secondary-cycle coding for each group.

In secondary-cycle coding, the researcher “critically examines the codes already identified in primary cycles and begins to organize, synthesize, and categorize them into interpretive concepts” (Tracy, 2012, p. 194). Depending on first-level codes or sub-themes, I re-read and grouped sub-themes into big themes according to the motivational strategies of Dörnyei (2001) and also combined new themes into two final motivational strategy models of Vietnamese and Finnish

\(^1\) The inductive approach involves analysing data with little or no predetermined theory, structure or framework and uses the actual data itself to derive the structure of analysis (Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure, & Chadwick, 2008)
EFL teachers (see the Results section). In order to have significant coding schemes, I remembered to be open-minded and active to interpret and “feel” the themes, connecting, interpreting and identifying patterns, rules, cause-effect relationship, or mutual links. Then, I created the final model (see Figure 12) of the two teacher groups to compare the differences and similarities of motivational strategies.

5.1.5 Ethical issues and trustworthiness

Ethical and moral issues arise in the entire process of an interview investigation, and therefore it is crucial to take ethical concerns into consideration from the very start of a research and up to the final report (Kvale, 2007b).

Before I started collecting the data, I tried to contact the teachers through emails and personal contacts to get their voluntary participation. Once they agreed, I sent them informed consent form informing the research purposes and goals, the identity of the researcher, the methods of data collection, confidentiality and anonymity issues. Informed consent aims to get the voluntary participation and informs participants about the right to withdraw from the investigation at any time without any consequences. All participants were informed that the interviews and purpose of interview data collection would support my thesis for my Master’s studies at the University of Jyväskylä. The consents were signed by the participants to prove their understanding and acceptance to take part in the research. We agreed to an interview time and place via emails. With Vietnamese teachers, I interviewed them via Skype because of the distance. With Finnish teachers, I went to their school to interview them face-to-face.

After the interview ended, four of six interviewers asked me about the purpose of the study because they were curious about comparative research between Vietnamese and Finnish contexts. They said they had not read or known any comparative research between two contexts and wanted to read it after I finished. I will send the final paper to the concerned teachers as soon as the thesis is approved by the University of Jyväskylä.
Confidentiality in research means that private data identifying the participants will not be reported. Therefore, the participants’ identity was kept anonymous when they are referred by their quotes. The only things I had to mention were the teachers’ gender, years of teaching, and level of schools in order to contextualize responses (see Table 1). All school names which were mentioned by the participants in their interviews have not been revealed in this thesis to avoid revealing their working places and identities.

The trustworthiness indicates whether the research is worth paying attention to. The trustworthiness of qualitative content analysis involves establishing credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability, and authenticity (Elo et al., 2014). Trustworthiness in my research was described throughout the whole process, from collecting data to reporting the results. There is one thing about trustworthiness I want to mention - the pilot interview. Since I regarded myself as an inexperienced interviewer, a pilot interview was conducted. The pilot interview helped me to practice the interview in many ways. For example, checking the quality of the recording, checking interview questions, or simply practising interviewing in English. It also helped me practice follow up questions or cues which help the interviewee elaborate when interviewees give too short or “red lights” answers, “unusual terms which may signal a whole complex of topics important to the subject” (see follow-up questions, Kvale, 2007c, p. 12). It was also necessary for me to practice not to lead the interviewees or in any way bias the data. The quality of the questions and expertise of the interviewer could determine to a strong degree the saturation and trustworthiness of the data. After that, because the pilot interview was richly informative, I took it as a first official interview for my data collection.
6 RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings from the collected data. I will present the initial findings from Vietnamese teachers (V1, V2, and V3) and Finnish teachers (F1, F2, and F3) in four separate sections according to Dörnyei’s motivational strategy dimensions to answer the first research question. The similarities and differences in motivational strategies across the two contexts also will be discussed. The answer to the second research question about the difficulties and challenges of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers in using motivational strategies will then be presented. Finally, motivational strategies as a whole of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers will be presented together to conclude the results.

6.1 Motivational strategies used by Vietnamese and Finnish teachers of English: Similarities and differences across the two contexts

Figures 8, 9, 10, and 11 offer visual comparisons in creating the basic motivation, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation, respectively. Figure 12 concludes the overall motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers, combining difficulties and challenges of teachers in the two contexts.

6.1.1 Created the basic motivational conditions

This section discusses how Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers created the basic motivation in their language classroom. Figure 8 provides theme and sub-theme arrangements for creating the basic motivation phase. Two themes which explained by sub-themes were identified from the data. Generally, both Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers created the basic motivation with appropriate teacher behaviours and pleasant classroom atmosphere.
**Creating the basic motivation**

**Vietnamese EFL teachers**
- Appropriate teacher behaviours
  - Teacher enthusiasm
  - Teacher availability
  - Teacher expectations
  - Teacher, school & parent relationship
  - Good relationship with learners
  - Pleasant classroom atmosphere

**Finnish EFL teachers**
- Appropriate teacher behaviours
  - Teacher enthusiasm
  - Teacher availability
  - Teacher expectations
  - Teacher, school & parent relationship
  - Good relationship with learners
  - Pleasant classroom atmosphere

**FIGURE 8.** Creating the basic motivation. Source: compiled by the author

**Appropriate teacher behaviours (theme 1)** includes five sub-themes that emerged from coding. These are teacher enthusiasm; teacher availability; teacher expectations; teacher, school and parent relationship; and a good relationship with learners.

**Teacher enthusiasm:** Vietnamese and Finnish teachers seem to share the same values about teacher enthusiasm. They all agreed that teachers should be motivated and enthusiastic about teaching. They are the ones who love their subject and show their dedication and their passion for what they are teaching and doing. Their self-motivation influenced greatly on the way they motivate their students.

V2 showed her commitment and dedication to her teaching even though she felt pressure to work in her school. “Even though I feel pressure, I still really want to work here. It takes me a lot of energy, time and effort to make interesting and motivating classes for my students” (V2). V3 also added, “I love teaching English, love my students and want to support the people to study English” (V3). Similarly, a Finnish teacher, F2 answered that she loves German herself, especially German grammar.

**Teacher availability:** In addition to being self-motivated, how much available teachers can be to their students to support them also counts significantly.
V3 supported her university students, not younger ones via social media, Facebook group, emails or telephone. “Students can call to ask any questions or via emails” (V3). Whenever students had problems, V3 spent time talking with them, personal problems and studying ones. F1 was willing to “meet students as individuals”, spending time with them, or talking with them after class. However, teacher availability in the two contexts is different due to the number of students in a class. Vietnamese teachers in public schools did not mention individual meeting with students because they have many more students in their class. On the other hand, 20 students in a class were also a difficulty for a Finnish teacher. “I struggle because I have 20 students in my class to form a relationship with all of them” (F1).

**Teacher expectation**: According to Dörnyei (2001), the definition of teacher expectation is having sufficiently high expectations for what students can achieve. However, Vietnamese and Finnish teachers’ definition about expectation was lowering their expectations for students who are struggling or do not want to study English. Vietnamese teachers lowered their expectation according to their students’ expectation of test results. Vietnamese students have a lot of stress (pressure from doing tests, learning, memorizing structures), so V1 was fine with some students not wanting to be motivated if motivation is another stress for them. As expressed by V1, teachers also have to accept that even “with some students, learning English with them is just trying to pass the exams”. Again, V2 said that “it is just fine if my students meet their own demand, that is passing their tests”. In the stark contrast, Finnish teachers did not defer their expectations to student expectation for the tests. Instead, their expectation was in accordance with learner ability.

“I have some who are struggling, then for them, can we lower expectations? Does everybody always have to learn the same things? Or is it enough for some just master the basic? And then the one who is able to and they want to, can they learn more or for them can the expectations higher.” (F1)

**Teacher, school and parent relationship**: Appropriate teacher behaviours cannot exclude teacher relationship with parents. Both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers took care to build a connection with parents either via reports or web-based interface. In Vietnamese private schools, individual parents are informed about
their children’s learning progress, test result and schedule in detail and frequently. “The connection between the school and the families are very close through studying reports and phone calls” (V2). In Finnish public schools, there is an online system called Wilma to connect parents, teachers, and school in learning activities and student behaviours. As described by F2, “we use Wilma things. It is a system where I can get messages from parents and parents get messages from teachers”. F1 also has succeeded with difficult students in her classroom when reaching out to parents, keeping them informed of what happens at school, and involving them in the learning process. She took parents’ actions as the last resort in her attempt to change students’ attitudes and behaviours. “That is probably the only time that parent contact in extreme measure” (F1).

**A good relationship with learners:** The relationship with learners was especially emphasized and shared by both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers. They developed a relationship with their students with following components such as trust, mutual interest, caring learners’ life outside the classroom, respecting, empathizing, and understanding. Vietnamese and Finnish teachers all agreed to build trust with learners. “The most importance for me is to create the closeness and trust of my students so that the cooperation between two parties will be easier” (V2), “if they trust you, you are able to talk to them and communicate” (F1). Both teachers show interests in learners.

V2 and F2 tried to catch the mutual interest with students’ by talking about topics that students are interested in such as Korean music (V2), riding horses, or Pokemon Go game (F2). F3 suggested that “teachers should ask students’ wishes, interest, fear or their concern, then really writing them down and including their wishes and expectations to the course“ (F3). In addition to learning issues, Vietnamese and Finnish teachers shared exactly the same opinion about caring for students’ life outside the classroom “family issues or personal problems” (V2), other social life out of school such as “friendship, parents, family or whatever” (F1), “students’ health or mental status” (F2). However, the relationship between Vietnamese teachers and students is more traditional than that in Finnish context because of Eastern philosophy. V2 said that
“in Vietnam, students have to show a lot of respect for teachers. They cannot call the teacher by the first name, and when I observe other classrooms, the students have to call the teachers by Miss, and then the first name.” (V2)

**Pleasant classroom atmosphere (theme 2):** Both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers said they tried to build a pleasant atmosphere for their classrooms, which is considered significantly important for their teaching to reduce student anxiety and stress. Teachers “always try to make a friendly atmosphere, make the class funnier with my sense of humour” (V2), most of the time classrooms are maybe “very noisy and very enthusiastic” (V3). Finnish teachers also shared the same opinion about classroom atmosphere which encourages student involvement and engagement. F2 wants “to have a nice atmosphere so that everyone can ask questions. Whenever they feel comfortable with me, they ask more questions”. She also wants to be herself, “when I teach, I am crazy”, even for intentionally using “bad language” in her classroom with older students “sometimes if you use kind of bad language in a right way, it kind of makes the atmosphere less formal, students are relaxed and laugh and feel comfortable” (F2).

However, Vietnamese teachers have to remind their students about open atmosphere because sometimes students are too shy or afraid of asking teachers questions because of high teacher and student relationship power. V2 always talks with her students that they “should not be afraid of the teachers, you have the right to express your opinions and speak aloud”. On the other hand, Finnish teachers did not have to do so and did not think about the teacher and student relationship until the interviewer asked them since it is very open, not powerful.

6.1.2 Generated initial motivation

This section discusses how Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers generate initial motivation in their language classroom. Three themes which explained by sub-themes were identified from the data. Three themes coming up from the data are language-related values, increasing learners’ expectancy of success, and increasing learners’ goal-orientedness (Finnish teachers only).
Language-related values (theme 3): Both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers encouraged students’ language-related values including intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, integrative values and instrumental values which are an enormous boost for language learning, according to Dörnyei (2001).

**Intrinsic motivation:** a Vietnamese teacher helped students “learn English to use it, not learn about English as real learners”, so they can “apply English in realistic situations and their real needs” such as communicating with foreigners, debate in English (V1). “Once they see English reflects their real needs, intrinsic motivation will develop”, V1 said. Finnish teachers also saw the importance of inner motivation that drives them to learn curiously, especially with students who are motivated inherently.

**Extrinsic motivation:** Vietnamese and Finnish teachers regard activities, games, rewards, extra grades or positive feedback as means for extrinsic motivation. V2 and V3 encouraged their students by “activities, games, rewards (cakes/candies) or extra grades”. These teachers think that when their students are not good at English, are not really interested in studying, their job is to try best to motivate students. In the meanwhile, a Finnish teacher used “a carrot of few extra points to
the test” (F1), or “verbal encouragement and positive feedback in Wilma” (F2) to motivate their students.

**Integrative values:** Vietnamese and Finnish teachers raised cross-cultural awareness with L2 culture and its speakers, and familiarized L2-related experiences aligning with Dörnyei’s suggestions. However, while Vietnamese teachers just mentioned those values and applied them in their lessons, Finnish teachers organized exchange programs and invited L2 native speakers to their classrooms. V1 and V3 try to explain the contexts related to the English they are teaching rather than just showing the theories “how to use English to express ideas” (V1), “know about the contexts through movies, countries” (V3). F2 invited international people to her classrooms and got the students involved; “one American friend coming to my class and the children were very interested in American things because everything about America is very cool to them”. She also mentioned exchange programs to motivate students to learn English because students “get to use the language when they form a relationship and have their own experiences in exchange programs” (F2).

**Instrumental values:** Motivational strategies that Vietnamese and Finnish teachers use to develop instrumental values were similar but not identical. While instrumental values in Vietnamese context are grades, test results, English certificates, English requirements, and jobs, these values in Finnish context are daily language use, further studies, and future careers. Teaching English in public Vietnamese schools focuses primarily on teaching for tests “the predominant and priority of teaching is grammatical structures and vocabulary for the test, for the satisfactory grades” (V1).

**Increasing learners’ expectancy of success (theme 4):** Teachers increase learners’ expectancy of success by offering assistance for weaker and slower learners (V2), for discouraged and non-confident students (F1). V2 told her students to let her know when they are in need so that she can give them more exercise, books to practice and read at home (V2). With the much bigger number of students in a classroom, Vietnamese teachers cannot spend time with individuals at school.
Therefore, the Vietnamese teacher shared that she is willing to help but she requires her students’ willingness and good attitudes first, “if students have something not understand, they should go to class early and ask teachers”. Finnish teacher also gave realistic and encouraging support for her students with “sitting down and work on problems together for an extra hour” (F1).

“Do not say “Oh no, it is just a piece of cake, just study hard and this will be okay”. But say “it is okay to feel discouragement. …We will sit down and work on it together with some more. Let’s meet on Monday and we are going to work.” (F1)

In addition to assistance, providing task appropriateness also enhances learners’ expectancy of success. V2 wanted her students to feel successful right away in the classrooms.

“With the knowledge, I teach for my students, they can use it immediately in the classrooms. Of course, they cannot make it perfectly at the first time, but at least they can understand and use them.” (V2)

Finnish teachers also agreed on visible success and achievement which is the big factor in motivation because students know that they achieve something when they work hard. Therefore, “designing tasks at student level or organize teaching that gives the feeling of succeeding, the hard work pays off” (F1), and “new experience which gives more motivation than a feeling of failure” (F2) were what Finnish teachers mentioned.

Increasing learners’ goal-orientedness (theme 5) (Finnish teachers only): This theme belongs to only Finnish teachers and concerns specifying and personalizing learner goals. All Finnish participants agreed on personalizing and individualize goals for different students in the same class and at the same age, which does not exist in the Vietnamese context. F2 brought up learners with learning difficulties and individual goals.

“I have one girl in my fourth-grade groups, she is integrated with the small special class. She has individual learning plans for every subject. She is in the fourth-grade and she is learning second-grade math. She learned to read one year ago, so she is turning 12 and she just learned to read last year.” (F2)

Differentiating learner goals and requirements is a very common practice in Finland, which again was not mentioned by Vietnamese teachers.
6.1.3 Maintained and protected motivation

This section discusses how Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers maintained and protected learner motivation in their language classroom. Five themes which explained by sub-themes were identified from the data. These are making learning stimulating and enjoyable, increasing learners’ self-confidence, setting specific learning, promoting learner autonomy and shared teaching responsibility (new theme).

![Maintaining and protecting motivation](image)

**Vietnamese EFL teachers**
- Making learning stimulating and enjoyable
- Increasing learners’ self-confidence
- Allowing mistakes
- Avoiding social competition
- Encouragement
- Teaching strategies
  - Setting specific learning
- Age
- Levels
- Interests
  - Promoting learner autonomy
- Learner authority

**Finnish EFL teachers**
- Making learning stimulating and enjoyable
- Increasing learners’ self-confidence
- Allowing mistakes
- Flexible testing (new sub-theme)
- Encouragement
- Teaching strategies
  - Setting specific learning
- Age
- Levels
- Interests
  - Promoting learner autonomy
- Learner authority
- Learner self-assessment
  - Shared teaching responsibility (new theme)

FIGURE 10. Maintaining and protecting motivation. Source: compiled by the author

Making learning stimulating and enjoyable (theme 6): I categorized games, songs, physical activities and breaking old teaching method under theme 6. However, only Vietnamese teachers mentioned about breaking old teaching method.

Games, songs, physical activities were described as one of the most common and powerful tools by Vietnamese and Finnish teachers to motivate students, especially children.
“Games are fun and students learn so much from playing. Teaching English for children, we need to integrate plays for them to have the ideas, they only play, but they do not know that while they are playing, they are studying.” (V1)

When teachers try to “activate them with games, with activities or competition between groups, it makes them be more enthusiastic” (V3). Finnish teachers also emphasize the importance of playing, physical activities and songs. F1 used a lot of kinesthetic activities, outdoor activities, and games (fruit salads), cooking in her English class. While F2 used online games, songs to teach grammar and vocabulary for her kids. Students, in general, are interested in all kinds of activities. However, all teachers warned about the use of games and songs in teaching. Playing and singing have to support their understanding of lessons.

“When motivation cannot be isolated from the real contexts. If you just motivate them in activities or games, in the first week or in the first month, they feel excited and really happy, each lesson plans are each hour of playing, so wonderful. But gradually, they feel they left behind because they do not understand at all.” (V1)

Furthermore, F1 thinks that “students have to work hard at, to memorize, to write, to sit down and think about the subject for long-term memory, not just play”.

**Breaking old teaching method (Vietnamese teachers only):** Vietnamese teachers shared about changing old teaching method to make the learning and teaching more interesting and enjoyable. According to V1, teaching skills separately and using grammar-translation method are old-fashioned, ineffective and boring. V1 tried integrated and extra-curricular activities in his class. He argued that instead of teaching English skills, teachers should create real situations and phenomenon for students to solve, to act, to collaborate together.

“When you teach them you should not mention, “today we study the reading skill”. You just come to the class, and you create, “today we will have a problem of how to make the environment greener or how to protect the wildlife animals from being hunted or being extinct”, and they will work together.” (V1)

V2 also talked about rigid methods at schools, so she wanted to teach English in more comfortable and effective ways.

**Increasing learners’ self-confidence (theme 7):** Theme 7 is explained by five sub-themes coming up from the data. These are allowing mistakes, avoiding social competition, flexible testing, encouragement and teaching strategies. Self-confidence can be boosted when teachers are able to reduce their language anxiety
and stress by allowing mistakes, avoiding social competition and offering flexible testing for special students, encouraging from teachers and providing strategies.

Both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers agreed on allowing mistakes in their classroom since the foreign language process does not exist without mistakes. V2 encouraged her students who are not confident in their English by talking to them.

“You just speak English, if you make mistakes, I will correct you. Do not worry about that. Or if you are shy or afraid of making mistakes in front of the class, I can talk to you privately or correct mistakes for you privately.” (V2)

V2 understand that her students are shy and also afraid of losing face in front of the public, so she gives the option to correct mistakes for students privately while Finnish ones did not mention about it at all. The Finnish teacher also encourages their students to believe in themselves and in what they do because “many students feel quite insecure and kind of need an adult to come and say, okay, you are doing just fine” (F2).

Avoiding social competition was mentioned by Vietnamese teachers only, not Finnish teachers since the education in Vietnam is competitive. Therefore, teachers have to remind students that they “should not compare themselves with other people, instead of just trying their best what they can do” (V2). What V3 does is “dealing with student’s proficiency or the ability to study English, she does not give them grades, but try to give them comments so that they do not compare each other by the grades”. She also discussed at length the way she arranges group work in her classrooms to avoid competition among students.

“I do not ask very good students work with weak students. I know that many people think that we should assign weak students to work with good students, so the good students can support them somehow. But I am going to assign students with their abilities and proficiency. Weak students work with weak students and good students will work with good students. And with weak students, I give them more time and more support in comparison with the good students. I think that the way we motivate them is very important, so which means that we do our best do not let the students feel that there are much differences between good students and weak students.” (V3)

Flexible testing was discussed by Finnish teachers only, not by Vietnamese teachers. Testing in Vietnam education is standardized, and made by higher educational organizations, not flexibly made by teachers. When students feel panic or get stressed for a test, Finnish teachers give another testing alternative such as “producing a film in English, doing a poster, or writing an essay” rather than just
to be tested (F1). Students can show their learning and skills in other ways rather than just to be tested. Finnish teachers make the tests very flexible, comfortable and suitable for individuals, especially students with learning difficulties. F1 said that she made oral tests instead of writing tests for a dyslexia student as long as she can say words to the teacher correctly and use them in sentences correctly.

“As long as she learns the vocabulary or whatever structures that are part of the English curriculum even if she does not always know how to spell them correctly because of her learning difficulties, then I do not think that should be something that stops her from succeeding. So, I do give her some different kinds of tests, and that is very common in all the classes and not just in my classes.” (F1)

Flexible testing is also shown by compensation which is whatever students get from tests and other extra things.

“We are moving out of this idea in Finland where whatever students get from their tests and evaluation that how well students are able to use a language. I think other things playing through it well. I mean compensate.” (F1)

Last but not least, flexible testing is tests done by teachers. Finnish teachers make tests by themselves according to student levels, groups or special needs.

“Some kids with special needs they have their own special learning plan and they have their own goals, so they will have completely different tests just tailor for them and their goals because they have different goals from the rest of the class.” (F2)

Encouragement from teachers is considered a good practice to increase learner self-confidence because encouraging verbal words count a lot. “You will do better next time” (V3). “Okay, this is not so hard, you can do it” (F1). “Okay, you do great”, “see, you did it even though you did not believe in yourself”, “okay, you are doing just fine” (F2). Vietnamese and Finnish teachers try to encourage students to believe in themselves and feel secure in what they are doing.

Teaching strategies: Dörnyei (2001) suggests that equipping students with competent studying skills is a sustainable way to enhance learner self-confidence. Therefore, I also categorized teaching strategies as a sub-theme for theme 7. Both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers are well aware of teaching language strategies for students, however, the ways they implement are versatile. While Vietnamese teachers teach good tricks and tips for doing tests, improving grades or getting higher results, Finnish ones give students suitable studying techniques for their individual aims.
“There are four things important to learn. Remember four things are important for you and if you learn them by heart, you are able to take this rule and apply it in your sentences, then it will be just fine. You do not have to worry about other advanced things.” (F1)

Setting specific learning (theme 8): Theme 8 emerged from the data and describes how identical and different Vietnamese and Finnish teachers set specific learning in accordance with learner age, levels, and interests. In general, Vietnamese and Finnish teachers agreed to vary teaching and learning activities according to learners’ age, levels and interests to get high results.

Learner age: Vietnamese and Finnish teachers agreed that teaching and motivating should be different for different learner age. In other words, children and teenagers need different teaching methods. Understanding age-appropriate methodological skills is a must for any teachers.

“Teaching English for children teachers need to integrate plays, songs, body language, pictures. Teaching for teenagers, teachers should remember teaching them the knowledge, more grammar, cognitive activities, not childish activities because they need something matured and more complicated.” (V1)

“Children also have their inborn motivation and curiosity in all new things around them” (V2), so it is always happy and surprising to motivate children. In addition, instructions, words, and structures should be used more simply with little ones with appropriate stories and metaphors.

“But the little children, I think stories work well. They are tools for memory to remember things. For example, if you have the article A mouse, and you have a dog and a S cat, the A mouse visits a dog, but they cannot visit together, three of them, because the S cat will eat the A mouse.” (F1)

With upper secondary school students, teachers can also tell stories as examples and explanations for the lesson, but they need to be more analytical.

Learner levels: Students should study and work with their right levels and hence, teaching also needs to be varied according to learner levels.

“For lower students or extremely low-level students, we have to give them opportunities to study at lower levels and more appropriate levels. That is also the best way to motivate learners.” (V1)

“For lower level class, I use easier exercises. I have to change and vary my teaching, commenting, guiding” (V2). The Finnish teacher not only paid attention to lower level students, but also raised awareness on differences for gifted students.

“Differentiation for gifted and talented students is necessary because teachers often try to meet and do goals with slower students, but do not offer enough challenges for more advanced learners.” (F1)
**Learner interests**: Teachers also spend time on understanding learner interests and designing lessons according to their preferences. V3 tries to know her students’ interest and match them with her lessons for each student group from time to time.

“I know that this student likes something very interesting and exciting, I am going to do something very funny. But this student prefers the study a little bit calm or he wants to know more about other countries, so I am not going to offer a lot of activities for that student. Today, I am going to motivate this group, and the next day I am going to motivate another group.” (V3)

One Finnish teacher also mentioned the way she respects her students’ interests.

“With the fifth graders, because they do not like the singing at all, we had different kinds of Christmas project and we have group work where they could choose European countries.” (F2)

**Promoting learner autonomy (theme 9)**: Learner autonomy is promoted when teachers give learners authority in problem-solving and deciding their own studying, or when teachers are facilitators. Their autonomy is also presented in learner self-assessment. In other words, learners are responsible for and aware of the learning process and performance.

**Learner authority**: V3 encourages student independence and involvement in classroom activities by giving them the right to vote and discuss together. She also lets her students handle their problems before seeking help from friends and teachers.

“The way I motivate them is their thinking first, they should try their best to deal or to do with their problems or difficulties in their study. Themselves first, then their friends and then me. It is somehow independently trying to help yourselves first before asking other people for help.” (V3)

V3 wants her students to regard her as a facilitator, not a leader in their classroom. “Normally I talk with my students that “I am here not to teach you, I am here to talk with you, to discuss with you, to support you with your problems” (V3). Finnish teacher encourages their students to actively ask them for more advanced exercises and to set their own individual learning plans.

**Learner self-assessment (Finnish teachers only)**: Learner self-assessment is a unique feature that Finnish teachers mentioned in terms of learner autonomy. In addition to teacher assessment, students are expected to assess themselves to examine their strengths and weaknesses.
“They could also write their own goals and assessment. They will say for example “the last term, I did really poorly on the listening comprehension, and that is why my overall grade will lower. So, in this term I want to improve on that and so together better grade.” (F1)

Shared teaching responsibility (theme 10) (Finnish teachers only): Finnish teachers get support and cooperation from special education teachers about co-teaching, diagnosing and helping students. Learners with learning difficulties receive good care from special education teachers, not just with subject teachers. When students have problems, it becomes issues of other staff members, special education teachers, and other professionals. Especially when the pupil is diagnosed with learning difficulties, “I think just my profession I am not qualified enough to support. But again, it is not a real problem, because we have experts in our school supporting us and subject teachers” (F3). “Everyone tries to find solutions together and work at their optimal level to find out why students are failing in class” (F1). However, Vietnamese teachers did not mention any shared support described. As we can see, shared teaching responsibility at Finnish schools is one of the most outstanding qualities for teaching and learning effectiveness in which all teachers collaborate for the sake of students.

6.1.4 Encouraged positive retrospective self-evaluation

This section discusses how Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers encouraged positive self-evaluation for their students. Three themes - offering rewards and grades, teacher feedback and teacher evaluation - were identified from the data.

![Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation](image)

FIGURE 11. Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. Source: compiled by the author
Offering rewards and grades (theme 11): Theme 11 is identical with sub-theme instrumental values, which discusses rewards and grades as a language-related value.

Teacher feedback (theme 12): Vietnamese and Finnish teachers try to give students information feedback on their performance. “Okay, during the presentations, you should use this word or you should use the techniques to make it more attractive” (V1). However, “the feedback for upper secondary school students needs to be more explicit and descriptive, especially for those who are preparing for the matriculation examination” (F1). They want to hear rules and explanations why a structure goes in a certain way, so they require more explicit explanations, grammar and rules than younger ones.

“For example, instead of saying “this is not a good thesis sentence”, you can tell them your thesis sentence here is implicit or vague, you need to fix it, and why?” they need to analyze the language at different levels.” (F1)

Teacher evaluation (theme 13): Teacher evaluation of Finnish teachers is more detailed, informative and constructive than that from Vietnamese teachers. Vietnamese teachers report student progress in their studying reports that are delivered every semester to students and their parents. The reports mostly compare a student’s score to the average score of the whole class and overall rankings. A Finnish teacher organizes evaluation discussion in which students evaluate themselves, and the teacher evaluates them back.

“In that discussion, at least teachers get some information such as “what do you think about studying English? What are your goals? And what is your grade?” These things you are evaluated on and this is how well you work in class. These are pluses that you got when you participate in class. These are times that you forgot to do homework. And if you look at your grades, your pluses and your...what you have forgotten and what you did not do so well, how many grades that you think you give for yourself or what kind of goals will you set for next term? And usually students they know which grade they would give them and both agree on the grade that they should get. Or they said “I want to get a 9, what should I do? What is the area that I need to work?” then we look at together “okay, so you want to get a 9, what areas you should improve and how to get there?” (F1)

Motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish teachers above were reflected on Dörnyei’s motivational strategy dimension and compared to each other to present the similarities and differences. The first research question was answered. The following section will answer the second research question about
difficulties and challenges faced by Vietnamese and Finnish teachers in motivating their students.

6.2 Difficulties and challenges faced by Vietnamese and Finnish teachers in using motivational strategies

TABLE 2 Difficulties of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers in motivating learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulties in motivating learners</th>
<th>Vietnamese EFL teachers</th>
<th>Finnish EFL teachers</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational system and public schools</td>
<td></td>
<td>Learner issues</td>
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<tr>
<td>National curriculum</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Age, behaviours, teacher and student relationship, personal and family matters)</td>
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<td>Standardized test</td>
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<td>Textbooks</td>
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<td>Physical obstacles</td>
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<td>Teaching methods</td>
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<td>Parents</td>
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1. Difficulties and challenges in motivating learners in the Vietnamese context:

Vietnamese teachers described their difficulties and challenges with many factors such as the educational system, public schools, national curriculum, standardized tests, textbooks, physical classroom condition, teaching methods and parents.

The educational system and public schools: V1 said that he got a lot of pressure from his public school.

“If you can escape working in private school, it is your own choice. It is your students’ right. They have the own right to deserve the motivation, but not in the public schools. That is also the reason why Vietnamese English teachers want to escape from the public schools and they want to find other jobs, other working places or private English centres.” (V1)

He also commented on the theoretical teaching of public school that students have to suffer many hours of studying theories. This also influences on learning effectiveness, especially when teaching skills in isolation.

“In Vietnam, we teach subjects in the single day. It means that in one day they will have to study no less than ten subjects, so if you just come to the class and again you convey the theories, grammatical structures, or teaching items separate and isolated from the real context, they will hit the hay in front of you.” (V1)
National curriculum: Vietnamese teachers have to strictly follow national curriculum program. “In Finnish context, extra curriculum activities are encouraged to organize because they are realistic learning activities not using the textbooks” (F2). However, “those realistic activities are not counted in the Vietnamese national curriculum because the national curriculum does not require that” (V1). The Finnish curriculum is very flexible, so teachers have free-hand to organize their lessons. The national curriculum is not prescriptive, instead, it basically says what students are supposed to know at the end of each grade. Teachers and students can plan their learning by themselves (F2).

Standardized tests: Vietnamese teachers mentioned standardized tests which become pressure and competition for both teachers and students. Teachers have to make sure that their students can pass the tests.

“We have to make sure to the public that on one hand, our students are masterful in the skills, they can confidently communicate in English, but on the other hand, they also master in the outcome, the outcome of the national tests.” (V1)

Teachers even have to force students for their participation for test results.

“The centre needs to guarantee how many students get the expected results. They require us to do like that with the students, forcing students to study. When students fail the tests in their final grade, it is also a big trouble for teachers.” (V2)

In contrast, Finnish teachers can make the tests by themselves and does not have any pressure from testing. Teachers do not even have to make the tests for the students if they do not want to. Finnish students do not have big tests at the end of the year (F2).

Textbooks: Vietnamese teachers have to follow textbooks quite strictly while Finnish ones do not. “I do not have to use the book. Or I do not really have to. I can get the materials somewhere else” (F2). V1 also commented on current English textbooks that are “old ones with separate skills grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation. It has been a long time they have not changed it yet with outdated information” (V1). On the other hand, F3 said that

“our textbooks are noted so good. They have different kinds of exercises for the advanced and so on. You can just start looking at the exercises in your books. You do not have to go very far to look for the materials to create some individual supports.” (F3)
Physical obstacles: V3 mentioned physical conditions of the classrooms as a difficulty for her teaching.

“All the tables and the chairs are attached to the floor. It is somehow fixed, so it is hard for teachers to change the position of the chairs and tables. If I cannot change the position of tables and chairs as traditional classrooms, they are very sad and upset. The way they work with each other is not motivated because they cannot work in groups. Normally, it is easier for them to work with the students in the same row. They cannot turn right, turn left or maybe turn over.” (V3)

Teaching methods: This part is a cause for sub-theme breaking old teaching method in the session 6.1.3. Vietnamese teachers reported that teaching grammatical structures and vocabulary is extremely important for the tests. The tests just test vocabulary, grammatical structures and reading understanding, not the students’ speaking and listening skills (V1). Therefore, teaching grammar and vocabulary is much more dominant than teaching speaking and listening skills in their English classes. Teaching for testing is also considered a challenge for Vietnamese teachers.

Parents: V1 and V2 mentioned the pressure from parents who also pay much attention to test results. If their children get low grades, they will likely complain to the school and teachers. It is understandable because national tests or university entrance exam is extremely important for their children and their future.

2. Difficulties and challenges in motivating learners in Finnish context: Finnish teachers did not have similar obstacles from the educational system, schools, national curriculum, standardized tests, textbooks or parents as Vietnamese ones faced. Those challenges of Vietnamese teachers which come from “outsiders” were described objective, uncontrolled and impersonal. On the other hand, in Finland, teachers freely motivate their students and design their lessons and classes, so they do not get pressure from the educational system, schools, curriculum or tests. Instead, Finnish teachers of English struggled with their students’ behaviours in terms of learner issues such as age, behaviours, teacher and student relationship, personal and family issues. However, student misbehaviours were not mentioned as even minor problems for Vietnamese teachers.
Age: One of the Finnish teachers described at length how she struggles with student age, especially with teenagers who will have other unrelated concerns such as clothes, appearance, relationship or social image rather than their studies.

“How do I make something like passive voice or reported speech relevant to somebody who is more interested in “I need to make my nails on…” or somebody who broke up with their boyfriends? I think those years, it needs to be understanding. I tell them sometimes “I know this is not the most interesting topic in the world. I know you have probably a hundred of other things that you rather must do right now, but listen this is in your curriculum. We can make it more interesting and more fun in this way. But this is something we have to learn and there is no way around it. So, we can try and do this together. Or then you have to do it on your own if you do not participate or work with me, then you are going to be left alone and that is going to be harder. It is up to you. Which ways do you want? How do you want it?” Most of the time, it works.” (F1)

Learner behaviours: F2 did struggle with student behaviours.

“Those boys are so loud, and I do not do anything until they are quiet. If I start shouting them like “be quiet” or something, they just even become noisier. The last time, those who are noisy, I write their names on the blackboard and those were the persons who have to stay when one the other left.” (F2)

However, she shared that punishing them is also difficult because punishment does not really bring teachers any respect. But if teachers punish them, they need to do as they say and not kind of threaten them and then do nothing. Instead, teachers need to prove it true and do it (F2).

Furthermore, possessing teaching experiences in Finland and an Asia country, another Finnish teacher shared her opinions, not her generalization (she emphasized), about student inner motivation in Finland and in Asia. She thought Asian students have more inner motivation to learn to get out of poverty and gain success in their harsh life. She expressed her opinion at length below

“The idea in Finland is the equal right to everybody and equal right to education and equal opportunities for everybody. There is not barely inbuilt competition in our system, some of the students are not pushed by their inner need or motivation to do well because their already things fairly well in their life. Whereas in Asia, [...], I felt like in the schools in the villages and in the cities, some of the students, even if the teachers were doing poorly, not the most professional, some of the students were extremely motivated and eager to learn and also be pushed not only by their parents but also their inner motivation and burned to learn. Because they felt like if they did well and they achieve well, that would be a means out of poverty, do better in life than their parents.” (F1)

She said that Finland gives students almost everything they need for their studies such as free of charge books, lunch, high-quality learning materials (iPads) and good learning environment. The society promotes equal right for everyone to education and no competition in the system. In the meanwhile, students in the
Asian country cannot go to school or might have to walk for an hour to get to school.

“I think so sometimes in Finland, I do not think the students realize how well off they are and how fantastic their learning environment is. And all the things that they get are free from schools and the government [...]. Sometimes I felt like I do struggle and found it difficult here in Finland to make them understand how well off they are and what opportunities they are given just because they are able to go to school for free and I find myself sometimes feeling ashamed, sometimes even I find feeling anger because I hear them complain about things that are so minor compared to what other children have, some children cannot go to school, or they might have to walk for an hour to go to school.” (F1)

**Teacher and student relationship:** F2 had difficulty in forming a relationship with some students.

“The problem with those boys in fifth grade is even I tried to kind of form a relationship there, I cannot really find a way because they have been so tough. So, getting to know them is really difficult. They are like ice somehow.” (F2)

**Personal and family matters:** In addition to age, behaviours, relationship, personal and family matters are also visible and difficult problems at school. What F1 mentioned is “challenges from outside of school, related to the family, or their relationship within their immediate families such as unemployment, a divorce or a crisis”. Children carry them into the classroom, and that reflect their ability to learn, to concentrate and to receive feedback. No matter how positive the teacher tries to be in their feedback, they only hear the negative, rather than the positive.

### 6.3 Motivational Strategies as a whole

Figure 12 provides an overall visual comparable picture of motivational strategy dimensions of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers combined with difficulties and challenges that teachers have in their teaching. The four components are in dynamic interaction with each other. Factors inside red circles are difficulties having a negative effect on the motivational teaching practices. As we can see, same themes appeared for Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers in each dimension but some subthemes were different. Only the most distinctive differences (sub-themes and themes) in motivational teaching practice are shown in figure 12. Pedagogical insights of teachers in Vietnam and Finland will be discussed in more detail in the Discussion section.
As we can see from figure 12, major differences about motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers are revealed. Detailed differences in each sub-theme were described carefully in the Result section. In general, Vietnamese and Finnish teachers’ motivational strategies in the first, second and fourth phase were quite similar. However, the most outstanding differences appeared from the third phase; maintaining and protecting motivation. While all Vietnamese teachers emphasized the importance of breaking old teaching method, Finnish participants did not mention it at all. In addition, Finnish teachers offered flexible testing for their students to increase learners’ self-confidence (theme 7), while Vietnamese teachers tried to avoid social competition among students. Learner self-assessment was also a sub-theme just belong to a Finnish teacher to promote learner autonomy (theme 9). Especially, there are two separate themes shared teaching responsibility and increasing learner goal-orientedness that belong to the Finnish teachers only. Differences in motivational strategies are also discussed further in the interpretation of findings and discussion section with pedagogical implications referred to those differences.
7 DISCUSSION

7.1 Summary of results

In general, Vietnamese and Finnish teachers’ motivational strategies cover four stages of Dörnyei’s motivational strategy dimensions, these are creating the basic motivation, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation and encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. As discussed above, maintaining and protecting motivation appeared the most different sub-themes and themes which just belong to Vietnamese or Finnish teachers only. Those sub-themes and themes just belong to Finnish teachers were flexible testing, learner self-assessment, increasing learners’ goal-orientedness (theme 5), and shared teaching responsibly (theme 10). They also reflect the Finnish teaching ways and the educational system which emphasizes individual learning and culture of trust. Breaking old teaching method and avoid social competition were two sub-themes described by Vietnamese teachers only. These also reflect the difficulties of Vietnamese teachers in motivating their students.

All themes came up from the data in this study were covered by Dörnyei (2001)'s motivational strategies, except theme 10 (shared teaching responsibility). Only Finnish teachers talked about shared teaching responsibility which is also a feature of Finnish educational system: subject teachers, class teachers and special education teachers cooperate in their teaching. The findings in this thesis are also discussed in relation to other studies done on motivating EFL learners in Finland and Vietnam. Similar to the findings of Sillanpää (2012)'s study, Vietnamese and Finnish participants were well aware of the importance of motivation and motivational strategies in foreign language learning. They also applied variety of motivational strategies in their teaching practice. Vietnamese and Finnish teachers proved the important connections of student motivation with task motivation which was discussed by Julkunen (2001). ‘Providing task appropriateness’ was mentioned both by Vietnamese and Finnish teachers to generate
student initial motivation. Motivational strategies of Vietnamese teachers (such as extrinsic motivation, instrumental values, teacher and parent relationship, teacher and student relationship, increasing learners’ expectancy of success) emerged from this thesis also closely connect with some of the findings of previous Vietnamese studies (Tran, 2007; Phan, 2011; Ngo, Spooner-Lane, & Mergler, 2017).

Moreover, the study examined the cross-culture application of motivational techniques. The results showed that most of the strategies can be applied to the two contexts. Relating to the findings of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007), all five motivational strategies (motivating teacher behaviour, promoting learners’ self-confidence, creating a pleasant classroom atmosphere and present tasks properly) that Cheng and Dörnyei found universally applied in their research were also transferable across Vietnamese and Finnish contexts in this study. However, due to cultural differences, the teacher and student relationships were described more traditional and formal in the Vietnamese context, which could cause obstacles for Vietnamese teachers in building a relationship with their students. Furthermore, ‘promoting learner autonomy’ in this study was considered significantly important by both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers, whereas it was considered unimportant by Taiwanese teachers in the research of Cheng and Dörnyei (2007).

7.2 From Motivational Strategies to Pedagogical Implications

The way teachers teach, work and behave with students both influenced by themselves and the education they come from. Both Vietnamese and Finnish teachers try their best and use various motivational strategies to motivate their students, which was discussed before. In the end, motivational strategies not only reflect teachers’ personality and their pedagogy but also imply the pedagogical principles of their educational system. Therefore, what we have after investigating, comparing, and contrasting motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers in this study is pedagogical principles of the two contexts. These
will be discussed and explained thoroughly from findings of the research combining the author’s own understanding and experience.

### 7.2.1 Teaching methods and language learning

A traditional English language education focusing grammar and vocabulary, teaching skills separately, treating English as a separate subject and focusing on tests have resulted in several difficulties for students and teachers. Vietnamese students faced pressure from standardized tests and grades. Since English is considered an important subject in the university entrance exam in Vietnam, teaching and learning English for the test in public education makes learning become difficult and stressful for both teachers and students. Therefore, Vietnamese teachers called for “using English when studying it”, “communicative activities” and “practical learning, not learning for testing”. The most important for learners is that they can understand English by listening, speaking and communicating in real life or in their work. A good metaphor for foreign language learning is comparing them to wearing sunglasses. Sunglasses are just able to fulfil their job at most when they are worn outside with the presence of sunlight. Similarly, learning a language is just effective when they can be used in the interaction, communication and mutual understanding with people in different socially real contexts. Dufva and Salo (2009, p. 254) emphasized that language learning does not just focus on social interaction but also the socio-cognitive involvement of individuals. Therefore, it is important to consider how the languages are positioned in the social field of legislation and policy making, in various institutional documents such as language curricula, and how they are conceived by people in their everyday life. The job of an English teacher is to foster the socio-cognitive process in learners’ studying and social to connect the language with learners’ reality and help them make sense of it.

Vietnamese students generally are good at English grammar and vocabulary, but they are not good at pronunciation, speaking, listening or especially communication and interaction. It is a consequence of the traditional grammar-translation teaching method which is dominant in public schools. In other words, students could produce sentences accurately in a lesson, but could not use them
appropriately when communicating outside of the classroom. Therefore, V1 stressed his wish to organize “communicative activities or extracurricular lessons” and integrate English teaching with other subjects’ rather than solely teaching English for standardized tests and the national curriculum.

7.2.2 Individual Learning

Another problem for language teaching in Vietnamese educational system is individual learning is not emphasized and utilized. Even each lesson is a different lesson for every learner. Allwright and Hanks (2009) also emphasize that we can expect learners to develop best if they are treated as unique and idiosyncratic, not as an undifferentiated mass. In order to do that, teachers need to respect their “unique individuality” (p. 5). The main point is teachers, students and parents should keep in mind that differentiation is not a punishment. With high expectation and the fear of losing face (because of Eastern culture and philosophy), parents and students can think differentiation (for learning difficulties) means the student is less intelligent than others. Teachers are the ones who help to guarantee goal-directed learning for each pupil, according to the individual learning plan to make sure the educational equality. They are the ones who organize the school curriculum and resources for flexible grouping and personalized learning.

In the study, Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers talked intensively about individual learning and personal goal-orientedness for students. They considered individual teaching as an important part of their teaching. Individual learning according to learner age, level, goal, and interest, was mentioned in detail by the teachers. Choosing activities and content that are not only appropriate for students’ age, level, interest, and goal, providing suitable activities and tasks for students’ age and interest are important to encourage students to learn and make use the language.

7.2.3 Shared teaching responsibility

While Vietnamese teachers mostly work alone in their classrooms under supervision and monitor of school and government, Finnish teachers work together with special education teachers. Special education teachers deal with special
need students and learning difficulties. The special education system was brought to Finland’s comprehensive school reform in the 1970s. From a separate system, special education had been brought closer to regular education. With the support of special education teachers, students can get special education support immediately when any difficulties arise at school, and both the intensity and duration of the support can vary according to individual needs (Savolainen, 2009). Co-teaching between subject teachers and special education teachers aims to bring the most effective lessons for students and students with difficulties. In Vietnam, there are not special education teachers in regular schooling, they are just in special schools for special students. Therefore, learning difficulties have been not supported at the right time and right way.

7.2.4 Culture of trust, no outside pressure

While Vietnamese EFL teachers have been monitored and guided by textbooks, national curriculum, schools, and government with a strict hierarchical system, Finnish teachers work in a trust-based school culture. Sahlberg (2012, p. 100) states that the Finnish education system was highly centralized until the early 1990s. Schools were strictly regulated by the central agencies; a dense network of rules and orders governed the daily work of teachers. These descriptions are similar to what has happened in Vietnam. Then, the gradual shift towards trusting schools and teachers began in the late 1980s. In the early 1990s, the era of a trust-based school culture formally started in Finland. The culture of trust means that teachers, together with principals, parents and their communities, know how to provide the best possible education for their children and youth without a strict and rigid monitor and supervision. Trust can only flourish in an environment that is built on honesty, confidence, professionalism and good governance. Honesty and trust are often seen as among the most basic values and the building blocks of Finnish society. Public institutions generally enjoy high public trust in Finland. Trusting schools and teachers is a consequence of a well-functioning civil society and high social capital. From this Finnish lesson, Vietnam education system has a long way to go.
7.3 Limitations of the study

The first limitation of the study is there were no students involved in the research. Personally, I think there is a need to have students as participants in the study to check the correlation and effectiveness of learning in accordance with motivational strategies of teachers. Observation and interview together will give richer data for the study. The limitation without student interview or classroom observation was because of my language barrier that I could not speak Finnish with Finnish students to interview them or observe their English classes. The language barrier also caused me difficulty during my interviews with participants, especially with Finnish teachers whom I could only communicate with in English. The second limitation is the sample size was quite small, just six participants which may not bring the overall picture of motivational strategies in EFL classrooms in the two contexts. The last limitation could lie in the research method, interview. This study’s data was dependent completely on face-to-face teacher interview data, no other data from observation or student interview. The face-to-face interview can be more open to bias than other research methods when participants may discourage to express certain opinions about sensitive topics, or they seek to impress interviewer sometimes.

7.4 Future direction

Future application of research can be a comparative study in different educational or cultural contexts. The motivational strategies can be examined with a certain student age group or educational levels. In future studies, I would like to see motivational strategy research with the combination of more research methods such as student interviews or classroom observations to check effectiveness and insight picture of motivation in language teaching and learning. The recommendation can give more space for students’ voice in their learning which did not happen in the current study.
CONCLUSION

The comparative research explored motivational strategies used by Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers as well as difficulties teachers faced in motivating students. There were similarities and differences in motivational strategies of Vietnamese and Finnish teachers. Teachers created the basic motivational conditions, generated initial motivation, maintained and protected motivation and encouraged positive restrospective self-evaluation. These motivational strategy phases are concordant with Dörnyei’s motivational strategies in the literature review. Teachers proposed appropriate teacher behaviours, pleasant classroom atmosphere, promoting language-related values, increasing learners’ expectancy of success, making learning stimulating and enjoyable, increasing learners’ self-confidence, setting specific learning, promoting learner autonomy, offering rewards and grades, giving feedback and evaluation to the students.

However, the way Vietnamese and Finnish teachers motivated their students in each motivational strategy were not identical. It cannot conclude the generalization about Vietnamese and Finnish education through the research of motivational strategies. Nevertheless, the differences in motivational strategies also reflected the differences of education system in general and foreign language education in particular in the two contexts. The variations of language history, culture, society and educational philosophy influence teaching experience in English classrooms and difficulties of teachers in the Vietnamese and Finnish contexts.

The thesis has given me better understanding of motivational strategies applied in foreign language education across Vietnamese and Finnish contexts. The research hopes to contribute to the motivation study in the EFL context in Vietnam and Finland. The comparative analysis throughout the study give broader understanding of motivational strategies, teaching experience and challenges for EFL teachers in the two contexts. With the contextual findings, EFL teachers can also take the study as references and experiments for their teaching practice.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Interview Questions:

The use of motivational strategies in EFL classrooms: A comparative study of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers

Interviewee’s years of teaching:______
Types of schools:_______

1. How do you like your job as an English teacher?

2. What motivated you to pursue your teaching job?

3. As we know, language learning is not an easy process, how can you encourage your students to learn English? Do you find it difficult to encourage your students to learn English?

4. Which teaching methods, teaching styles or your own ways do you use in the classroom to make students more interested in English?

5. Besides what you do in the classrooms to motivate students, how about outside classrooms?

6. In your opinion, what are the most effective ways you use to engage your students?

7. What do you feel about the effectiveness of these ways? Do your students like them?

8. What has been most challenging about motivating or engaging your students in and outside the class?

9. Have you ever “change” or “help” a student who does not like to study English become a student like to learn English?

10. Can you provide an example/story where your motivational strategies have played a positive or negative role, in your teaching career?
Appendix 2 Consent Form

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Huyen Nguyen, a Master’s degree student in Education at the University of Jyväskylä, Finland. Currently, I am conducting a research about the use of motivational strategies in EFL classrooms: A comparative study of Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers. The purpose of this research is to collect data for my Master’s thesis. My research requires me to conduct the individual interviews with Vietnamese and Finnish EFL teachers.

An interview will last around 40 minutes. I will consult you beforehand if you allow me to record the interview. I assure you that your answers are used only for research purpose and your name will remain anonymous in this study.

I kindly ask that you give your permission to use the interview in my research by signing the form below. You can withdraw from the research any time you want.

Your participation is highly appreciated. Thank you so much for your participation!

Sincerely,

Huyen Nguyen

thmalehu@student.jyu.fi

Department of Education

University of Jyväskylä

I have been informed of the purpose and content of the research and the use of its research materials. I can withdraw from the research or refuse to participate in the study anytime. I give my consent that my interview will be audio recorded and that the interview the data will be used in confidence so that my identity will be known only to the researcher.

____________________

Name

Date and Place