

# English Language Learner Motivation in the Digital Technology Classroom:

## A Case Study of a Vocational University in Indonesia

Baetty Baetty  
Michael Thomas

### ABSTRACT

*This chapter investigates learner motivation in an English as a foreign language writing classroom in an Indonesian university. Its originality arises from the fact that no substantive studies have explored learner motivation in the digital classroom in Indonesian higher education. A mixed methods data collection process was conducted involving 144 students from three year groups who responded to an online questionnaire. Two classes from Year 1 (47 students) were taken as a sample to observe the learning process between an existing group that was introduced to the learning of English writing through Edmodo. The other group used traditional materials for their writing tasks. The findings are significant in that the high levels of motivation reported by the students were not reflected in the way they completed their writing tasks as the use of technology affected their motivation in complex ways. In conclusion, the study encourages future research in Indonesia that measures English students' motivation and technology-mediated writing task performance through longitudinal studies.*

Keywords: computer-assisted language learning, CALL, Edmodo, English as a foreign language, task-based learning, TBLT, learning technology

### INTRODUCTION

Previous research has suggested that the Indonesian education curriculum is heavily dependent on teacher-centred and deductive approaches to learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and this has led to lower levels of learner motivation (Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011, 2016). Most research studies have focused on receptive skills (Araminta & Halimi, 2015; Pammu, Amir & Maasum, 2014) and this is because Indonesian students typically prioritise reading and listening over productive skills such as writing and speaking (Sukandi & Syafar, 2018). Although in the global context of EFL and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) there have been numerous studies of learner motivation (Hannibal Jensen,

2019; Ushioda, 2013), they have not explored the issue in Indonesian higher education in any substantive way. Nevertheless, several preliminary studies (Aulia, Yulastri & Sari, 2014; Aulia, Yulastri & Handayani, 2016; Yulastri, 2015a, 2015b; Yulastri, Aulia & Saptopramono, 2016) have indicated that combining the use of online platforms such as Edmodo alongside more learner-centred approaches may significantly improve students' motivation in classroom contexts. This claim warrants further investigation in this paper.

In order to address these gaps in the research on learner motivation and learning technologies in Indonesia, this chapter investigates language learner motivation in two technology-mediated classes with students at a vocational higher education institution in western Indonesia in which task-based language teaching (TBLT) was used as the main instructional approach. Following a review of the research literature on learner motivation and TBLT usage in the Asian context, the methodology describes the research framework of the study. Findings are then discussed in relation to Gardner's model of motivation. Finally, the limitations and implications of the study are explored, prior to identifying areas for future research in this area.

## **BACKGROUND**

### **Language Learner Motivation**

The reason behind a student choosing to learn a new language is a key motivational factor influencing the language learning process and many second language acquisition (SLA) studies over the past 40 years have examined motivation in and outside the language classroom (Dörnyei, 2001a, 2001b; Ellis, 2015; Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Gardner (1985) identified three key components in studies on motivation: motivational effort, the desire to learn the language, and learners' attitude towards learning the language. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) stressed the importance of persistence in this respect, i.e. the continuance of an action

in spite of difficulty and opposition. Nevertheless, while extensive research literature exists on motivation, it remains an abstract concept that is difficult to measure (Barba, Kennedy & Ainley, 2016; Crookes & Schmidt, 1989; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Gardner, 1985).

Motivation has been defined from a psychological perspective as (a) having purposes, intents, aims, goals and decisions (Young, 1961), (b) the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained (Schunk, Meece & Pintrich, 2008), and (c) the drive that pushes people to do activities with purpose (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Motivation can also be defined as a process (Schunk et al., 2008) that grows and changes over time. It is complex and non-deterministic because it is an abstract construct that deals with intentions rather than results.

### **Types of Motivation**

In an effort to define motivation several key types have been identified (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1980; Dörnyei, 2001a; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Smythe, 1981). In a seminal early study that still warrants attention, Young (1961) defined intrinsic motivation as the willingness to do or to learn something without expecting incentives for doing so. Extrinsic motivation was perceived as incentive-driven, whereas intrinsic motivation was more self-sustaining in orientation.

The categories of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are in many ways equivalent to the instrumental and integrative types of motivation used by Gardner and Lambert (1972) who defined integrated motivation as the ‘willingness’ to be liked and valued members of a language community. Instrumental motivation is a desire to learn a language to fulfil utilitarian goals such as the need to obtain a job or pass an examination.

Young’s definition of motivation as “purpose, intent, aim, goal, and decision” is a good starting point to understand what is going in the mind of a language learner (Young, 1961, p.6), though the five keywords that emerge from his research lack consideration of the ‘in-

between states' which may take place during the learning process. Young also drew a distinction between motives and habits. By developing good habits, students can reach their goals guided by teachers during the initial stages of language learning. This may gradually lead to independent learning as they establish greater motivation. If this is the case, any distinction between habits and motives is of little importance. Young's definition ignores the dynamic and process-oriented element of motivation. Likewise, the instrumental/extrinsic or integrative/intrinsic oppositions tend to ignore the fact that learning a new language might not solely be either instrumental or integrated but a combination of both in ways that are uniquely dependent on the learner and the learning context.

There have been a limited number of studies on EFL motivation in Indonesian among junior high school students. Lamb (2004a, 2004b, 2007), for example, found that over 20 months students' instrumental motivation increased slightly although their integrative motivation did not. Classroom-related variables emerged as the most important aspects of learning and monotonous classroom procedures, incomprehensible lessons, and the fear of reprimand were highly demotivating to students.

For the purposes of this paper, motivation is defined in terms of the instrumental and integrative types used by Gardner and Lambert (1972), while it also recognises that the static interpretation advanced initially by Young (1961) needs to be seen as a complex and dynamic process that is based on multiple internal and contextual factors that are subject to change.

### **TBLT and Writing**

Authentic task-based approaches to education started to be used in schools in the 1970s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) and in language teaching in the early 1980s (Prabhu, 1987). Consequently, TBLT flourished in the 1980s and 1990s (Skehan, 1998) arising from dissatisfaction with communicative language teaching (CLT) which still relied on grammar-based instruction. TBLT promoted an authentic way of learning languages aimed at meaning-

focused activities in which the linguistic focus emerged incidentally at the end of the learning sequence. Numerous researchers have defined task as a consequence (see Ellis, 2003; Van den Branden, 2016) and while there is no common agreement, several key principles reoccur in the research. Firstly, tasks are classroom activities that enable students to use words and phrases to convey meaning or intentions. Tasks mainly focus on meaning and process, and they require an outcome. The characteristics of *tasks*: 1) involve a primary focus on semantic and pragmatic meaning, 2) have some kind of ‘gap’ (i.e. a need to convey information, to express an opinion or to infer the meaning), 3) provide freedom for choosing the linguistic or non-linguistic resources that learners need to complete their task, and 4) have a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome, i.e. the language serves as the means for achieving the outcome, not as an end in its own right (Ellis, 2003, 2009).

Arising from this, Ellis (2003), Nunan (2004), Samuda (2013), and Willis (1996) categorised classroom task frameworks into three main types that can be summarised as pre-task, task and post-task, although they used different terms in their research. The frameworks from Willis (1996), Samuda (2001) and Ellis (2003) are applicable to the research in this study as they involve a series of task stages, the last of which involves a review of the language element. The emphasis is first placed on meaning. The teacher introduces focus-on-form (‘FonF’) when improved grammar is taught at the end of the learning process through recap activities. ‘FonF’ refers to an approach to language education in which learners are only made aware of the grammatical form of language features when they are already able to use it communicatively. This two-step method (focus on meaning followed by FoF) has been shown to relax students, enabling them to learn in a more effective and enjoyable way as students focus on delivering their message instead of correct utterances (Bao & Du, 2015; Chen, 2016).

After careful review of the four TBLT frameworks suggested above, Willis's framework was chosen for this study as the final stage includes a clear emphasis on language focus. It differentiates this cycle from the stages of teaching language skills that is also divided into three stages: pre-, during, and post- activities. In the *pre-task* teachers introduce the topic and the task, highlighting useful words and phrases, helping students to understand task instructions and preparing them to attempt the tasks. Students may hear a recording of others doing a similar task for example. The second phase that Willis introduced involves the *task cycle*: task, planning and reporting. Students work in pairs or a small group. The teacher monitors the activities and maintains distance to allow students to do their work. Students then prepare to report to the class orally or in writing. This report explains how they completed the work and what they decided or learnt in the process. Following that, students present their report to the class. They may also exchange written reports and compare the results with other students. The final stage in Willis' framework is the *language focus* which is divided into analysis and practice at the end of the class. In this phase students are expected to be able to analyse and discuss specific features of the text or transcript of the recording.

Few previous research studies have investigated the success of the TBLT approach in improving English writing skills, and even fewer have examined the specific Indonesian context. In this chapter, writing refers to the production of reports and scripts used in broadcast media, as the students were studying on a Broadcasting English course to teach them the skills and language use required in the industry. In the broader context of research on TBLT and writing insights can be obtained from Abrams and Byrd (2017), for example, who recorded how collaborative, meaning-focused writing tasks improved grammatical accuracy, lexical richness, and the overall quality of students' writing. Yasuda (2017) also noted that TBLT combined with Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and genre-based tasks were effective in improving English writing skills, particularly in writing for college students.

Moreover, Talebi, Aidinlou and Farhadi (2015) reported that writing task development was confirmed in their study, but that improvements in grammatical accuracy were less pronounced. While the study was conducted in Iran and generalisability of the research is problematic, the main weakness of the research was the failure to address how information gaps could enhance writing ability. Addressing the specific Indonesian context, Sundari, Febriyanti and Saragih (2018) argue that writing is a complex matter for students, as it is not “a single entity; rather, it involves other aspects, such as mastery of grammar and vocabulary, the social context, and the targeted audience” (p. 275). Above all, it “requires a lot of effort, especially in foreign languages” and learners typically need higher levels of motivation”. The authors found that students were more highly motivated by rewriting stories and by doing homework assignments in place of group work; that the content of the writing tasks should “adaptive and relevant to global and national issues” (p. 279); and above all, that the writing tasks appeared authentic.

### **Task-based Language Teaching in Asia**

Returning to the Indonesian context, several research studies have indicated that the application of TBLT in similar Asian contexts has been problematic (Carless, 2003; Ellis, 2003; Littlewood, 2014; Mustafa, 2010; Ortega, 2012). Carless (2009) noted that EFL teaching in Asia was characterised by 1) large class sizes, 2) an examination-oriented system, 3) lack of teaching expertise in task-based approaches, 4) a preference for Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) teaching, 5) direct grammar instruction, 6) teacher-centred, and 7) non-interactive forms of teaching. Carless also pointed out that TBLT conflicted with the Confucian-heritage culture in Hong Kong.

Other researchers suggest that learning strategies and study time (Helmke & Tuyet, 1999) and achievement-oriented attitudes and motivation (Le Ha, 2014) also inhibit English language learning in Asia. Thirdly, Littlewood (2007) reported that non-student-oriented

activities, grammar translation methods and audio-lingual methods led to passive learning. In particular, Littlewood noted five concerns relating to the implementation of CLT and TBLT in East Asian classrooms: 1) classroom management, 2) avoidance of English, 3) minimal demands on language competence, 4) incompatibility with public assessment demands, and 5) conflict with established educational values and tradition.

In discussing the implementation of TBLT in teaching EFL curricula in Japan, Iran and Indonesia, Ortega (2012) argued that students' passive learning style, low motivation to learn, high dependency on teachers, and large class sizes could be overcome by a "glocalized" approach to TBLT in which teachers would be required to combine traditions by "thinking globally" and "acting locally". Similarly, Ellis (2015) agreed with the suggestion of Littlewood (2007) that in South East Asia, TBLT could be combined effectively with traditional language teaching approaches rather than supplant them (e.g., PPP and grammar-based teaching). Despite being a possible solution to motivation issues, as suggested by Carless (2009) in a broader context, Mufida, Mukhyaiyar and Radjab (2013) observed that the implementation of TBLT in Indonesia was challenging as a result of local institutional and social factors.

Arising from the above review, the following research question was identified: How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about motivation to learn English writing skills predict their experience in the digital TBLT writing classroom? Related to this, two hypotheses were confirmed:

H1: There is a significant correlation between motivation and performance in writing classes as indicated by the Final Score in the Writing 1 module.

H2: There is a significant difference in motivation between the technology group that learned to write through the use of PCs and the non-PC group.



## **Methodology**

### **Participants**

In addressing the gap identified in the literature review about the lack of studies on the Indonesian context, data for this study were collected from students at a vocational university located in West Sumatra. The university offered a three-year study programme that focussed on applied sciences and aimed to equip graduates with the technical skills needed by local industries. The participants included students aged 17–25 in the English Department and a total of 144 (m=37, f=107) were observed in three different modules: Writing 1 (Classes 1A and 1B), Technical Writing 1 (Classes 2A and 2B), and a Workshop for TV Broadcasting (Classes 3A and 3B), focusing mainly on writing skills. The students had been studying English as a compulsory subject for eight years from primary to high school. English was taught as a foreign language to these students and they were generally proficient in at least two languages (at least one local language and a national language) and they averaged 302 points (range 115–565) in their TOEIC scores.

### **Materials**

In Writing 1 the first-year students learned basic writing skills such as combining sentences and paragraph writing in a general English context. Students in Year 2 studied English for Specific Purposes (ESP) such as writing English correspondence and essays. In their final year of taught classes, the students in Year 3 learned writing for the specific genre of broadcasting, including news scripts, radio talk shows scripts, and a short TV production show in English.

The TBLT framework was implemented alongside relevant digital technology usage during the writing tasks. For example, students sat in a multimedia laboratory for Writing 1 and Technical Writing 1 and in a separate studio for TV and Radio Broadcasting. For Years 1 and 2 the dominant technology used was Internet-enabled computers. However, authentic

broadcasting equipment, audio systems, and professional cameras were used in the Year 3 workshops. The students' activities were structured according to the three stages of TBLT identified by Willis (1996) involving pre-task, task, and language focus activities.

### **Procedures**

First, the participants completed an online questionnaire and asked to rate their learning experience on a five-point Likert scale, where 1 was "Strongly Disagree" and 5 was "Strongly Agree". The questionnaire was divided into six parts but only the first two parts are discussed in this paper as they relate specifically to the research question; a copy of the questionnaire showing the parts used is provided in Appendix I. Part 1 (Items 1–3) explored the students' motivation to learn English in the vocational institution, the reasons for choosing to study in the English Department, and a statement relating to their choice of the English Department in their entry test. Part 2 (Items 4-6) focused on motivation, writing and task performance and explored the students' perception of the relation between the themes in the study.

Data were also taken from the learning process and the post-learning process to generate results for correlative studies. Document analysis was used in relation to the process of learning using tasks and digital technology, particularly in the second and last cycle in the framework of tasks based on Willis (1996): the task and the post-task. In relation to outcomes, scores from Assignment, Mid Semester-Test, and Semester-Test variables were grouped in relation to help understand the task-in-process and the task-as-outcome, which was based on Final Scores, namely, the overall score achieved at the end of the entire semester. Documents that contained learning outcomes (i.e. the scores achieved from writing modules) were analysed to identify variables related to the learning process. This standard was then correlated with other statistical results from the questionnaires.

Observations were conducted in several different classes that implemented the TBLT approach. Direct observation was made on three occasions for classes A and B in Year 1 and Year 2, while classes in Year 3 classes A and were observed once. The procedure followed the guidelines developed by Dörnyei’s “Motivation Orientation in Language Teaching” (MOLT) scheme and the variables included attention, participation and volunteering initiative as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Motivation variables observed (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008)

Variables	Description
Attention	Students look like they are paying attention; they are looking at the teacher and following her movement, looking at other students contributing to the task, or making physical responses.
Participation	Learners are actively interacting with the task and working on the assignment
Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity	At least one-third of the students are willingly volunteering without being coaxed by the teacher.

The Year 1 groups received different treatments: one class was taught using Internet technology, such as Edmodo and computer applications, and the other used conventional tools such as pens, pencils, paper and printed dictionaries.

### Data Analysis

Correlation studies on motivation, the use of digital technologies and writing proficiency were carried out using the Spearman correlation (Furlong, Lovelace & Lovelace, 2000) to analyse the relationship between motivation and attitude towards English learning, and motivation and attitude towards the English writing modules. Both data and methodological triangulation were used to maintain construct validity (Silverman, 2014). Interrater agreement on NVivo was used to ensure the reliability of the qualitative coding and reliability achieved 78% in agreement (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The validity and reliability of the questionnaire were tested at the pilot stage using Cronbach’s Alpha (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Potential threats to validity, and the strategies employed to minimise these when merging data in concurrent

convergent, embedded, transformative, and multiphase designs are listed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011). These were taken into account and the study ensured its internal validity by using a logical model to draw an accurate conclusion (Yin, 2014). The variables described in Table 1 were used to record the classroom motivational behaviour.

**Findings**

**English Learning Motivation (ELM)**

The research examined the numbers of students by year of entry that chose the English Department as their first, second, or third option. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Rank of entry year

			Classes by Year of Entry			Total
			Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	
Rank of Entry Option	First	Number of Students	20	16	19	55
		Percentage of Students	41.7%	34.8%	61.30%	44%
	Second	Number of Students	22	22	11	55
		Percentage of Students	45.8%	47.8%	35.50%	44%
	Third	Number of Students	6	7	1	14
		Percentage of Students	12.5%	15.2%	3.20%	11.20%
	Missing	Number of Students	0	1	0	1
		Percentage of Students	0%	2.2%	0%	0.80%
Total	Number of Students		48	46	31	125
	Percentage of Students		100%	100%	100%	100%

Overall, 44% of students opted to study English as their first choice and a further 44% as their second choice. However, there were small differences between years of entry. The figures were 87.5% in Year 1, 82.6% in Year 2, and 96.8% in Year 3. Nevertheless, far fewer students in Years 1 (41.7%) and 2 (34.8%) chose English as their first option compared with Year 3 (61.3%) due to changes in entry standards.

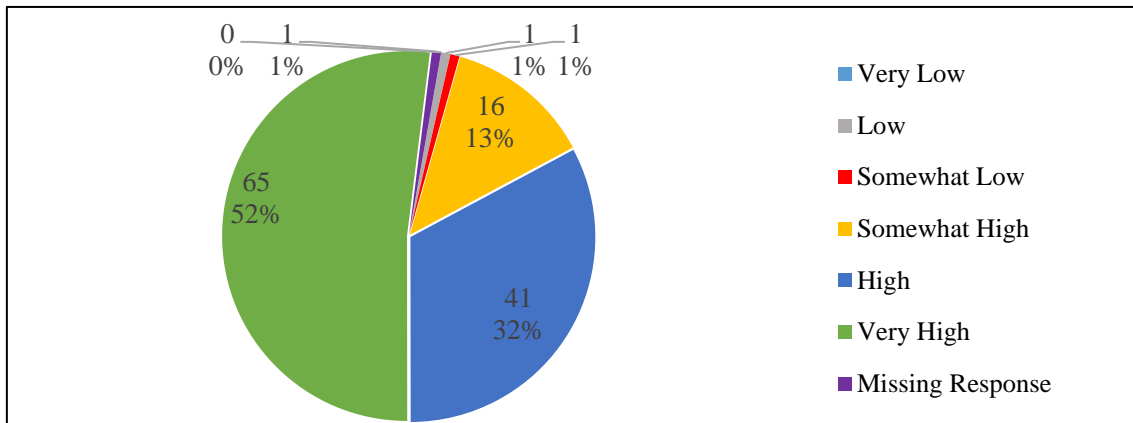


Figure 1. Item 1, Willingness to learn English

Students from each year group indicated that they had a high level of motivation to learn English (see Figure 1) with 52% very willing to learn the language and a further 32% who had a high willingness. A similar picture was given by students for choosing to study in the English Department (see Figure 2)

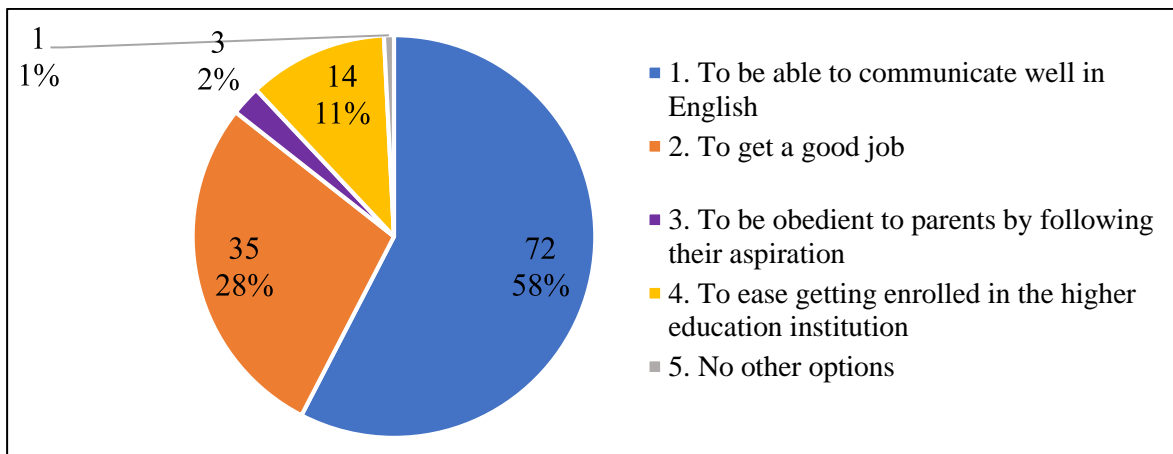


Figure 2. Item 2. My main reason for choosing the English Department.

The majority of students responded that they wanted to be able to communicate well in English (58%), while 28% chose to study in order to obtain a good job (see Figure 2).

A summary of the twelve classroom observations that took place is shown in Table 3 and indicates a contrasting finding between the questionnaire results and the classroom observations.

Table 3. Classroom observation summary

Class	Learners' Motivated Behaviour		
	Attention	Participation	Volunteering
1A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Divided attention</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominated by the same students</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominated by the same student but the lecturer took control to enable other students to participate</li> </ul>
1B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attentive activities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominated by the same students</li> <li>• Active in getting access to different resources and the lecturers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominated by the same student but the lecturer took control to enable other students to participate</li> </ul>
2A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Divided attention</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominated by the same students</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of volunteering</li> </ul>
2B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Divided Attention</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dominated by the same students</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lecturer regulated the volunteering but students indicated a willingness to volunteer</li> </ul>

Students responded differently according to the way the lecturers conducted the classes and it was evident that attention, participation and volunteering varied. Both classes paid attention to the lecturers' instructions. However, students' attention in Class 1A was rather unfocused; some were busy with their monitors, while others paid attention to the lecturers. In comparison, attention during the pre-task session in Class 1B was focused; students listened to and read from the same resources when the lecturer guided them to read a writing sample together from the screen projector.

Even though both classes in Year 2 used PCs in their learning, there were differences in their motivational behaviour. Class 2B paid more attention in the three task-based cycles compared with those in Class 2A. Observation strongly suggested that the varying competences and personalities of the four lecturers teaching the course heavily influenced student behaviour.

Observation recorded that students in Class 1B were more active in using different tools and were not limited to Google Translate and other online and offline dictionaries. They also used specific Indonesian dictionary applications, YouTube and websites to complete their writing tasks. Students' participation and volunteering were broadly similar in each class with

the more extrovert students dominating participation and volunteering. However, the more experienced lecturers were able to ensure a more equal form of participation.

The first session of the task cycle was not engaging for students, but feedback sessions were reported as stimulating. Students in the non-Edmodo-based class became active and walked around approaching their peers and lecturers to obtain feedback and to question the feedback they received. Students from the Edmodo-based classes demonstrated curiosity and made sure that their peers responded to their writing. They talked to each other and reminded each other of their roles as feedback providers.

The students in Class 1B were greatly handicapped as their only resource was their handwriting books which had to be taken in person to the feedback providers although they too walked and talked freely to each other and to lecturers to obtain this. As the students' wish to learn English was driven by non-language and cultural-related factors, their motivation was often weak and their main writing tasks were frequently not completed within the time limit. However, their willingness, as indicated by their effort to approach the lecturers to obtain feedback at the end of the task cycles, was high.

### **The Relationship Between ELM and Writing Task Completion**

The correlation between the students' reported levels of motivation, technology and their performance in task completion is presented according to the following hypotheses and findings from inferential statistics. These results were then compared with the qualitative findings to draw conclusions. Two hypotheses were posed for the research question.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant correlation between motivation and performance in writing classes as indicated by the Final Score in the Writing 1 module.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between the technology group that learned to write through the use of PCs and the non-PC group.

Correlations were made between motivation levels as reported in the questionnaire and variables from the Assignments, Mid-Test, Semester-Test (the final semester examination) and Final Scores (the scores that students achieved for the entire semester). Because the data were not normally distributed (except for the Final Score variable), Kendal’s Tau and Spearman’s Rho tests were run. The significant value was set at 0.5. In instances where the two tests differed, the Kendal’s Tau result was accepted as likely to be the more accurate. To check the answer for Hypothesis 1 the variables were correlated separately. A Pearson product-moment correlation was run to determine the relationship between motivation and the final score in the writing modules (see Table 6).

Table 6. Correlation between Motivation and Final Scores in the writing modules.

		Motivation Level	Final Score
Motivation Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.491
	N	124	124
Final Score	Pearson Correlation	.062	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.491	
	N	124	124

Although there was a positive correlation between the motivation level and the Final scores, the correlation was not statistically significant ( $r = -0.74$ ,  $n = 125$ ,  $p = .410$ ) and it was concluded that there was no relationship between the final scores in Writing 1 and the motivation levels (see Table 7).



Table 7. Correlation between Motivation Level and Task-in Process Scores

			Motivation Level	Assignment Score	Mid-Test Score	Semester-Test Score
Spearman's rho	Motivation Level	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.108	.026	.069
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.236	.771	.449
		N	124	123	124	124
	Assignment Score	Correlation Coefficient	.108	1.000	.334**	.544**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.236		.000	.000
		N	123	124	124	124
	Mid-Test Score	Correlation Coefficient	.026	.334**	1.000	.464**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.771	.000		.000
		N	124	124	125	125
	Semester-Test Score	Correlation Coefficient	.069	.544**	.464**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.449	.000	.000	
		N	124	124	125	125

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

None of the three scores were statistically significant although the Assignment Score had the strongest correlation coefficient ( $r = .108$ ,  $p = .236$ ) and the Mid-Test scores the lowest ( $r = .026$ ,  $p = .771$ ).

The results from Year 1 were examined in more detail as it was hypothesised that the utilisation of technology might affect changes of motivation and writing proficiency (Hypothesis 2). Students in Class 1A ( $M = 74.59$ ,  $SD = 3.850$ ,  $n = 22$ ) used technology when learning Writing 1 through task-based activities. Students of Class 1B ( $M = 77.42$ ,  $SD = 3.384$ ,  $n = 26$ ) did not. A t-test was conducted to analyse the data and the results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Independent sample test.

	Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		<u>t-test for Equality of Means</u>						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper	
Final Score	.394	.534	-2.712	46	.009	-2.832	1.044	-4.934	-.730
			-2.683	42.261	.010	-2.832	1.056	-4.962	-.702

The t-test assumed that the standard deviations were the same (less than 4.0).  $F = .394$  and the score of  $.534$  was above the significant level. Therefore, the Equal Variance Assumed was used to check for the t-value ( $-2.712$ ) and the significant level was  $.009$ , which was  $\geq .05$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted and the difference between the use of technology and non-technology in these two classes was significant. There was a significant relationship between having been exposed to technology and students' writing skills ( $t(46) = -2.712, p < .05$ ).

A Kruskal-Wallis test was run to investigate whether exposure to the use of technology was associated with the student's performance in writing classes (see Table 9).

Table 9. Kruskal-Wallis results on Motivation and the Task-in Process variables.

	Assignment Score	Mid-Test Score	Semester-Test Score	Final Score
Chi-Square	1.426	.511	.800	.957
df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.490	.775	.670	.620

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Motivation Level

There were no significant differences in the Assignment, Mid-Term Test, and Semester-Test Scores between ‘somewhat high’, ‘high’, and ‘very highly’ motivated students.

The Assignment Score was not significantly different for students of these three groups in terms of motivation levels  $\chi^2(2) = 1.426$ ,  $p = .490$ , with a mean rank of the Assignment Score 17.00 for ‘somewhat high’, 25.85 for ‘high’ and 24.76 for ‘very highly’ motivated students. There was also no significant difference in the Mid-Test score  $\chi^2(2) = .511$ ,  $p = .775$ , with a mean rank Assignment Score of 19.75 for ‘somewhat high’, 25.03 for ‘high’ and 24.87 for ‘very highly motivated’ students. Similarly, there was no significant difference between the Semester-Test Score  $\chi^2(2) = .957$ ,  $p = .620$ , with a mean rank Assignment Score of 19.25 for ‘somewhat high’, 23.44 for ‘high’, and 25.94 for ‘very highly’ motivated students.

The Mann-Whitney U Test was used to investigate the differences between two independent groups i.e. Classes 1A and 1B (see Table 10).

Table 10. Mann-Whitney U Test results.

	Assignment Score	Mid-Test Score	Semester-Test Score
Mann-Whitney U	118.000	243.000	130.000
Wilcoxon W	371.000	594.000	383.000
Z	-3.619	-.896	-3.253
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.370	.001

a. Grouping Variable: Class

The Assignment and semester-Test Scores show significant differences compared to the Mid-Test score between Classes 1A and 1B. The Assignment Score in Class 1B were statistically significant and higher than the Class 1A ( $U = 118, p = .000$ ) with a mean rank of the Assignment Score 30.96 for 1B and 16.86 for 1A. Similar findings were noted for the Semester-Test Score. Class 1B had a significant difference compared to 1A ( $U = 130, p = .001$ ) with a mean rank Semester-Test score of 30.50 for 1B and 17.41 for Class 1A.

However, there were no significant differences between these two classes in the Mid-Test Scores ( $U = 243, p = .370$ ). This variable also appeared to differ in mean rank. While Class 1B had higher scores for Assignment and Semester-Test, Class 1A had higher scores in a mean rank of 26.45 for 1A and 22.85 for Class 1B. Arising from these results, the findings for research question 1 are summarised in Table 11.

Table 11. The quantitative findings

	Hypotheses	Variables	Findings	Conclusion	
1	<p><math>H_0</math>: there is a significant correlation between motivation and performances in writing classes.</p> <p><math>H_1</math>: there is no significant correlation between motivation and performances in writing classes.</p>	1.1 Motivation and Task-in Process	1.1.1 Motivation and Assignment Score	Not significant ( $r = .108, p = .236$ )	Ho = Rejected
			1.1.2 Motivation and Mid-Test Score	Not significant ( $r = .026, p = .771$ )	Ho = Rejected
			1.1.3 Motivation and Semester Test Score	Not significant ( $r = .069, p = .449$ )	Ho = Rejected
		1.2 Task-as Outcomes	1.2.4 Motivation and Final Score	Not significant ( $r = -0.74, n = 125, p = .410$ )	Ho = Rejected
2	<p><math>H_0</math>: there is a significant difference between the PC-based group and the non-PC-group.</p> <p><math>H_1</math>: there is no significant difference between the PC-based group and the non-PC-group</p>	2.1	There was an association between the use of technology and performance in Writing 1 module ( $t(46) = -2.712, p < .05$ )		Ho = Accepted
		2.2	There were no statistical differences between motivation level and task-in process (assignment, mid-test, and semester-test scores variables) and motivation level and the task-in process and task-as outcome (Final Score variable)		Ho = Accepted

As is evident in Table 11, there was no association between motivation and the task-in-process and task-as-outcomes. And the use of PC or non-PC (in Classes 1A and 1B) did not influence the performance in writing classes.

To conclude, the correlation between the students' reported level of motivation, the use of technology, and the students' actual performance in task completion was also evaluated qualitatively by generating answers from coded transcripts. It is not possible to correlate quantitative datasets with qualitative datasets, thus the term 'correlation' was replaced with the synonymous word 'relationship'. The results of the correlation analysis were disappointing, and no significant correlations were identified.

The correlation was analysed between motivation and task-as-outcome which was measured by the students' Final Scores. Although there was a strong, positive correlation between the Motivation Levels and the Final Score it was not statistically significant ( $r = -0.74$ ,  $n = 125$ ,  $p = .410$ ). Four variables were analysed to examine the relationship between motivation and writing skills (task-in-process). None of the results were statistically significant.

For the task-in process, the first variable examined was the students' actual performance when carrying out task-based activities as measured by the results of their weekly writing task or Assignment Score. Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient was used to analyse the results and there was a weak positive correlation between the Motivation Levels and Assignment Score ( $r = .108$ ,  $n = 123$ ,  $p = .236$ ).

The second variable examined was the relationship between Motivation Levels and writing skills as measured by the Mid-Test Score was also investigated using Spearman's product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r = .026$ ,  $n = 124$ ,  $p = .771$ ). It was weaker than the Assignment Score's correlation.

The third variable studied was the relationship between Motivation Levels and writing skills as measured by Semester-Test Score - also using Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. There was a weak correlation between Motivation Levels and Semester-Test Score, but it was stronger than the Mid-Test Score variables ( $r = 0.69$ ,  $n = 124$ ,  $p = .449$ ).

The fourth variable examined was the relationship between Motivation and task-based activities as measured by Assignment Score, again using Spearman's Rho correlation coefficient. There was a weak positive correlation between the Motivation Level and Assignment Score ( $r = .108$ ,  $n = 123$ ,  $p = .236$ ).

An initial objective of the research was to identify the role of motivation in the learning of English writing through technology-mediated TBLT in an Indonesian HEI. It was found that using technology affected students' motivation in completing their writing tasks both positively and negatively. In particular it was the software, applications or websites that were important in keeping the students motivated to complete their required tasks.

The study found that access to digital tools was the dominant factor in facilitating the learning of English writing skills and that it was access to digital tools that facilitated learning regardless of the stated reason to learn or the professed degree of motivation. This conclusion was made on the basis of Gardner's model (2007). It is also evident that learner motivation fluctuated based on the classroom situation. The motivation that was reported on item 1 of the students' questionnaire was compared with the observed language learning motivation (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008) derived from the classroom observation notes. Classroom behaviour, persistence in following the sequence of tasks, and language retention were all recorded, as these four elements combined to help explain motivation to study a foreign language within a challenging classroom environment. Accordingly, the data suggested that the task cycles followed by the learners successfully built up their individual levels of

persistence and this, in turn, influenced their classmates in a snowball effect which by the end of the cycle had generated motivation to learn across the group.

## **Discussion**

### **Reflections on Language Learning Motivation**

Dörnyei (1990) and Oxford and Shearin (1994) suggested that instrumental motivation and the need for achievement are associated with foreign language learning. And, more specifically, Lauder (2010) claimed that instrumental motivation was a significant factor among Indonesian students in learning English as they saw it as a means to gain access to international markets, further academic studies, and professional life. However, this study observed that a high level of motivation did not influence students' classroom behaviour and that only two Year 3 and five Year 2 students achieved scores of 95 points. However, five Year 1 students achieved only 85 for their highest Semester Test score.

It was evident that the students had a higher level of instrumental as opposed to integrative motivation as they had no real need to use English in direct daily communication. It is therefore possible to conclude that the majority of students did not have a genuine interest in English learning as the language was only understood as a stepping-stone for their future career and was not seen as a significant part of an identity that they wanted or needed to develop further.

Although 57.6% of the questionnaire respondents indicated that they wanted to be able to communicate well in English, no 'drive' was observable during classroom activities and students did not display the attitude of those who wanted to be successful. This finding is in agreement with that of Kenny (2017) who found that students with poor proficiency in English still wished to attend university to study English as a major subject. More specifically, Lauder (2010) claimed instrumental motivation was a significant factor among Indonesian students in learning English as they saw it as a means to gain access to

international markets, further academic studies, and professional life. Laufer's observation helps us to understand the findings from the current study. Although the students claimed to be highly motivated, their actual level was not sufficient to make them engage voluntarily in their learning activities, especially in writing modules, which they considered to be a boring activity.

It is clear, however, language learning motivation is subject to change and while instrumental motivation was dominant in the observed students, integrated motivation was identified in the responses to item 2 on the questionnaire, although not confirmed during classroom observation. Regardless of the findings on the motivation types, we do not consider classification important. This conclusion is in agreement with Gardner (2007) who found that the intensity of the motivation is more crucial in L2 learning than classifying motivation as integrative, instrumental, or as extrinsic and intrinsic. In our study students said that they chose to study English so that they could communicate in English, and it was this ability that motivated them. The students did not specify the communication channel they wished to use, probably because in Indonesia EFL learning, oral communication is commonly referred to communication and the students wished to improve their ability in this regard. Nevertheless, at all levels of teaching, a grammar-focused and reading-based learning system dominates the English learning context in Indonesia (Sulistiyo, 2016). The national foreign language teaching curriculum is outcomes-based at the higher education level and aims to develop the four language skills equally (Solikhah, 2015). However, this does not happen in practice. Musthafa (2015) found that teaching in Indonesia was heavily biased towards the improvement of speaking English rather than the other skills. Therefore, this study found that in responding to the online questionnaire, students automatically understood the successful learning of English in terms of being competent in speaking and ignored English writing



competence. Students therefore rated their motivation to learn English in terms of becoming a fluent English speaker rather than writer.

These findings are also in agreement with Gardner's (2007) claim on classroom learning. To pass the module with good scores became the dominant reason for students based on classroom observation. The students who did not have integrative learning motivation were influenced by the learning atmosphere in the technology-mediated TBL writing classes. According to the qualitative data, students displayed shifting motivational drives as both integrated and instrumental motivation was evident. As Gardner divided motivation into language learning and classroom learning motivation, it was evident that the classroom environment may have played an important role in strengthening language learner motivation. In the case of low levels of motivation, which were identified with the instrumental type, the classroom environment that utilised the technology-mediated TBLT approach enabled the students to stay motivated throughout their writing skills development.

A similar concept was identified by Bower (2017) who claimed that learners' motivation, the learning context and the environment influence and shape each other. These three factors co-exist in classroom contexts where changes in the level and types of motivation can happen. Similarly, this study did not find it necessary to classify motivation into particular types because of the sociocultural context of learning of English as a first foreign language in Indonesia. Motivation emerges as a result as more developmental in orientation (Lauder, 2010). Thus, looking at the intensity of the motivation was more significant in this respect. This was because the openness to cultural identification was included in integrative motive. It also included openness to cultural identification as an element that is likely associated with attaining the ultimate level of achievement. We argue that in vocational higher education, learning English is expected to be more externally oriented because of the expectations of the system, the quality of the programme, the interest,

enthusiasm, and skills of the teacher, the adequacy of the materials, the curriculum, and the class atmosphere. All of these factors play a role in the motivation of the students.

The results of the study suggest a connection between the use of technology, with its ease of access to content, to improve the learning of English writing skills. The students' difficulties in bringing and using printed dictionaries were found to have contributed to their unwillingness to perform well in the writing task completion exercises. In contrast the ease and lack of effort needed to find useful digital tools to complete the writing tasks improved the students' motivation and their willingness to complete the writing task. The quantitative data were only collected once, and it was therefore not possible to measure changes in motivation adequately over time. However, it was evident from observation of the students from Years 2 and 3, that they had experienced changes in motivation at different stages of the learning process. This finding was derived from different students who recalled how their motivation developed over time and followed classroom learning motivation as proposed by Gardner (2007).

For the Year 3 it was evident from observation that they demonstrated change in their motivation depending on the learning context. For example, as they progressed to the next level of study they found different tools to assist them in their learning and they became more confident in their English skills. This increase in confidence also affected their motivational intensity and their motivation types. Consequently, students also became more motivated in their English writing skills and in completing their writing tasks. This finding was in line with those of Busse and Walter (2013) who suggested that students' continued motivation at university level was affected by their perceived progress. When students felt that they had made progress in mastering English, they became more motivated to learn. The improved motivation was also associated with increasing enjoyment in the learning process.

In terms of answering the research question which guided the study our analysis has compared the results from the questionnaire with those from classroom observation. No significant positive relationship was found between motivation and 1) Assignment Score, 2) the Mid-Test Score, 3) the Semester-Test Score, or 4) the Final Score. There were no statistical differences between Motivation Levels and task-in process (Assignment, Mid Semester-Test, and Semester Test variables) and task-as-outcome (Final Score). However, the association between the use of technology and the performance in Writing 1 module was confirmed. The learning of writing skills using technology-mediated TBLT approaches did not significantly influence the students' motivation in terms of quantitative findings. This outcome was expected as the literature records that the success of learning is not only measured by the scores (Gardner, 2010).

It is evident that motivation changes over time; it is influenced by numerous, unfixed and uncontrollable factors and is hard to measure (Dörnyei, 2001a). We thus recognise that our measure of motivation, extracted from the qualitative data, may have been related to a specific trait. Similar findings were recorded by Lo and Hyland (2007) in their study in Hong Kong who found that a new writing programme improved students' writing engagement and motivation but also resulted in lower writing scores for accuracy and organisation, especially among the more able students. Encouraging students to write about topics of interest and relevance to them, and providing them with a genuine audience for their may be liberating and confidence-building. In the case of our data, the use of smartphones which can access vocabulary-searching tools, and the use of PCs to access a wide range of internet-based tools, did not improve students' motivation to complete their writing tasks.

### **The effects of culture on motivation**

Gardner's model (2007) can help to explain why the findings in the study were not statistically significant. Even though the results of the study were not significant, students

who went through this learning cycle found that learning through technology-mediated TBLT approaches was preferred. The students were familiar with the general writing culture and educational context of their study, but they were not accustomed to task-based learning cycles. They initially found the cycles of pre-task (planning), task (writing, giving feedback, and rewriting), and language focus (analysis and practice) challenging. However, as the students became used to the new cultural and educational context and more familiar with using English, their attitude to learning the language improved, as did their motivation. Students who had completed their three-year programme reported that they gained an advantage by using the TBLT approach through the use of technological applications.

## **Conclusion**

This study has identified three main outcomes relating to learner motivation: 1) the factors that affect the motivation to improve English writing skills, 2) the use of computer technology, and 3) the way students accomplished their English writing tasks. According to much of the research literature on language learner motivation, it is regarded as either instrumental/extrinsic or integrative/intrinsic. However, it is evident from this study that this model is overly static and simplistic in the Indonesian HE context; motivation to learn a new language might not solely be either instrumental or integrated but a combination of both at different times that is dependent on the unique context of the learner. Utilising quantitative and qualitative findings in order to answer the research question (How do Indonesian EFL students' perceptions about their motivation to learn English predict their experience in the technology-mediated TBLT classroom?), the findings suggest that the Indonesian EFL learners were highly motivated to study English for economic development, such as personal development or employability. The use of digital technology, such as e-portfolios, classroom management systems, digital online and offline dictionaries, and other internet-facilitated equipment in the learning of English writing skills, motivated the students. The questionnaire

results indicated that the students had very high levels of motivation in learning English in Indonesia, however, they were not enthusiastic about working on the first draft of their writing tasks. This session seemed to be very time-consuming. Students were not motivated to complete their writing on time. Even though the students reported wanting to learn the English language, they were not motivated to take an active role in the learning process. Moreover, the students mentioned that they lacked the confidence to write because of limited vocabulary. Similar to other Asian cultures, Indonesian students were dominated by dependency on their teacher and they relied on instructions and guidelines from the lecturers.

### **Implications and Limitations**

Firstly, in relation to pedagogical implications, when discussing English learning motivation levels, findings suggest that language learning motivation was affected by classroom learning motivation. Even though a student had a high level of motivation or had integrative or intrinsic motivation for learning English, it was not necessarily reflected in their attitude to writing classes. It is recommended that lecturers identify their students' English learning motivation at the beginning of the semester. By doing so, adjustments to the teaching design and materials can then be made in order to fulfil the students' needs, and to improve motivational strategies that are needed in the learning process.

The second implication relates to future research. While the study has attempted to investigate motivational issues based on Gardner's (2007) model, more research is required to investigate the effectiveness of the model to embrace all of its elements.

The most significant limitation of this study refers to the nature of the data. The study was designed for a specific, local context in Indonesia. Since every classroom is unique, the results of the study are not generalisable. Nevertheless, they do provide insights into the specific local context that will be of value to practitioners, curriculum designers and

researchers and further encourage future experimental and longitudinal studies of English writing in digital classrooms in Indonesia.

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## Appendix I: Extract from the Online questionnaire for Students (Part I and II)

### Instructions

This questionnaire is aimed at investigating your responses on language learning motivation, attitude and opinion about the use of technology in learning English writing skills through task-based learning.

You are required to answer the following questions related to the use of technology in learning English writing in [name removed]. It is not an examination, there is no “right” or “wrong” answer. Your own opinion is highly appreciated. Thank you.

### Part I: Motivation to learn English in Vocational Institution

1. My willingness to learn English is:

1       2       3       4       5       6

Very Low

Very High

2. My main reason for choosing the English Department in this vocational institution is

(Choose one that match your reason):

To be able to communicate well in English

To get a good job

To be obedient to parents by following their aspiration

To ease getting enrolled in the higher education institution

No other options

3. On the national vocational institution entry examination, this English Department at [name removed] was my choice on (Choose one that matches your choice):

The first option       The second option       The third/last option

### Part II: Motivation and Writing Task Performance

4. My motivation has positive effect on my willingness to do the writing tasks.

1       2       3       4       5       6

Completely Disagree

Completely Agree

5. Working on the English writing tasks motivates me to improve my English writing skills.

1       2       3       4       5       6

Completely Disagree

Completely Agree

6. The use of technology in completing the writing tasks makes the learning of English writing more interesting

1       2       3       4       5       6

Completely Disagree

Completely Agree