EXPLORING THE ISSUE OF EFL STUDENT MOTIVATION IN RURAL AND URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BENIN

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Abstract
Learning a new language is much more difficult than acquiring it directly from an environment in which it is spoken. For that reason, language learners need to be highly motivated for the learning process to proceed smoothly. This study is a comparative analysis of motivation strategies used in a rural secondary school and in an urban secondary school. It has been designed to identify motivation strategies used by EFL teachers and to compare and contrast strategies used in rural and urban secondary schools. To this end, a questionnaire was a sample of 23 EFL teachers in both schools during their weekly professional development meeting to sound them out on their motivational practices. The investigations revealed that, to motivate their learners, respondents develop self-confidence in their learners, introduce their lessons with warming-up activities, present objectives at the beginning of each lesson, praise learners when they give a good answer and prevent other learners from laughing at a student who gives a wrong answer to create a safe environment in their classrooms. Finally, there is no significance difference between motivation strategies used in both schools.

Résumé
Il est plus difficile d’apprendre une langue que de l’acquérir directement dans le milieu où elle est parée. C’est pour cette raison que les apprenants d’une langue doivent être très motivés pour le processus d’apprentissage puisse se dérouler sans problème. La présente étude est une analyse comparative des stratégies de motivation utilisées dans un établissement d’enseignement secondaire rural et un établissement d’enseignement secondaire urbain. Elle a été conçue pour identifier les stratégies de motivation utilisées dans les deux types d’établissement et pour comparer les stratégies utilisées en milieu rural avec celle utilisées en milieu urbain. A cet effet, un questionnaire a été administré à un échantillon de 23 enseignants d’anglais langue étrangère dans les deux établissements au cours de leur animation pédagogique hebdomadaire. Les investigations ont montré que, pour motiver leurs apprenants, les répondants développent la confiance en soi chez les apprenants, démarrent leurs cours par des activités de mise en condition, présentent les objectifs au début de chaque cours, encouragent les apprenants qui donnent de bonnes réponses et interdisent aux autres apprenants de se moquer d’un apprenant qui donne une mauvaise réponse, en vue de créer un environnement sécurisant dans leurs classes. Pour terminer, il n’y a pas de différence significative entre les stratégies de motivation utilisées dans les deux écoles.

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Introduction

More and more, EFL teachers complain about students’ lack of interest in their subject. This lack of interest is so pronounced that, in senior secondary school, students in literary majors choose Spanish or German as their first language. During their first days at secondary school, students are very eager to learn the English language which is new to them. However, with time, the eagerness dwindles to the extent of disappearing in some cases. In other words, the level of motivation to learn the language decreases considerably over time.

The decrease in motivation is possibly due to teachers’ attitude towards their learners. Most of the time, they do not handle error correction in an appropriate way. In order to save time, they frequently call on the strong students to answer their questions and ignore the weakest. Sometimes, when students misbehave or make errors, the teachers shout at them, which creates anxiety in the learners and an unsafe classroom atmosphere. According to Dörnyei, (2005), “teachers and students commonly use motivation to explain what causes success or failure in learning” (p. 55). In other words, teachers and learners are the two key players in motivation. For that reason, since teachers are the initiators of the teaching act, if they are not motivated, there is no way in which they can motivate their learners.

In view of the foregoing, what could be the contribution of this study to the resolution of motivation problems in Beninese secondary schools?

Motivation is pervasive in all human activities. This study, however, focuses on motivation in EFL classes inasmuch as without motivation, it is extremely difficult or even impossible to learn a foreign language. The study explores the key motivation parameters (error correction, teacher-learner rapport, presentation of objectives at the beginning of each lesson) that come into play in rural as well as in urban secondary school EFL classes. Aware of the problems related to these parameters, teachers will be in a better position to motivate their learners so that the latter can develop “an internalized thirst of knowledge and experience” (Brown, 2007, p. 99). In other words, teachers could to help their learners to develop their intrinsic motivation by instilling in them a strong desire to acquire knowledge.

Furthermore, the findings of this study as well as the expanded literature review on the theory and practice of motivation that come with it are likely to enable teacher advisors and inspectors to design training sessions on the parameters that are difficult for teachers to handle in the classroom. Given its potential to contribute to the improvement of motivational practices in EFL classes, the study sets out to (1) determine the strategies used by EFL teachers to motivate their learners and (2) compare and contrast strategies used by EFL teachers in urban and rural areas. In a nutshell, the study is intended to address the following research questions:

- What are the strategies used by EFL teachers to motivate their learners?
What are the similarities and differences between motivation strategies used by EFL teachers in urban areas and rural areas?

It has been stated earlier that teachers and learners are the main stakeholders of motivation in the classroom. However, this research work focuses on EFL teachers because they play the most important role and it covers two secondary schools, one in a rural area and one in an urban area.

1. Literature Review and Theoretical Preliminaries

This section focuses on motivation and language learning, the types of motivation, motivation theories, and the effect of social factors on motivation.

1.1. Motivation and Language Teaching/Learning

Motivation is the driving force behind any human action. According to Gorman (2004), when a director requests an actor act in a given way, the actor may want to know why he or she is to do so because awareness of the reason for performing an action is essential for proper performance of the action. Likewise, students need to know the reason why they are learning English in order to devote themselves to the learning of the language. For Gardner (1985), language learning is possible only on three conditions: the learner’s level of motivation is high, the learner has a strong desire to learn the language, and the learner’s attitude towards the language learning is positive.

The learning situation equally plays a critical role in motivation. In the words of Koran (2014), “the learning situation refers to the factors such as the teacher, teachers’ personality, teaching methods, classroom environment.” (p. 46). The teacher’s personality tremendously affects the learners. Teachers who get angry easily and constantly shout at learners are likely to create a tense classroom atmosphere in which learners do not feel safe. On the other hand, shy teachers have a hard time controlling their learners and the troublesome ones often create disorder in the classroom. Obviously, learners in tense and disorderly classroom cannot be motivated. The teaching methods also matter. Learners in a classroom have different learning styles and for that reason, teachers need to vary their teaching methods in order to cater for the various learning styles one can come across in a classroom.

1.2. Types of Motivation

For several decades, research on motivation in the field of second language acquisition has been strongly influenced by the work of Robert Gardner and his associates (Gardner, 1985; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner and Macintyre, 1991, 1993; Gardner and Tremblay 1994). Their work concentrated on four main types of
motivation that are explored in this section: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

The concept of ‘integrative motivation’ was first used by Gardner (1985) but it has been embraced by many linguists. According to Brown (2007), “integrative motivation is the desire to learn a language stemming from a position affect toward a community of its speakers” (p. 88). In this case, the desire to learn the language comes from positive feelings toward the group that speaks that language. For Özütürk and Hürsen (2013, p. 8), “integrative motivation refers to the desire to learn a language in order to communicate with people of another culture who speaks it”. In this second case, language learning is driven by the need to communicate with the speakers of that language. In both cases there is a desire to learn the language and once the language is learnt and communication becomes possible, integration necessarily follows.

However, researchers like Yashima (2002) believe that the concept of integrative motivation is outmoded, at least, in the Japanese context. For her, students learning English in Japan are motivated to learn the language not because of the desire to integrate or identify with an English-speaking community like the United States of America but because they want to play a role in international affairs.

Apart from integrative motivation, instrumental motivation plays a pivotal role in EFL learning. According to Brown (2007, p. 88) “Instrumental motivation is the desire to learn a language in order to attain certain career, educational or financial goals”. For Özütürk & Hürsen (2013, p. 8), “Instrumental motivation refers to a desire to learn a language because it would fulfill certain utilitarian goals like getting a job or passing an examination.” The two definitions emphasize the utilitarian nature of motivation. In fact, people learn a language in order to get a reward such as a good job, passing an examination, becoming a member of an organization or getting a promotion. A close analysis enables to determine that integrative motivation is not too different from extrinsic motivation.

Extrinsic motivation comes from outside the individual. For Fen and Kiat (2015), “Learners are extrinsically motivated when learning is done for the sake of rewards such as grades or praises that are not inherently associated with the learning itself, that’s when learning or performing well becomes necessary to earning those rewards”. Contrary to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation is driven by the fact that the language learner expects to get an external benefit such as admission into a prestigious university from the learning of the language. In a nutshell, extrinsic motivation comes from outside not from within. In the words of Brown (2007), extrinsically motivated behaviors are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self: typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades and even certain types of positive feedback.
Furthermore, Dörnyei (2010) has been more specific about extrinsic motivation. He stated that extrinsic motivation “involves performing a behavior as a means to an end, i.e. to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment.” Dörnyei (2010, p. 434). In this case, the first source of motivation mentioned is the achievement of an objective in terms of recompense. Secondly, people might put all their energy in learning a language in order to avoid the disgrace or punishment that might result from the absence of learning.

In some cases, motivation comes from within the individual that is learning the language. This is what is called intrinsic motivation. According to Dörnyei (2010), intrinsic motivation is about an action performed for its own sake, for pleasure or out of curiosity. For Dörnyei, an intrinsically motivated action is an action perform for pleasure or curiosity without any external influence. In the specific case of language learning, Fen and Kiat (2015) are of the opinion that intrinsic motivation is “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.” (p. 98) People learn the language for their own pleasure not because they want to do something specific with it. However, in this twenty-first century, it is quite difficult to find people who learn English for the sake of doing so given the growing important of that language in business and international affairs in general.

1.3. Motivation Theories

A number of theories underlie the study of motivation and without those theories, it is difficult to understand what motivation is all about. Such theories include but are not limited to the hierarchy of needs theory, Dörnyei’s motivational framework and the self-control theory.

One of the most widely cited theories of motivation was developed by Abraham Maslow (1970) who described a system of needs that propels human beings to higher and higher attainment. Richards and Schmidt (2010) listed the five levels of needs from the basic to the highest as follows: physiological, safety and security, belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualization (p. 390). Brown (2007, p. 74) went further to indicate the content of each level: physiological (air, water, food, rest, exercise), safety and security (safety, security, protection, freedom from fear), belongingness and love (love, belongingness, affection), esteem (strength, status), self-actualization (self-actualization). The essence of the theory is that people need to meet their basic needs before thinking of the higher ones. Maslow’s classification of needs is best viewed as a pyramid of needs progressing from the satisfaction of purely physical needs up through safety and communal needs, to needs of esteem, and finally to “self-actualization”, a state of reaching your fullest potential. The English language learning must be somewhere in the hierarchy except at the bottom,
that is at the level of basic needs. The level at which English learning appears depends on the importance bestowed on it by the person learning it.

Apart from the hierarchy of needs theory advocated by Maslow (1970), Dörnyei (2001, p. 101) developed a framework or theory referred to as motivational teaching practice that is very explicit but at the same time, it shows the complexity of the issue of motivation in the language classroom as illustrated in Figure 1 below. It breaks down the motivational process into interrelated stages: creating the basic motivational conditions, generating initial motivation, maintaining and protecting motivation, and encouraging positive retrospective feedback. This theory shows that some conditions must be met before motivation can be generated and once it is generated, the teacher needs to ensure that it does not fade away by fostering peer feedback in the classroom.

Figure 1: Components of a motivational L2 teaching practice
(Source: Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 524)

On the other hand, the self-control theory advocated by scholars such as Hunt (1971) is based on the idea that people should be free to think, do or feel what they want. In
the language classroom, when learners have the opportunity to make choices on what to learn, they feel more motivated. This theory is in line with the competency-based approach which supports the idea that learners need to be involved in curriculum development (Auerbach, 1986; Iwikotan, 2016).

After this brief overview of the relevant literature, the methodology used to conduct the study is presented below.

2. Methods and Procedures

In order to address the research questions in the most appropriate way, the study uses a mixed methods design and a questionnaire was administered to 8 teachers in a rural secondary school and 15 teachers in an urban secondary school, both located in the South of Benin. It is a 13-item questionnaire designed to collect demographic data on the respondents, and data related to motivation parameters such as self-confidence development in learners, error correction strategies, teacher learner rapport, and error correction.

With regard to data collection procedures, it should be noted that the researchers took advantage of the EFL teachers’ weekly professional development meeting to administer the questionnaire. While in the urban secondary school, the respondents accepted to fill out the questionnaire and return it on the same day, the situation was different in the rural secondary school. The questionnaire was administered during the weekly development meeting but the respondents promised to return it during the next meeting. When the researchers went back, only five questionnaires were returned and they had to make follow-up calls to get the remaining three ones back.

In terms of data analysis, MS Excel was used to analyze the quantitative data and it enabled to generate percentages and graphs. The qualitative data were analyzed on the basis of the framework (Figure 2 below) suggested by Biggam (2008). It is true that no interview was conducted in the study. It is rather a questionnaire that was administered but the questionnaire was designed bearing in mind possible themes (key motivation parameters) that the researchers came up with after the literature review. As a consequence, the analysis consisted in determining the commonalities and differences of these themes across respondents and schools.
3. Findings of the Study
3.1. Strategies Used by EFL Teachers to Motivate their Learners

The findings presented here are about the respondents’ teaching experience, the motivation strategies used and how these strategies vary from one school to the other.

3.1.1. Teaching Experience and Commitment to the Teaching Profession

In this section, we look into the respondents’ teaching experience and the extent to which they are ready to stick to the teaching profession.
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Table 1: Teaching experiences at the urban secondary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years in teaching</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that almost half (47.05%) of the respondents have been teaching English for six to ten years and only 17.64% have been teaching for more than ten years. 32.29% have been teaching for less than or five years. These data indicate that most of the respondents are young in the teaching profession but the situation is different at the rural secondary school as shown in Table 3 below.

Table 2: Teaching experiences at the rural secondary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years in teaching</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that half (50%) of the respondents have been teaching English for eleven to fifteen years, while only (12.5%) have been teaching for five years and 37.5 have been teaching for six to ten years. These data indicate that most of the respondents are experienced teachers.

A comparison of the data in Table 2 and Table 3 shows that most of the teachers at the rural secondary school are more experienced than those at the urban secondary school.

With regard to whether or not teachers would stick to their teaching jobs if they find a better paid one, Tables 3 and 4 summarize the respondents’ opinions.
Table 3: Respondents’ commitment to the teaching profession at the urban secondary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Love of the teaching profession</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>70.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Respondents’ commitment to the teaching profession at the rural secondary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment to the teaching profession</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that 70.58% of respondents at the urban secondary school stated that they would leave their teaching job for a better-paid position, should that opportunity arise. On the other hand, 37.5% of respondents from the rural secondary school (as shown in Table 3) expressed the desire to leave their teaching position for a better one. These two percentages show that respondents in rural school are more enthusiastic about their teaching job than those in the urban school. The respondents in the rural school are more likely to transmit this enthusiasm to their learners, which will increase the latter’s level of motivation.

It is worthwhile to mention that there is more to motivation than teachers’ commitment to their teaching job.

3.1.2. Development of Self-confidence and Error Treatment

To develop self-confidence in their learners, respondents in the urban secondary school stated that they provide such learners with pieces of advice and sensitization as expressed in the following statements: “Through sensitization, I develop self-confidence in my learners”; “When I notice something wrong with a student, I call him or her after the course to know what is wrong and to help him or her”; “I also try to tell them stories of success”; “I give them a lot of advice”. Some respondents also mentioned that they behave as role models and maintain a learner-friendly classroom atmosphere, as it can be inferred from these statements: “the teacher has to be regular and studious, be a good example”; “Dressing, my way of dressing and conducting. I am proud of myself as a teacher...”; “I don’t laugh at them when they give wrong answers. I don’t allow their fellows to laugh at them or to make any bad comments”; “I motivate them by clapping for them”.
On the other hand, EFL teachers in the rural secondary school stated that they maintain a participatory classroom atmosphere: “The teacher allows students to ask any question which can help them to understand more”; “The teacher makes [the learners] try every activity first, then they correct it as a class, she/he makes them feel able to challenge every activity themselves”; “He/she uses to improve his teaching by helping or obliging them to do research, tell them not to be afraid when they make mistakes”. Other respondents declared that they serve as role models through their integrity: “The teacher tries to be honest”; “He/she tries to practice love, justice”.

As it appears from the above two sets of comments, strategies used to develop self-confidence in the learners differ from one school to the other. While respondents in the urban school establish a learner-friendly classroom atmosphere, those in the rural school create a participatory atmosphere which enables them to involve students fully in the teaching/learning process. In both schools, the respondents also believe that acting as role models can boost learners’ self-confidence.

Furthermore, 64.7% of the respondents in the urban school and 62.5% of respondents in the rural school reported that they always correct their learners’ errors whereas the 32.29% and 37.5% in the urban and rural schools respectively adopt a different behavior. But what are the reasons behind those different behaviors?

Respondents in the urban secondary school always correct their learners’ errors mainly to avoid fossilization as one can notice through the following statements: “I choose yes because it is always better to correct mistakes when necessary in order to avoid repetition in errors”; “I always correct my students’ errors in order to make them knowing (sic) what is good or bad concerning the language”; “It is merely because students are learners and the teacher is a guide. So it is compulsory for the teacher to correct his/her student error showing him the best way”. Some respondents do not always correct their learners’ errors in order to encourage fluency, avoid disturbing students and “because errors are part of the learning process in CBA”.

In the rural school, respondents always correct their learners’ errors in order to improve their learners’ knowledge as revealed in the following statements: “My correction will help them better knowledge”; “I help them improve their knowledge”. Those who do not always correct learners’ errors want to encourage them to take risks and to avoid making them unhappy.

A comparative analysis of the data reveals that more than 60% of the respondents in both rural and urban schools always correct their learners’ errors. This percentage is very high and a cause for concern because in the communicative language teaching approach in use in Benin, errors are to be viewed as part and parcel of the teaching-learning process and as such systematic correction is to be avoided at all costs.
A closer look at the data also reveals that the findings here are in contradiction with findings in the previous item on the development of self-confidence in learners where the respondents stated that they are tolerant of learners’ errors in order to establish a learner-friendly classroom. If this were truly the case, such a large percentage of the respondents would not report that they always correct their learners’ errors.

3.1.3. Teacher-learner Rapport

Here, the teacher-learner rapport has been examined through the atmosphere the respondents create in their classrooms and their interactions with the learners during the lessons.

The atmosphere the respondents create in their classrooms can have a significant impact on the teaching-learning process as it is highly correlated with the way the respondents behave. Figure 3 and Figure 4 describe how the respondents behave with their learners in both schools.

![Figure 3: Teacher-learner relationship at the urban secondary school](image)

In Figure 3, 29.41% of the respondents joke with their learners from time to time, 11.76% are always serious when they teach their lessons, and 58.82% mix jokes and seriousness as appropriate.
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Figure 4: Teacher-learner relationship at the rural secondary school

On the other hand, Figure 7 shows that 12.5% of the respondents joke with their learners from time to time; 25% are always serious when they teach their lessons and 62.5% mix jokes and seriousness as appropriate.

Table 5: Comparative analysis of teacher-learner relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Urban secondary school</th>
<th>Rural secondary school</th>
<th>Gaps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-learner relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>joking from time to time</td>
<td>29.41%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>16.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always serious</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>13.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixture of joke and seriousness</td>
<td>58.82%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>3.68%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicates that teachers in the urban secondary school tend to joke more with their learners than teachers in the rural secondary school. On the contrary, teachers in the rural school seem to be more serious with their learners than those in the urban school. But what is noticeable is that teachers in both schools are aware of the need to mix joking and seriousness in the classroom to create an atmosphere that is neither too tense nor too relaxed for learning.
3.1.4. Lesson Introduction and Feedback Management

In the teaching-learning process, the way teachers begin their lessons plays a critical role because it can create a momentum that will be kept until the end of the lesson. All the respondents in both schools reported that they start their lessons with warming-up activities. Activities performed in the urban school include singing and responding to orders such as “stand up” and “sit down”. On the other hand, activities performed in the rural secondary school are singing, storytelling and tongue twisters. More specifically, ideas put forward by the respondents are summarized in the following statements: “a song or a short story dealing with the theme of the course”; “Songs, games, tongue twisters, asking yes or no question, giving funny orders etc…”; “Singing, Simon says game, slogans, sit down, stand up etc.”. Games such as tongue twisters, Simon says, slogans are very important for learners because not only they have fun but they also learn. Most importantly, telling stories that deal with the lesson topic gives learners the opportunity to have fun and to get information about the lesson of the day.

Briefly, respondents in the urban secondary school as well as those in the rural secondary school conduct warming-up activities at the beginning of their lessons even though those in the rural school are more specific about the types of activities conducted. After the warming-up activities, teachers also need to state their objectives at the beginning of each lesson.

Most of the respondents (70.58%) in the urban secondary school reported that they present lesson objectives at the beginning of their lessons whereas the remaining ones do not. For those respondents, it is important to explain the objectives for the following reasons: “It’s very important for students to know why they are learning a lesson right at the beginning”; “Because it is always important to remind them of the direction or the target of the learning situation”; “Students should know the objectives the lesson so that they will know where they are going and conclude the end of the lesson if the objectives are reached or not”. In the opinions of these respondents, explaining the objectives of the lesson gives a sense of direction to the learners.

In the rural school, 62.5% of the respondents explain the objectives of their lessons for a number of reasons: “If they know the objectives, it will motivate them better”; “When they know the importance of the lesson, they are more interested”; “It allow them to know their expectations and at the end if they are reached (the
expectations). It is worth pointing out that these respondents are aware of the influence of the presentation of objectives on student motivation.

In general, most of the respondents recognize the importance of explaining the objectives of lessons at the beginning. The respondents in the rural school established a clear link between the explanation of objectives and student motivation, which was not the case with respondents in the urban school. Besides, some of the respondents in the rural as well as urban school believed that there is no need to explain objectives to learners without giving any tangible reasons to buttress their viewpoints.

Even though it is motivating for learners to know what the teacher is going to teach them, maintaining the motivation depends on how teachers react when a learner gives a good or bad answer. Figures 14 and 15 below show how teachers in the urban as well as rural school behave in that respect.

![Figure 5: Teachers’ behaviors’ towards learners’ good or bad answers at the urban school](image)

Figure 5 shows that 59% of the respondents praise their learners when they give a good answer, 35% give them gift while 5.88% do nothing. These data indicate that most of the respondents are aware of the need to provide a positive feedback when a learner gives a good answer to a question in the classroom.
Figure 6: Teachers’ behaviors’ towards learners’ good or bad answers at the rural school

Figure 6 shows that all the respondents praise their learners when they give a good answer. This shows that the only way of motivating learners when they give a good answer in the rural school is by praising them, certainly because the teachers do not know any other way of motivating their learners.

What is noticeable is that in the urban school, respondents have many ways of encouraging their learners while in the rural school the only way of encouraging learners is by praising them. In the classroom, learners do not always give good answers. The way teachers handle wrong answers is a critical factor in student motivation.

In the rural secondary school, some respondents reported that, when a student gives a wrong answer, they choose another student to answer the question as it appears in the following: “I ask another proposal and praise for the right one” “I choose another student to give a better answer but I don’t let him kwn his answer is wrong” “I encourage him/her and say is it correct or wrong? Who can help him/her?” In the rural secondary school, when a student gives a wrong answer, respondents choose another student to give the right answer without focusing on the error in the first student’s answer.

In terms of wrong answers treatment, the situation in the urban school is slightly different from the one in the rural school. Respondents claimed that when a student gives a wrong answer, they choose another student to answer or they explain the
question again: “I explain my question again or I call another student”; “I try to make instructions clear again, I explain the question again”; “I give the opportunity to another person after the answer I can correct them”; “I ask another student to improve”. However, one respondent reported that “I first of all correct the student’s error. It’s true that there are sometimes I’m out in temper but I remember that I shouldn’t do so and encourage him”. What this statement reveals is that, sometimes, teachers get angry with students and treat them badly when they give wrong answers. This respondent is aware of the negative effects of anger on the teaching/learning process and is making conscious efforts to do away with it. What do all the aforementioned findings inspire in terms of motivation in EFL classes?

3.2. Discussion of the Findings

3.2.1. What are the strategies used by EFL teachers to motivate their learners?

Before looking into the motivation strategies used by the respondents, it is important to find out the level of motivation in those respondents. The findings revealed that a large percentage of teachers in the urban secondary school are ready to quit teaching if they get a better job. This shows that they are teaching because they have not yet found another job. For that reason, one can suspect that they do not devote themselves entirely to the task, as they are likely to display less enthusiasm in their classes, which may negatively affect learners’ perception about the subject.

The first motivational strategy used by the respondents is to develop self-confidence in their learners. To do so, they sensitize and advise their learners. In addition, they act as role models for their learners and maintain a learner-friendly classroom atmosphere by encouraging learners who give good answers while preventing other learners from laughing at a student who gives a wrong answer. By creating such a safe classroom atmosphere, the respondents increase learners’ motivation and reduce the level of anxiety in the learners because “Anxiety, self-confidence, and motivation are three factors often identified by researchers as issues holding back ELLs from speaking English” (Tuan and Mai, 2015, as cited in Ferlazzo and Sypnieski, 2018, p. 249).

Most of the respondents in the urban secondary school as well as in the rural one stated that they always correct their learners’ errors. They do so to avoid fossilization and to improve learners’ knowledge. The fact that such a large percentage of teachers claim that they always correct their learners’ errors is a cause for concern because learners are still learning and it is normal for them to make mistake. In communicative language teaching, errors are part and parcel of the teaching/learning process. About the treatment of learners’ wrong answers, some respondents prefer choosing another student to answer when a student gives a
wrong answer but others instead of choosing another student prefer clarifying the question for better understanding by the learners. This way of handling feedback has an impact on learners’ on motivation because instead of blaming the learners, the respondents think that the wrong answer may arise from the fact that the question was not clearly formulated.

Furthermore, as suggested by Lazaratan, (2014) when teachers decide to correct errors, they also need to decide on when to correct the error and who should correct it. The respondents correct their learners’ errors at different periods, some correct them immediately in case the errors are likely to disturb communication, others take note of the errors and correct them at the end of the lesson. It should be underscored that most of the respondents stated that they always correct their learners’ errors immediately after the learners make the errors. The predominance of this timing is also a cause for concern because it is likely to discourage the most enthusiastic learners who always raise their hands to take the floor. In addition, shy learners will not even dare raise their hands in such an atmosphere.

Teacher-learners’ rapport is also another important motivation parameter. The respondents have a good relationship with their learners because most of them (almost 60%) mix jokes and seriousness as appropriate. Besides, over 60% of the respondents stated that they are always enthusiastic and positive with their learners in their classrooms. According to Özütürk and Hütsen (2014), teachers’ behaviors are powerful motivation tools for their learners. As stated earlier, being positive and enthusiastic creates a positive atmosphere in the classroom as these behaviors are easily communicated to the learners. If the teachers show that they like what they are doing, learners are going to be interested in it.

3.2.2. What Are the Similarities and Differences between Motivation Strategies Used by EFL Teachers in the Urban and Rural Schools?

While some of the motivational strategies used by EFL teachers in the rural as well as urban secondary schools are almost the same, some differences are outstanding. For example, 70.58% of the respondents in the urban area stated that they would leave their teaching job for a better position, 62.5% of respondents in rural school reported that they are not ready to quit their teaching position for another job. It follows from these statements that the teachers in the rural school are more attached to their teaching jobs.

Concerning error correction, 64.70% and 62.5% of the respondents always correct their learners’ errors in the urban school and the rural school respectively. 35.29% and 37.5% of the respondents in the same schools do not always correct their learners’ errors, which implies that respondents in both schools have almost the same behavior towards error correction.
Furthermore, with regard to teacher-learner rapport, almost the same percentage of respondents mixes jokes and seriousness as appropriate in their classrooms in both schools. However, 11.76% of respondents in the urban school and 25% in the rural school never joke with students in their classroom. Such a behavior is not conducive for learning insofar as too much seriousness oftentimes creates a tense classroom atmosphere.

The definition of objectives is critical in a lesson plan as it enables to provide direction to a lesson. For that reason, it is important for learners to be aware of such objectives at the beginning of each lesson. The findings revealed that 70.58% of the respondents in the urban school and 62.5% in the rural school explain the objectives of their lessons to their learners before embarking on instructional activities. Presenting the objectives, especially at the beginning of the lesson, is a significant source of motivation because it enables the learners to have a clear idea of what they are going to learn.

Another difference noticed is about what teachers do when their learners give a good answer. In the urban school, there are very few teachers who do not do anything; some offer gifts to their learners and a large percentage praise them. But in the rural school, all the teachers just praise their learners. How the respondents praise their learners has not been specified but the level of learner motivation is likely to increase with variation in the positive feedback provided they give a good answer.

**Conclusion**

This research work has been conducted to determine the strategies used by EFL teachers to motivate their learners and to compare and contrast those strategies in urban and rural secondary schools. For this purpose, after exploring the literature about the topic, we administered a questionnaire to EFL teachers in the rural and urban secondary schools. The data collected reveal that in rural as well as in urban secondary schools investigated, teachers use several strategies to motivate their learners. They develop self-confidence in their learners by sensitizing them, giving them advice and behaving as role models. They also establish a good relationship with learners and create a learner-friendly classroom atmosphere to increase learners’ motivation and reduce anxiety. They equally mix jokes and seriousness as appropriate with their learners; at the beginning of each lesson, they explain the lesson objectives to their learners to allow them to know where they are going. During the lesson, if a learner gives a good answer, the teacher praises him/her or offers a small gift. Nevertheless, the findings show some differences in strategies teachers used to motivate their learners in rural and urban secondary schools.

The percentage of teachers who stated that they would leave their teaching job for a better position is higher in the urban secondary school than in the rural one. In the
urban secondary school when students provide a good answer, not only do the teachers praise them but they also offer them gifts from time to time whereas in the rural secondary school, the only thing the teachers do is to praise the learners. The findings presented in the study include mostly self-reported data. Therefore, further empirical investigation is needed in order to find out whether or not what has been reported about motivation is actually practiced in the classroom.

References


ANNEX

QUESTIONNAIRE TO EFL TEACHERS

This questionnaire is being administered to figure out how teachers are motivating students in EFL classes. It contains 13 items. There is no right or wrong answers and the questionnaire is anonymous, which means that your identity will never be revealed. Therefore, you are encouraged to give/select answers that reflect your true and honest opinion. Thank you very much.

1°) How long have you been teaching English?
   a°) 0-5 years □   b°) 6-10 years □
   c°) 11-15 years □   d°) over 15 years □

2°) Would you leave your teaching job for a better paid one?
   a°) Yes □   b°) No □

3°) What do you often do to develop self-confidence in your learners?
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4°) Do you always correct your student’s errors?
   a°) Yes □   b°) No □

   Explain your choice
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

5°) If you answer “yes” to the item 4, at what period do you correct the students errors?
   a°) Always immediately after students make errors □
   b°) You take note of the errors and correct them at the end of the lesson □
   c°) Immediately in case the errors are likely to disturb communication □
6°) How would you describe your relationship with your students?
   a°) You joke with them from time to time
   b°) You are always serious when you teach your lesson
   c°) You mix jokes and seriousness as appropriate

7°) Do you know all your students by their names?
   a°) Yes
   b°) No

8°) Do you often explain the objectives of your lessons to the students at the beginning of each lesson?
   a°) Yes
   b°) No

Explain your choice
..................................................................................................................................................
..................................................................................................................................................

9°) When you administer a quiz or a test,
   a°) You just assign marks
   b°) You provide feedback to show students what they did not understand
   c°) You always return students’ papers in time
   d°) It takes you at least two weeks to return students’ papers?

10°) Do you like starting your lessons with warming-up activities?
    a°) Yes
    b°) No

11°) What do you do when your students give a good answer?
    a°) You praise them
    b°) You offer them a gift
    c°) You do nothing
12°) How do you react when a student gives a wrong answer?

13°) Which of the following attributes describes you as a teacher?

a°) You are always enthusiastic and positive

b°) You teach your learners learning strategies

c°) Your lesson always includes some challenges

d°) You often ask your students to give feedback on their peers’ work